

# Types and Type Inference

Mooly Sagiv

Slides by Kathleen Fisher and John Mitchell

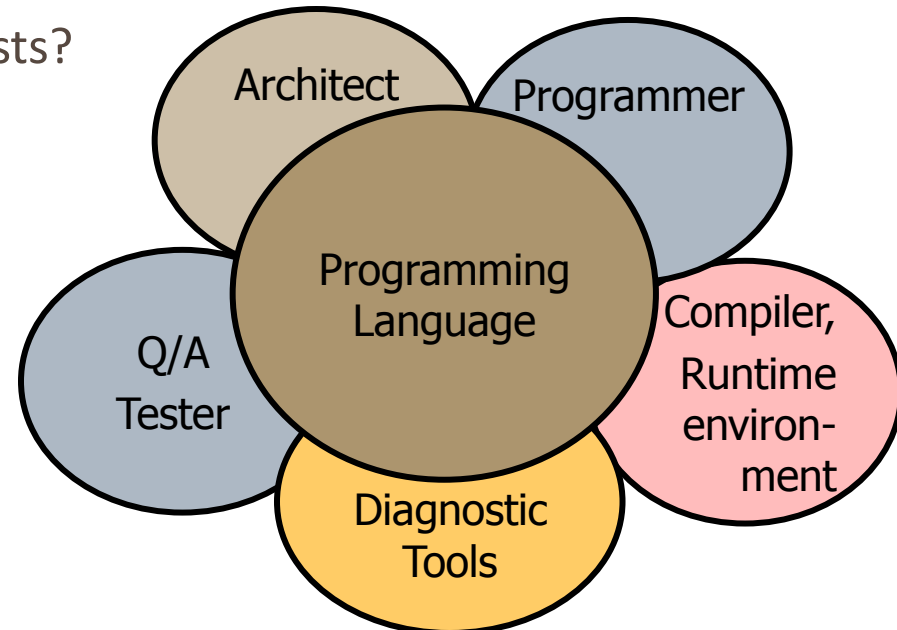
Reading: "Concepts in Programming Languages",  
Revised Chapter 6 - handout on Web!!

# Outline

- **General discussion of types**
  - What is a type?
  - Compile-time versus run-time checking
  - Conservative program analysis
- **Type inference**
  - Discuss algorithm and examples
  - Illustrative example of static analysis algorithm
- **Polymorphism**
  - Uniform versus non-uniform implementations

# Language Goals and Trade-offs

- Thoughts to keep in mind
  - What features are convenient for programmer?
  - What other features do they prevent?
  - What are design tradeoffs?
    - Easy to write but harder to read?
    - Easy to write but poorer error messages?
  - What are the implementation costs?



# What is a type?

- A type is a collection of computable values that share some structural property.

## Examples

Integer

String

$\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$

$(\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$

$[a] \rightarrow a$

$[a] \times a \rightarrow [a]$

## Non-examples

$\{3, \text{True}, \lambda x. x\}$

Even integers

$\{f: \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \mid x > 3 \Rightarrow f(x) > x * (x+1)\}$

Distinction between sets of values that are types and sets that are not types is *language dependent*

# Advantages of Types

- Program organization and documentation
  - Separate types for separate concepts
    - Represent concepts from problem domain
  - Document intended use of declared identifiers
    - Types can be checked, unlike program comments
- Identify and prevent errors
  - Compile-time or run-time checking can prevent meaningless computations such as `3 + true` – “Bill”
- Support optimization
  - Example: short integers require fewer bits
  - Access components of structures by known offset

# What is a type error?

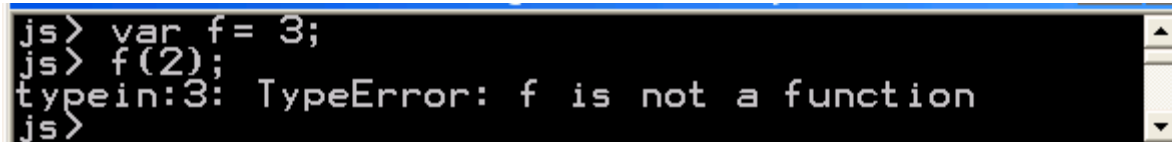
- Whatever the compiler/interpreter says it is?
- Something to do with bad bit sequences?
  - Floating point representation has specific form
  - An integer may not be a valid float
- Something about programmer intent and use?
  - A type error occurs when a value is used in a way that is inconsistent with its definition
    - Example: declare as character, use as integer

