

**CMSC 430**  
**Introduction to Compilers**  
**Spring 2016**

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**Type Systems**

# What is a Type System?

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- A *type system* is some mechanism for distinguishing good programs from bad
  - Good programs = well typed
  - Bad programs = ill-typed or not typable
- Examples:
  - `0 + 1` // well typed
  - `false 0` // ill-typed: can't apply a boolean
  - `1 + (if true then 0 else false)` // ill-typed: can't add boolean to integer
    - Notice that the type system may be *conservative* — it may report programs as erroneous if they could run without type errors

# A Definition of Type Systems

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“A type system is a tractable syntactic method for proving the absence of certain program behaviors by classifying phrases according to the kinds of values they compute.”

– Benjamin Pierce, *Types and Programming Languages*

# The Plan

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- Start with lambda calculus (yay!)
- Add types to it
  - Simply-typed lambda calculus
- Prove type soundness
  - So we know what our types mean
  - We'll learn about structural induction here
- Discuss issues of types in real languages
  - E.g., null, array bounds checks, etc
- Explain type inference
- Add subtyping (for OO) to all of the above

# Lambda calculus

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- We'll use lambda calculus as a “core language” to explain type systems
  - Has essential features (functions)
  - No overlapping constructs
  - And none of the cruft
    - Extra features of full language can be defined in terms of the core language (“syntactic sugar”)
- We will add features to lambda calculus as we go on

# Simply-Typed Lambda Calculus

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- $e ::= n \mid x \mid \lambda x:t.e \mid e e$ 
  - Functions include the type of their argument
  - We've added integers, so we can have (obvious) type errs
  - We don't really need this, but it will come in handy
- $t ::= \text{int} \mid t \rightarrow t$ 
  - $t_1 \rightarrow t_2$  is the type of a function that, given an argument of type  $t_1$ , returns a result of type  $t_2$ 
    - $t_1$  is the *domain*, and  $t_2$  is the *range*

# Type Judgments

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- Our type system will prove *judgments* of the form
  - $A \vdash e : t$
  - “In type environment  $A$ , expression  $e$  has type  $t$ ”

# Type Environments

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- A *type environment* is a map from variables to types (a kind of symbol table)
  - $\cdot$  is the empty type environment
    - A closed term  $e$  is *well-typed* if  $\cdot \vdash e : t$  for some  $t$
    - We'll abbreviate this as  $\vdash e : t$
  - $x:t, A$  is just like  $A$ , except  $x$  now has type  $t$ 
    - The type of  $x$  in  $x:t, A$  is  $t$
    - The type of  $z \neq x$  in  $x:t, A$  is the type of  $z$  in  $A$
- When we see a variable in a program, we look in the type environment to find its type

# Type Rules

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$$A \vdash n : \text{int}$$
$$x \in \text{dom}(A)$$

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$$A \vdash x : A(x)$$
$$x:t, A \vdash e : t'$$

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$$A \vdash \lambda x:t. e : t \rightarrow t'$$
$$A \vdash e_1 : t \rightarrow t' \quad A \vdash e_2 : t$$

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$$A \vdash e_1 e_2 : t'$$

# Example

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$A = - : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

$$\frac{\frac{- \in \text{dom}(A)}{A \vdash - : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}} \quad A \vdash 3 : \text{int}}{A \vdash - 3 : \text{int}}$$

# Another Example

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$A = + : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

$B = x : \text{int}, A$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{+ \in \text{dom}(B)}{B \vdash + : i \rightarrow i \rightarrow i} \quad \frac{x \in \text{dom}(B)}{B \vdash x : i}}{B \vdash + x : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}} \quad B \vdash 3 : \text{int}}{B \vdash + x 3 : \text{int}} \\ \frac{A \vdash (\lambda x : \text{int}. + x 3) : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \quad A \vdash 4 : \text{int}}{A \vdash (\lambda x : \text{int}. + x 3) 4 : \text{int}}$$

