# Polymorphic type inference

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## The term language

Term language

e := 
$$Var \mid e \mid \lambda Var \cdot e \mid$$
  
 $let Var = e in \mid e \mid letrec Var \mid e \mid n \mid e$   
 $true \mid false \mid Int \mid if \mid e then \mid e \mid e \mid e \mid e$ 

Operational semantics

let 
$$v = e$$
 in  $e1 \rightarrow (\lambda v.e1)$  e

$$\frac{\text{e1} \rightarrow \text{e1'}}{(\text{let v} = \text{e in e1}) \rightarrow (\text{let v} = \text{e in e1'})}$$

f occurs free in e1 (letrec 
$$f = e$$
 in e1)  $\rightarrow$  (letrec  $f = e$  in  $[f \mapsto e]e1$ )

f does not occur free in e1 (letrec 
$$f = e$$
 in e1)  $\rightarrow$  e1

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{e1} \rightarrow \text{e1'} \\ \hline \text{(letrec v = e in e1)} \rightarrow \text{(letrec v = e in e1')} \end{array}$$

Values

$$v := true | false | Int | \lambda x.e$$

# Illustration of letrec

Let's and Latrec's - example

letrec fact = 
$$2n \cdot if (n = 1)$$
 then 1 else

 $1 \cdot if (act (n-1))$  in  $(fact 2) \rightarrow if$ 

letrec fact =  $\dots$  in

 $(2 \cdot if (n-1))$  then 1 else  $(n \cdot if (n-1))$   $if (2 \cdot if (n-1))$ 

## Illustration of letrec - II

```
letrec fact = ... in
      (()n. if (n=1) then 1 else (n* (fact (n-1)))) 1)
letrec fact = ... in 2 * (if (1=1) Then 1 else (1 * (fact 0)))
 Letrec fact = ... in 2 * 1 \longrightarrow 2 * 1 \rightarrow 2
```

# ML-style polymorphic type checking

#### How is this different from STLC?

- Programmer does not annotate types of variables. System checks well-typedness without annotations.
- Supports polymorphic function definitions, and even polymorphic recursive function definitions.
  - A polymorphic term is one that can be assigned many different types.
- System checks whether the (unannotated) term is well-typed, and if yes, infers a principal type (most general type) for it.

## Examples

- Consider  $\lambda$ -calculus extended with "let"s. In STLC, we would need to write separate functions
  - $idBool = \lambda x:Bool. \ x$
  - idNat =  $\lambda x$ :Nat. x

etc.

- These functions all have the same operational semantics.
   Hence, a redundancy!
- To fix this issue, we extend the language of types:

 $\mathsf{Type} \quad := \quad \forall \ \mathsf{TVar} \ . \ \mathsf{Type} \mid \mathsf{UType}$ 

 $\mathsf{UType} \;\; := \;\; \mathsf{Nat} \; | \; \mathsf{Bool} \; | \; \mathsf{UType} \to \mathsf{UType} \; | \; \mathsf{TVar}$ 

TVar  $:= A, B, C, \dots$ 

Note: 'Type' is the domain of polymorphic types. UType is the domain of monomorphic types. We use  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ , etc. to denote poly types, and  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$ , etc., to denote mono types.

• id =  $\lambda x.x$  is well-typed, because it is possible to annotate it (in many ways, in fact) to yield a well-typed STLC term.

### Polymorphic types

- An instance of a type  $T_1 = \forall v. T_2$  is a type  $T_3 = [v \mapsto U_1]T_2$ , where  $U_1$  is some mono type. We say  $T_1$  is more general than  $T_3$ .
- Intuitively
  - Any polytype represents a family of monotypes, which are all (direct or transitive) instances of the polytype
  - If t: T, and T is a polytype, it is as if t is of every type in the family of T
- A principal type or most general type for an expression e is a type T such that every possible mono type U for e is an instance of T.
- Therefore, principal type for id is  $\forall A.A \rightarrow A$ .

## Typing rules

(Note: T's are Types, U's are UTypes, and A's are TVars) 
$$v:T \in \Gamma$$
 
$$T \vdash v:T$$
 
$$\Gamma \vdash e1:U1 \rightarrow U2, \\ \Gamma \vdash e2:U1$$
 
$$T \vdash (e1 \ e2):U2$$
 
$$\Gamma,v:U1 \vdash e:U$$
 
$$T \vdash (\lambda v.e):U1 \rightarrow U$$
 
$$\Gamma \vdash e1:U1, \Gamma \vdash e2:U2$$
 
$$T \vdash e1:U1, \Gamma \vdash e2:U2$$
 
$$T \vdash e1:U1, \Gamma \vdash e2:U2$$
 
$$T \vdash e1:U1, \Gamma \vdash e2:U2$$

 $\Gamma \vdash (e1, e2): (U1, U2)$ 

# $Typing\ rules-continued$

$$\Gamma \vdash e1:T, \ \Gamma, \ v:T \vdash e:U$$

$$\Gamma \vdash (let \ v=e1 \ in \ e):U$$
[T-Let]

Note: Unlike in T-ABS, in T-LET we type-check the body e in an environment where v may have a polymorphic type T (derived from the inferred type of e1 using T-GEN).

 Therefore, different occurrences of v in e can have different types.