# Type errors are language dependent

- Array out of bounds access
  - C/C++: runtime errors
  - Haskell/Java: dynamic type errors
- Null pointer dereference
  - C/C++: run-time errors
  - Haskell/ML: pointers are hidden inside datatypes
    - Null pointer dereferences would be incorrect use of these datatypes, therefore static type errors

# Compile-time vs Run-time Checking

- JavaScript and Lisp use run-time type checking
  - $f(x)$  Make sure  $f$  is a function before calling  $f$



```
js> var f = 3;
js> f(2);
typein:3: TypeError: f is not a function
js>
```

- Haskell and Java use compile-time type checking
  - $f(x)$  Must have  $f :: A \rightarrow B$  and  $x :: A$
- Basic tradeoff
  - Both kinds of checking prevent type errors
  - Run-time checking slows down execution
  - Compile-time checking restricts program flexibility
    - JavaScript array: elements can have different types
    - Haskell list: all elements must have same type
  - Which gives better programmer diagnostics?



# Expressiveness

- In JavaScript, we can write a function like

```
function f(x) { return x < 10 ? x : x(); }
```

Some uses will produce type error, some will not

- Static typing always conservative

```
if (complicated-boolean-expression)
    then f(5);
else f(15);
```

# Relative Type-Safety of Languages

- **Not safe:** BCPL family, including C and C++
  - Casts, unions, pointer arithmetic
- **Almost safe:** Algol family, Pascal, Ada
  - Dangling pointers
    - Allocate a pointer *p* to an integer, deallocate the memory referenced by *p*, then later use the value pointed to by *p*
    - Hard to make languages with explicit deallocation of memory fully type-safe
- **Safe:** Lisp, Smalltalk, ML, Haskell, Java, JavaScript
  - Dynamically typed: Lisp, Smalltalk, JavaScript
  - Statically typed: ML, Haskell, Java

If code accesses data, it is handled with the type associated with the creation and previous manipulation of that data

# Type Checking vs Type Inference

- Standard type checking:

```
int f(int x) { return x+1; };  
int g(int y) { return f(y+1)*2; };
```

- Examine body of each function
- Use declared types to check agreement

- Type inference:

```
int f(int x) { return x+1; };  
int g(int y) { return f(y+1)*2; };
```

- Examine code without type information
- Infer the most general types that could have been declared

ML and Haskell are *designed* to make type inference feasible

# Why study type inference?

- **Types and type checking**
  - Improved steadily since Algol 60
    - Eliminated sources of unsoundness
    - Become substantially more expressive
  - Important for modularity, reliability and compilation
- **Type inference**
  - Reduces syntactic overhead of expressive types
  - Guaranteed to produce most general type
  - Widely regarded as important language innovation
  - Illustrative example of a flow-insensitive static analysis algorithm

# History

- Original type inference algorithm
  - Invented by Haskell Curry and Robert Feys for the simply typed lambda calculus in 1958
- In 1969, Hindley
  - extended the algorithm to a richer language and proved it always produced the most general type
- In 1978, Milner
  - independently developed equivalent algorithm, called algorithm W, during his work designing ML
- In 1982, Damas proved the algorithm was complete.
  - Currently used in many languages: ML, Ada, Haskell, C# 3.0, F#, Visual Basic .Net 9.0. Have been plans for Fortress, Perl 6, C++0x,...

# uHaskell

- Subset of Haskell to explain type inference.
  - Haskell and ML both have overloading
  - Will not cover type inference with overloading

```
<decl> ::= [<name> <pat> = <exp>]
<pat>   ::= Id | (<pat>, <pat>) | <pat> :
<pat> | []
<exp>  ::= Int | Bool | [] | Id | (<exp>)
        | <exp> <op> <exp>
        | <exp> <exp> | (<exp>, <exp>)
        | if <exp> then <exp> else <exp>
```

# Type Inference: Basic Idea

- Example

```
f x = 2 + x  
> f :: Int -> Int
```

- What is the type of f?