We'd usually use infix  $x + 3$

# An Algorithm for Type Checking

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- Our type rules are deterministic
  - For each syntactic form, only one possible rule
- They define a natural type checking algorithm
  - $\text{TypeCheck} : \text{type env} \times \text{expression} \rightarrow \text{type}$

$\text{TypeCheck}(A, n) = \text{int}$

$\text{TypeCheck}(A, x) = \text{if } x \text{ in dom}(A) \text{ then } A(x) \text{ else fail}$

$\text{TypeCheck}(A, \lambda x:t.e) = \text{TypeCheck}((A, x:t), e)$

$\text{TypeCheck}(A, e1 \ e2) =$

$\text{let } t1 = \text{TypeCheck}(A, e1) \text{ in}$

$\text{let } t2 = \text{TypeCheck}(A, e2) \text{ in}$

$\text{if dom}(t1) = t2 \text{ then range}(t1) \text{ else fail}$

# Semantics

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- Here is a small-step, call-by-value semantics
  - If an expression can't be evaluated any more and is not a value, then it is *stuck*

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x. e1) v2 \rightarrow e1[v2 \backslash x]}$$

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow e1'}{e1 e2 \rightarrow e1' e2}$$

$$\frac{e2 \rightarrow e2'}{v1 e2 \rightarrow v1 e2'}$$

$$e ::= v \mid x \mid e e$$

$$v ::= n \mid \lambda x:t. e \quad \text{values – not evaluated}$$

# Progress

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- Suppose  $\cdot \vdash e : t$ . Then either  $e$  is a value, or there exists  $e'$  such that  $e \rightarrow e'$
- Proof by induction on  $e$ 
  - Base cases  $n, \lambda x.e$  – these are values, so we're done
  - Base case  $x$  – can't happen (empty type environment)
  - Inductive case  $e_1 e_2$  – If  $e_1$  is not a value, then by induction we can evaluate it, so we're done, and similarly for  $e_2$ . Otherwise both  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are values. Inspection of the type rules shows that  $e_1$  must have a function type, and therefore must be a lambda since it's a value. Therefore we can make progress.

# Preservation

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- If  $\cdot \vdash e : t$  and  $e \rightarrow e'$  then  $\cdot \vdash e' : t$
- Proof by induction on  $e \rightarrow e'$ 
  - Induction (easier than the base case!). Expression  $e$  must have the form  $e1\ e2$ .
  - Assume  $\cdot \vdash e1\ e2 : t$  and  $e1\ e2 \rightarrow e'$ . Then we have  $\cdot \vdash e1 : t' \rightarrow t$  and  $\cdot \vdash e2 : t'$ .
  - Then there are three cases.
    - If  $e1 \rightarrow e1'$ , then by induction  $\cdot \vdash e1 : t' \rightarrow t$ , so  $e1'\ e2$  has type  $t$
    - If reduction inside  $e2$ , similar

# Preservation, cont'd

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- Otherwise  $(\lambda x.e) v \rightarrow e[v/x]$ . Then we have

$$\frac{x:t' \vdash e:t}{\vdash \lambda x.e : t' \rightarrow t}$$

- Thus we have
  - $x:t' \vdash e:t$
  - $\cdot \vdash v:t'$
- Then by the substitution lemma (not shown) we have
  - $\cdot \vdash e[v/x] : t$
- And so we have preservation

# Substitution Lemma

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- If  $A \vdash v : t$  and  $x:t, A \vdash e : t'$ , then  $A \vdash e[v \backslash x] : t'$
- Proof: Induction on the structure of  $e$
- For lazy semantics, we'd prove
  - If  $A \vdash e1 : t$  and  $x:t, A \vdash e : t'$ , then  $A \vdash e[e1 \backslash x] : t'$

# Soundness

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- So we have
  - Progress: Suppose  $\cdot \vdash e : t$ . Then either  $e$  is a value, or there exists  $e'$  such that  $e \rightarrow e'$
  - Preservation: If  $\cdot \vdash e : t$  and  $e \rightarrow e'$  then  $\cdot \vdash e' : t$
- Putting these together, we get soundness
  - If  $\cdot \vdash e : t$  then either there exists a value  $v$  such that  $e \rightarrow^* v$ , or  $e$  diverges (doesn't terminate).
- What does this mean?
  - Evaluation getting stuck is bad, so
  - “Well-typed programs don't go wrong”