## $Typing\ rules-continued$

$$\Gamma \vdash e: U, A_1, \dots, A_n \notin FV(\Gamma)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e: \forall A_1 \dots \forall A_n. U$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e: \forall A_1 \forall A_2 \dots \forall A_n. U,$$

$$FV(U_1) \cap (FV(\Gamma) \cup \{A_2 \dots A_n\}) = \phi$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e: \forall A_2 \dots \forall A_n. [A_1 \mapsto U_1] U$$
[T-INST]

#### Illustration 1

$$\frac{\int : Nd \Rightarrow A \vdash \int : Nat \Rightarrow A, 3 : Nat}{\int : Nd \Rightarrow A \vdash (13) : A} + \frac{\int -App}{\int -App}$$

$$A \vdash (\lambda f. (13)) : (Nd \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow A$$

$$+ (\lambda f. (13)) : \forall A. (Nd \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow A$$

$$+ (\lambda f. (13)) : \forall A. (Nd \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow A$$

### Illustration 2

```
FV(Nat) \cap FV(q:4A.(Nat=A)=A)= \phi
                            g:..,n:Nath (n+1):Nat Toplus
g: \A. (Not > A) > A F
g: \A. (Not > A) > A
                              g. & A. (Nat -> A) > A +
                                                                              9:...
      g: (Nat 7 A) 7 A F
g: (Nat 7 Nat) 3 pNat,
                                                     9: (Not = P) = A - Not - Bool, Not - Bool
                              (In.n+1): Nat > Nat
                                  _____T-app
                          9. XA. (Not >A) ->A -
                                                           q: XA.(Nat >A)>A +
                         (9 (7n.n+1)): Nat
                                                             (9 (7n.n>4)): Bool
 See previous slide T-gen g: XA.(Not > A) > A [

(75.(33)): XA.(Not > A) > A ((9 (2n.n>4))): (Not, Bool)
                                                ARE(AE toN).AK:p
  Het g = 78. (8 3) in
        ((g(\lambda n.n+1)), (g(\lambda n.n > 4))):(Nat, Book)
```

# An ill-typed lambda abstraction

Consider df =  $\lambda$ f.((f 3), (f true)). What is its type?

- It is not  $(Nat \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (A, A)$ ,
  - '(f true)' has invalid argument.
- nor (Bool $\rightarrow A$ ) $\rightarrow (A, A)$ ,
- nor even  $(B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (A, A)$ 
  - Unquantified variables are implicitly existentially quantified.
     Think of the above type as being equivalent to
     ∃A∃B.(B → A) → (A, A). This is not the right type for df.
- What if it is  $\forall A \forall B.(B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (A, A)$ ?
  - $(\lambda f.((f 3), (f true))) (\lambda n.n+1)$  type checks!
  - Reason:  $(Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow (Nat, Nat)$  is an instance of  $\forall A \forall B. (B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (A, A)$ , and is applicable to  $\lambda n. n+1$ .
- What if it is  $\forall A.(\forall B.B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (A,A)$ ?
  - Would have worked, except that it is a "deep" type, which the current type system does not support (deep type = all ∀'s are not at the outermost level).
    - An example of valid argument to df under this typing:

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- What if it is  $\forall A.(\forall B.B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (A,A)$ ?
  - Would have worked, except that it is a "deep" type, which the current type system does not support (deep type = all ∀'s are not at the outermost level).
    - An example of valid argument to df under this typing:  $\lambda x.5$
  - There exists no shallow type for df!
- Therefore, we declare df to be ill-typed.



#### A closer look at T-ABS

T-ABS is able to declare df ill-typed because ...

- It type checks the body of  $\lambda v.e$  in an environment where v is monomorphic (v:U1), as opposed to (v: $\forall A_1 ... A_n.$ U1).
- Therefore, all occurrences of v in e are required to have the same type (the types of the different occurrences cannot be instantiated to different types).
- Therefore, df fails to type check.

## How to work around this problem?

- If we knew the type of the argument df is being applied to, we could use this to type-check df.
- However, we will not always know the type of the argument while type-checking df. Example:  $((\lambda f. (f (\lambda x.x))))$  df).
- The way to make the type of the argument known is to use a "let":
  - "let  $f = \lambda x.x$  in ((f 3), (f true))" will type-check.
  - "let  $f = \lambda n.n+1$  in ((f 3), (f true))" will not type-check.
  - In other words, df can be type-checked whenever its argument is hard-coded (via a "let"). In this scenario df essentially does not need the first argument (i.e., f), and hence does not need a deep type.

#### A closer look at T-GEN

Need for the pre-condition  $A \notin FV(\Gamma)$  in T-GEN:

- Consider  $t = "\lambda f$ . let g = f in ((g 3), (g true))". Say, in the T-ABS rule we guess a type  $f:B \to A$ , this typing to the environment, and then proceed to type-check the sub-term "let g = f in ((g 3), (g true))".
- Term t1 = "((g 3), (g true))" would type-check if we generalized the type of g to  $\forall B.B \rightarrow A$  while type-checking t1.
- However, this would implicitly force the type of t to become  $\forall A.(\forall B.B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (A,A)$ , which is a deep type.
- Therefore, we include the pre-condition, which forces t1 to be type-checked under an environment wherein the type of f is monomorphic (i.e.,  $B \rightarrow A$ ), which in causes t1 to be called ill-typed.

# Typing rule for letrec

#### Note:

- v's type is taken to be monomorphic while type-checking e1.
- v's type is taken to be polymorphic while type-checking e.
- This makes the type-system decidable.

#### Illustration 3

## Summary of polymorphic type system

- It is sound. That is, no term that can be given a type according to the type rules can ever reduce to a non-value normal form.
- It is incomplete. That is, there exist terms that can never reduce to a non-value form that are not typable.
- Every well-typed term has a unique principal type.
- The type system is decidable. That is, there exists an algorithm that can identify the principal type of every well-typed term.