+ has type:  $\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}$

2 has type:  $\text{Int}$

Since we are applying + to x we need  $x :: \text{Int}$

Therefore  $f x = 2 + x$  has type  $\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}$

# Type Inference: Basic Idea

- Another Example

```
f (g, h) = g (h (0))
```

```
> f :: (a -> b, Int -> a) -> b
```

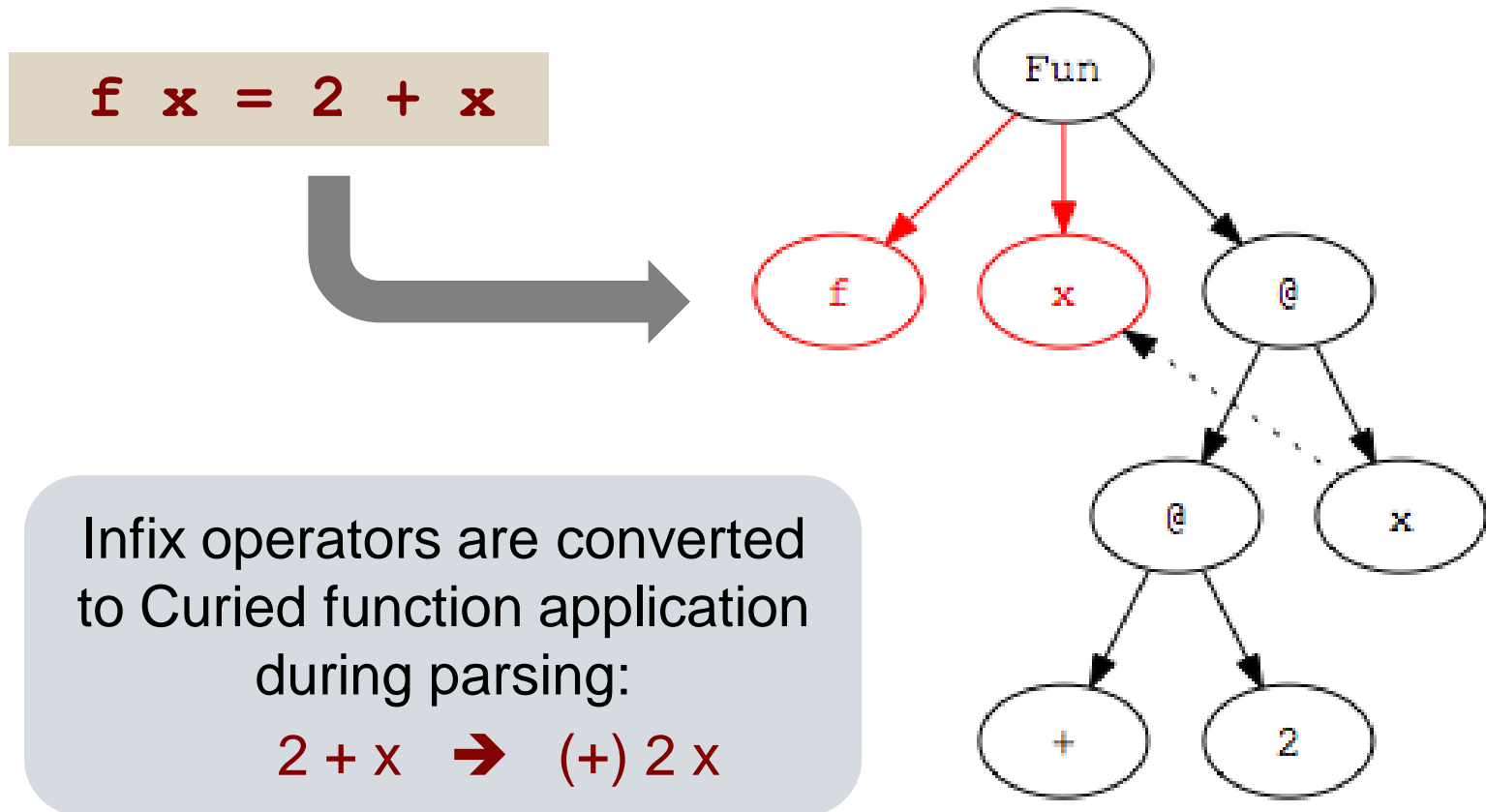