# Consequences of Soundness

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- Progress—anything that can go wrong “locally” at run time should be forbidden in the type system
  - E.g., can’t “call” an int as if it were a function
  - To check this, identify all places where the semantics get stuck, and cross-reference with type rules
- Preservation—running a program can’t change types
  - E.g., after beta reduction, types still the same
  - To check this, ensure that for each possible way the semantics can take a step, types are preserved
- These problems greatly influence the way type systems are designed

# Conditionals

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$e ::= \dots \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid \text{if } e \text{ then } e \text{ else } e$

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$$A \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}$$

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$$A \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}$$
$$A \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad A \vdash e_2 : t \quad A \vdash e_3 : t$$

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$$A \vdash \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : t$$

# Conditionals (op sem)

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$e ::= \dots \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid \text{if } e \text{ then } e \text{ else } e$

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$\text{if true then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \rightarrow e_2$

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$\text{if false then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \rightarrow e_3$

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$e_1 \rightarrow e_1'$

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$\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \rightarrow$   
 $\text{if } e_1' \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3$

- Notice how need to satisfy progress and preservation influences type system, and interplay between operational semantics and types

# Product Types (Tuples)

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$e ::= \dots \mid (e, e) \mid \text{fst } e \mid \text{snd } e$

$$\frac{A \vdash e_1 : t \quad A \vdash e_2 : t'}{A \vdash (e_1, e_2) : t \times t'}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash e : t \times t'}{A \vdash \text{fst } e : t}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash e : t \times t'}{A \vdash \text{snd } e : t'}$$

- Or, maybe, just add functions
  - $\text{pair} : t \rightarrow t' \rightarrow t \times t'$
  - $\text{fst} : t \times t' \rightarrow t$
  - $\text{snd} : t \times t' \rightarrow t'$

# Sum Types (Tagged Unions)

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$e ::= \dots \mid \text{inL}_{t_2} e \mid \text{inR}_{t_1} e$   
 $\mid (\text{case } e \text{ of } x_1:t_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid x_2:t_2 \rightarrow e_2)$

$$\frac{A \vdash e : t_1}{A \vdash \text{inL}_{t_2} e : t_1 + t_2} \quad \frac{A \vdash e : t_2}{A \vdash \text{inR}_{t_1} e : t_1 + t_2}$$
$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} A \vdash e : t_1 + t_2 \\ x_1:t_1, A \vdash e_1 : t \quad x_2:t_2, A \vdash e_2 : t \end{array}}{A \vdash (\text{case } e \text{ of } x_1:t_1 \rightarrow e_1 \mid x_2:t_2 \rightarrow e_2) : t}$$

# Self Application and Types

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- Self application is not checkable in our system

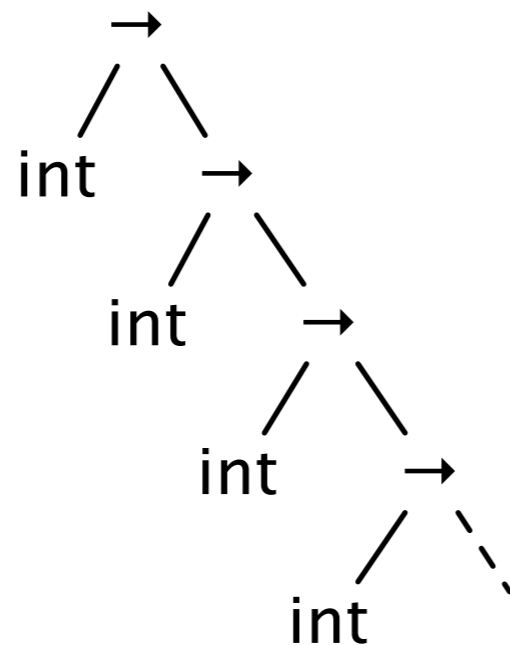
$$\frac{\frac{\frac{x:?, A \vdash x : t \rightarrow t'}{x:?, A \vdash x x : \dots}}{A \vdash \lambda x:?. x x : \dots}}$$

- It would require a type  $t$  such that  $t = t \rightarrow t'$ 
  - (We'll see this next, but so far...)
- The simply-typed lambda calculus is *strongly normalizing*
  - Every program has a normal form
  - I.e., every program halts!

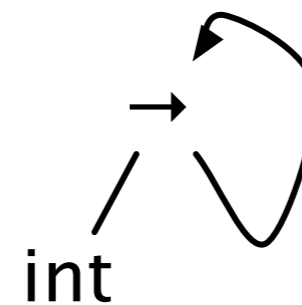
# Recursive Types

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- We can type self application if we have a type to represent the solution to equations like  $t = t \rightarrow t'$ 
  - We define the type  $\mu\alpha.t$  to be the solution to the (recursive) equation  $\alpha = t$
  - Example:  $\mu\alpha.\text{int} \rightarrow \alpha$



or



# Discussion

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- In the pure lambda calculus, every term is typable with recursive types
  - (Pure = variables, functions, applications only)
- Most languages have some kind of “recursive” type
  - E.g., for data structures like lists, tree, etc.
- However, usually two recursive types that define the same structure but use a different name are considered different
  - E.g., in C, `struct foo { int x; struct foo *next; }` is different from `struct bar { int x; struct bar *next; }`

# Subtyping

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- The Liskov Substitution Principle (paraphrased):

Let  $q(x)$  be a property provable about objects  $x$  of type  $T$ .  
If  $S$  is a subtype of  $T$ , then  $q(y)$  should be provable for  
objects  $y$  of type  $S$ .

- In other words

If  $S$  is a subtype of  $T$ , then an  $S$  can  
be used anywhere a  $T$  is expected

- Common used in object-oriented programming
  - Subclasses can be used where superclasses expected
  - This is a kind of *polymorphism*

# Kinds of Polymorphism

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- Parametric polymorphism
  - Generics in Java, `a types in OCaml
- Another popular form is subtype polymorphism
  - As in OO programming
  - These two can be combined (c.f. Java)
- Some languages also have *ad-hoc polymorphism*
  - E.g., + operator that works on ints and floats
  - E.g., overloading in Java

# Lambda Calc with Subtyping

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- $e ::= n \mid f \mid x \mid \lambda x:t.e \mid e e$ 
  - We now have both floating point numbers and integers
  - We want to be able to implicitly use an integer wherever a floating point number is expected
  - Warning: This is a bad design! Don't do this in real life
- $t ::= \text{int} \mid \text{float} \mid t \rightarrow t$ 
  - We want `int` to be a subtype of `float`

# Subtyping

---

- We'll write  $t1 \leq t2$  if  $t1$  is a subtype of  $t2$
- Define subtyping by more inference rules
- Base case

$\text{int} \leq \text{float}$

- (notice reverse is not allowed)
- What about function types?

???

$t1 \rightarrow t1' \leq t2 \rightarrow t2'$

# Replacing “f x” by “g x”

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- Suppose  $g : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_1'$  and  $f : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_2'$
- When is  $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_1' \leq \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_2'$ ?
- Return type:
  - We are expecting  $\tau_2'$  (f's return type)
  - So we can return *at most*  $\tau_2'$
  - So need  $\tau_1' \leq \tau_2'$
- Examples
  - If we're expecting `float`, can return `int` or `float`
  - If we're expecting `int`, can only return `int`

# Replacing “f x” by “g x”

---

- Suppose  $g : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_1'$  and  $f : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_2'$
- When is  $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_1' \leq \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_2'$ ?
- Argument type:
  - We are supposed to accept expecting  $\tau_2$  (f's arg type)
  - So we must accept *at least*  $\tau_2$
  - So need  $\tau_2 \leq \tau_1$
- Examples
  - A function that accepts an `int` can be replaced by one that accepts `int`, or one that accepts `float`
  - A function that accepts a `float` can only be replaced by one that accepts `float`

# Subtyping on Function Types

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$$\frac{t_2 \leq t_1 \quad t_1' \leq t_2'}{t_1 \rightarrow t_1' \leq t_2 \rightarrow t_2'}$$

- We say that arrow is
  - *Covariant* in the range (subtyping dir the same)
  - *Contravariant* in the domain (subtyping dir flips)
- Some languages have gotten this wrong
  - Eiffel allows covariant parameter types

# Similar Pattern for Pre/Post-conds

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- `class A { int f(int x) { ... } }`
- `class B extends A { int f(int x) { ... } }`
- `A.f` — precondition `Pre_A`, postcondition `Post_A`
- `B.f` — precondition `Pre_B`, postcondition `Post_B`
- Relationship among `{Pre,Post}_{A,B}`?
  - `Post_A  $\Rightarrow$  Post_B`
  - `Pre_B  $\Rightarrow$  Pre_A`
- Example:
  - `Pre_A = (x > 42), Post_A = (ret > 42)`
  - `Pre_B = (x > 0), Post_B = (ret > 100)`

# Type Rules, with Subtyping

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$$\frac{}{A \vdash n : \text{int}}$$
$$\frac{}{A \vdash f : \text{float}}$$
$$\frac{x \in \text{dom}(A)}{A \vdash x : A(x)}$$
$$\frac{x:t, A \vdash e : t'}{A \vdash \lambda x:t. e : t \rightarrow t'}$$
$$\frac{A \vdash e_1 : t_1 \rightarrow t_1' \quad A \vdash e_2 : t_2 \quad t_2 \leq t_1}{A \vdash e_1 e_2 : t_1'}$$

# Soundness

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- Progress and preservation still hold
  - Slight tweak: as evaluation proceeds, expression's type may “decrease” in the subtyping sense
  - Example:
    - `(if true then n else f) : float`
    - But after taking one step, will have type `int ≤ float`
- Proof: exercise for the reader

# Subtyping, again

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$$\frac{}{A \vdash n : \text{int}}$$
$$\frac{}{A \vdash f : \text{float}}$$
$$\frac{x \in \text{dom}(A)}{A \vdash x : A(x)}$$
$$\frac{x:t, A \vdash e : t'}{A \vdash \lambda x:t. e : t \rightarrow t'}$$
$$\frac{A \vdash e_1 : t_1 \rightarrow t_1' \quad A \vdash e_2 : t_2}{A \vdash e_1 e_2 : t_1'}$$
$$\frac{A \vdash e : t \quad t \leq t'}{A \vdash e : t'}$$

# Subtyping, again (cont'd)

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- Rule with subtyping is called *subsumption*
  - Very clearly captures subtyping property
- But system is no longer *syntax driven*
  - Given an expression  $e$ , there are two rules that apply to  $e$  (“regular” type rule, and subsumption rule)
- Can prove that the two systems are equivalent
  - Exercise left to the reader

# Lambda Calc with Updatable Refs

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- $e ::= \dots \mid \text{ref } e \mid !e \mid e := e$ 
  - ML-style updatable references
    - $\text{ref } e$  — allocate memory and set its contents to  $e$ ; return pointer
    - $!e$  — dereference pointer and return contents
    - $e1 := e2$  — update contents pointed to by  $e1$  with  $e2$
- $t ::= \dots \mid t \text{ ref}$ 
  - A  $t \text{ ref}$  is a pointer to contents of type  $t$

# Type Rules for Refs

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$$\frac{A \vdash e : t}{A \vdash \text{ref } e : t \text{ ref}} \qquad \frac{A \vdash e : t \text{ ref}}{A \vdash !e : t}$$
$$\frac{A \vdash e_1 : t_1 \text{ ref} \quad A \vdash e_2 : t_2 \quad t_2 \leq t_1}{A \vdash e_1 := e_2 : t_1}$$

# Subtyping Refs

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- The wrong rule for subtyping refs is

$$\frac{t1 \leq t2}{t1 \text{ ref} \leq t2 \text{ ref}}$$

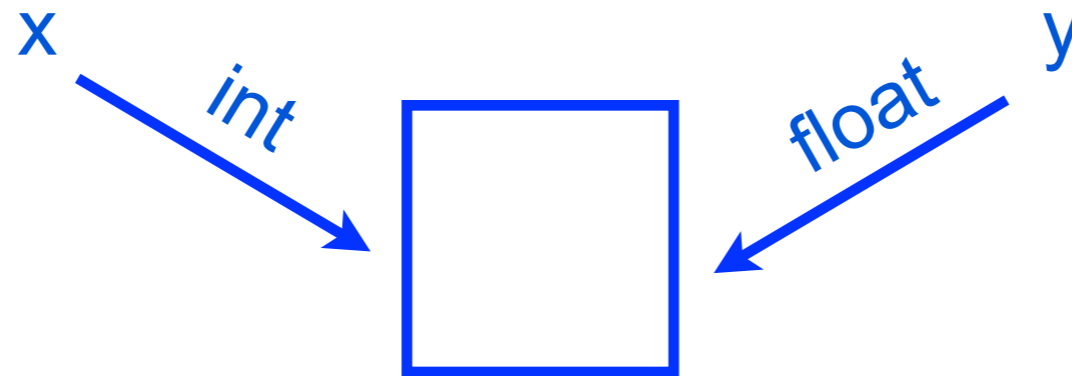
- Counterexample

```
let x = ref 3 in (* x : int ref *)  
  let y = x in   (* y : float ref *)  
    y := 3.14    (* oops! !x is now a float *)
```

# Aliasing

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- We have multiple names for the same memory location
  - But they have different types
  - This we can **write** into the same memory at different types



# Solution #1: Java's Approach

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- Java uses this subtyping rule
  - If **S** is a subclass of **T**, then **S[]** is a subclass of **T[]**
- Counterexample:
  - `Foo[] a = new Foo[5];`
  - `Object[] b = a;`
  - `b[0] = new Object();`      `// forbidden at runtime`
  - `a[0].foo();`      `// ...so this can't happen`

# Solution #2: Purely Static

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- Reason from rules for functions
  - A reference is like an object with two methods:
    - $\text{get} : \text{unit} \rightarrow t$
    - $\text{set} : t \rightarrow \text{unit}$
  - Notice that  $t$  occurs both co- and contravariantly
  - Thus it is *non-variant*
- The right rule:

$$\frac{t1 \leq t2 \quad t2 \leq t1}{t1 \text{ ref} \leq t2 \text{ ref}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{t1 = t2}{t1 \text{ ref} \leq t2 \text{ ref}}$$

# Type Inference

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- Let's consider the simply typed lambda calculus with integers
  - $e ::= n \mid x \mid \lambda x:t.e \mid e e$
- *Type inference*: Given a bare term (with no type annotations), can we reconstruct a valid typing for it, or show that it has no valid typing?

# Type Language

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- Problem: Consider the rule for functions

$$\frac{x:t, A \vdash e : t'}{A \vdash \lambda x:t. e : t \rightarrow t'}$$

- Without type annotations, where do we get  $t$ ?
  - We'll use *type variables* to stand for as-yet-unknown types
    - $t ::= \alpha \mid \text{int} \mid t \rightarrow t$
  - We'll generate *equality constraints*  $t = t$  among the types and type variables
    - And then we'll solve the constraints to compute a typing

# Type Inference Rules

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$$\frac{}{A \vdash n : \text{int}}$$
$$\frac{x \in \text{dom}(A)}{A \vdash x : A(x)}$$
$$\frac{x:\alpha, A \vdash e : t' \quad \alpha \text{ fresh}}{A \vdash \lambda x.e : \alpha \rightarrow t'}$$
$$\frac{A \vdash e1 : t1 \quad A \vdash e2 : t2 \quad \boxed{t1 = t2 \rightarrow \beta} \quad \beta \text{ fresh}}{A \vdash e1 \ e2 : \beta}$$

“Generated” constraint

# Example

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$$\frac{\frac{x:\alpha, A \vdash x:\alpha}{A \vdash (\lambda x.x) : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha} \quad A \vdash 3 : \text{int} \quad \alpha \rightarrow \alpha = \text{int} \rightarrow \beta}{A \vdash (\lambda x.x) 3 : \beta}$$

- We collect all constraints appearing in the derivation into some set  $C$  to be solved
- Here,  $C$  contains just  $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha = \text{int} \rightarrow \beta$ 
  - Solution:  $\alpha = \text{int} = \beta$
- Thus this program is typable, and we can derive a typing by replacing  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  by  $\text{int}$  in the proof tree

# Solving Equality Constraints

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- We can solve the equality constraints using the following rewrite rules, which reduce a larger set of constraints to a smaller set
  - $C \cup \{\text{int}=\text{int}\} \Rightarrow C$
  - $C \cup \{\alpha=t\} \Rightarrow C[t\backslash\alpha]$
  - $C \cup \{t=\alpha\} \Rightarrow C[t\backslash\alpha]$
  - $C \cup \{t_1 \rightarrow t_2 = t_1' \rightarrow t_2'\} \Rightarrow C \cup \{t_1 = t_1'\} \cup \{t_2 = t_2'\}$
  - $C \cup \{\text{int} = t_1 \rightarrow t_2\} \Rightarrow \text{unsatisfiable}$
  - $C \cup \{t_1 \rightarrow t_2 = \text{int}\} \Rightarrow \text{unsatisfiable}$

# Termination

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- We can prove that the constraint solving algorithm terminates.
- For each rewriting rule, either
  - We reduce the size of the constraint set
  - We reduce the number of “arrow” constructors in the constraint set
- As a result, the constraint always gets “smaller” and eventually becomes empty
  - A similar argument is made for strong normalization in the simply-typed lambda calculus

# Occurs Check

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- We don't have recursive types, so we shouldn't infer them
- So in the operation  $C[t \setminus \alpha]$ , require that  $\alpha \notin FV(t)$ 
  - (Except if  $t = a$ , in which case there's no recursion in the types, so unification should succeed)
- In practice, it may be better to allow  $\alpha \in FV(t)$  and do the occurs check at the end
  - But that can be awkward to implement

# Unifying a Variable and a Type

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- Computing  $C[t \setminus \alpha]$  by substitution is inefficient
- Instead, use a union-find data structure to represent equal types
  - The terms are in a union-find forest
  - When a variable and a term are equated, we union them so they have the same ECR (equivalence class representative)
    - Want the ECR to be the concrete type with which variables have been unified, if one exists. Can read off solution by reading the ECR of each set.

# Example

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

$\gamma = \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

$\alpha = \gamma$

# Unification

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- The process of finding a solution to a set of equality constraints is called *unification*
  - Original algorithm due to Robinson
    - But his algorithm was inefficient
  - Often written out in different form
    - See Algorithm W
  - Constraints usually solved on-line
    - As type inference rules applied

# Discussion

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- The algorithm we've given finds the *most general type* of a term
  - Any other valid type is “more specific,” e.g.,
    - $\lambda x.x : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$
  - Formally, any other valid type can be gotten from the most general type by applying a substitution to the type variables
- This is still a *monomorphic* type system
  - $\alpha$  stands for “some particular type, but it doesn't matter exactly which type it is”

# Benefits of Type Inference

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- Handles higher-order functions
- Handles data structures smoothly
- Works in infinite domains
  - Set of types is unlimited
- No forward/backward distinction
  - (Compare to data flow analysis, next)

# Drawbacks to Type Inference

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- Flow-insensitive
  - Types are the same at all program points
  - May produce coarse results
  - Type inference failure can be hard to understand
- Polymorphism may not scale
  - Exponential in worst case
  - Seems fine in practice (witness ML)