# Imperative Example

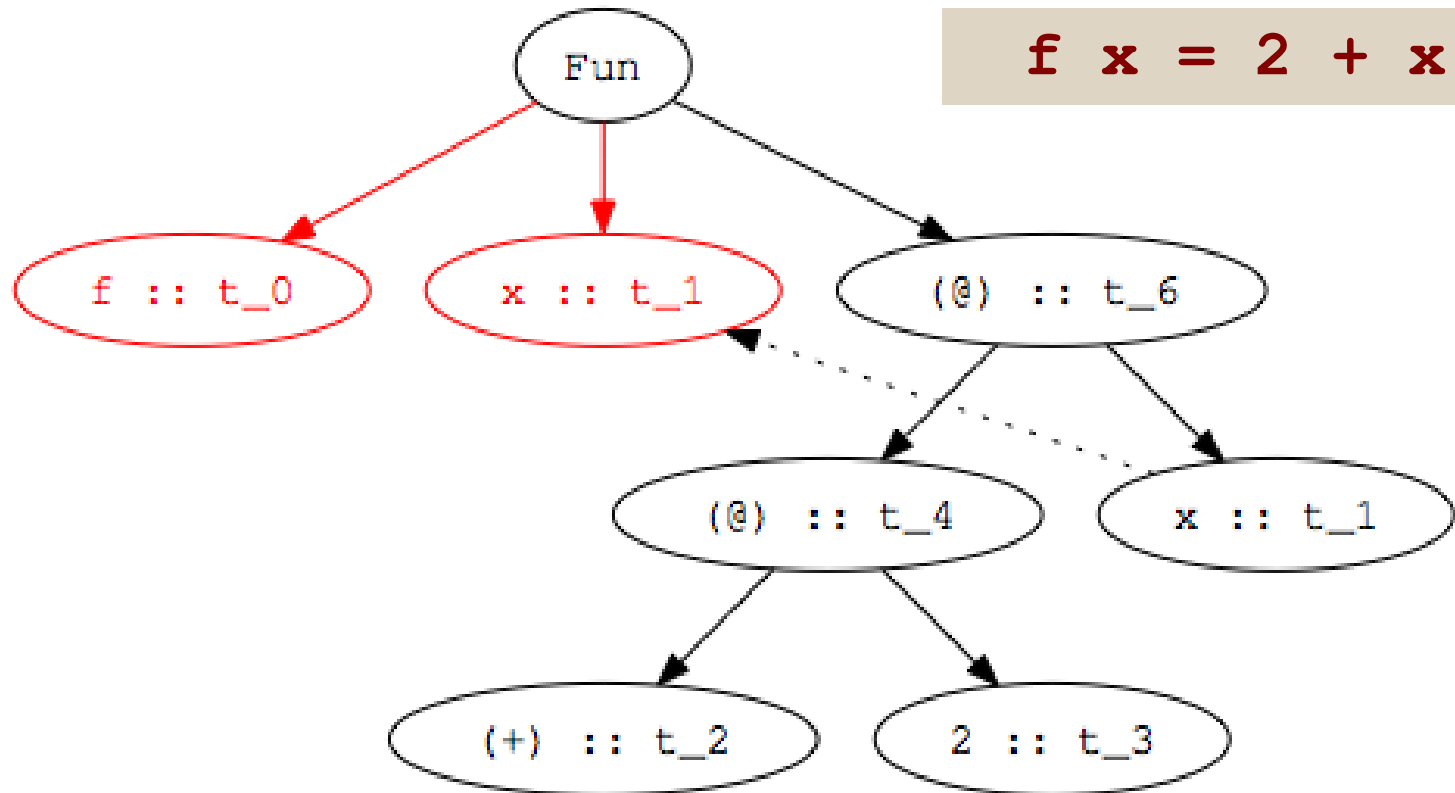
```
x := b[z]  
a [b[y]] := x
```

# Step 1: Parse Program

- Parse program text to construct parse tree



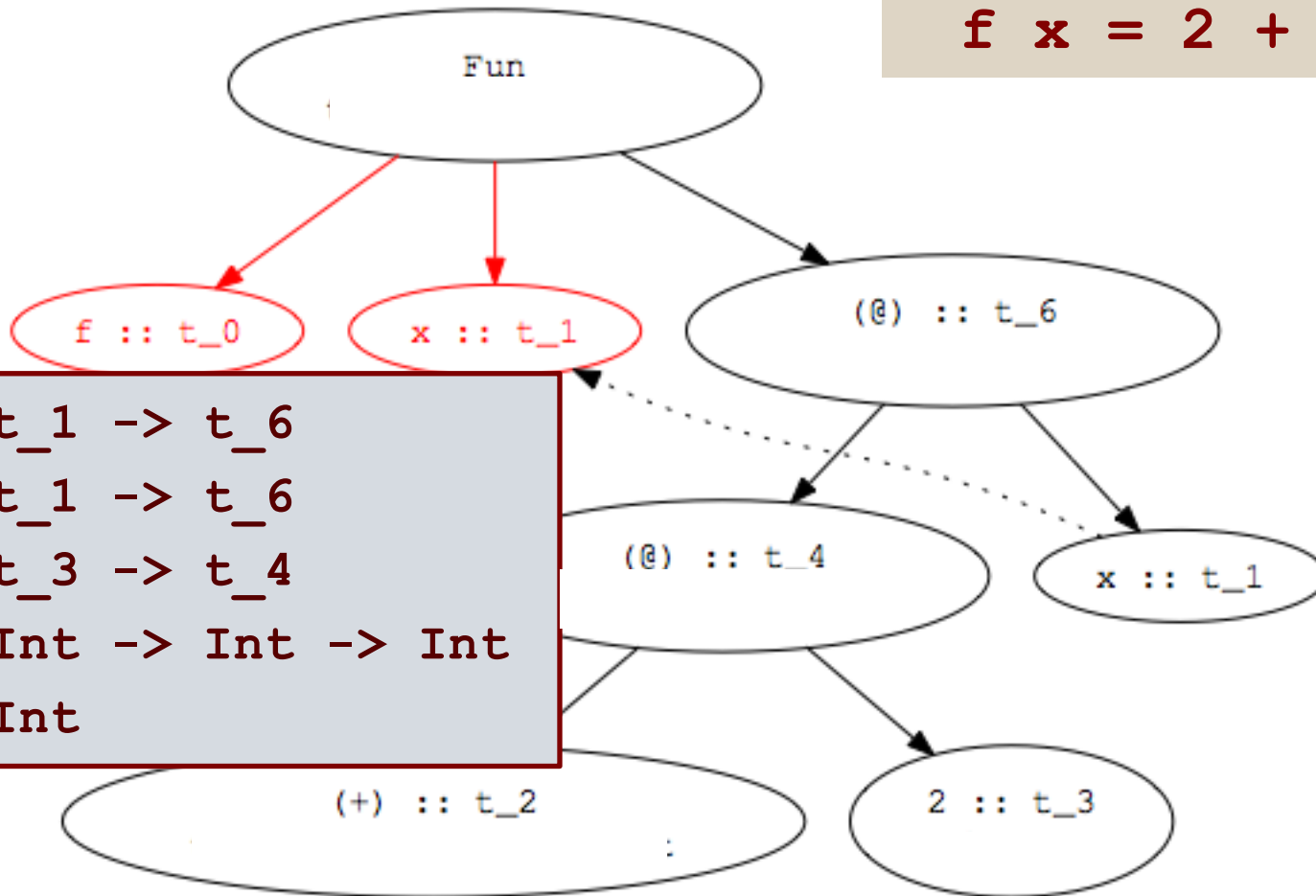
# Step 2: Assign type variables to nodes



Variables are given same type as binding occurrence

# Step 3: Add Constraints

$f\ x = 2 + x$



$t_0 = t_1 \rightarrow t_6$   
 $t_4 = t_1 \rightarrow t_6$   
 $t_2 = t_3 \rightarrow t_4$   
 $t_2 = \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}$   
 $t_3 = \text{Int}$

# Step 4: Solve Constraints

```
t_0 = t_1 -> t_6
t_4 = t_1 -> t_6
t_2 = t_3 -> t_4
t_2 = Int -> Int -> Int
t_3 = Int
```

```
t_3 -> t_4 = Int -> (Int -> Int)
```

```
t_0 = t_1 -> t_6
t_4 = t_1 -> t_6
t_4 = Int -> Int
t_2 = Int -> Int -> Int
t_3 = Int
```

```
t_3 = Int
t_4 = Int -> Int
```

```
t_1 -> t_6 = Int -> Int
```

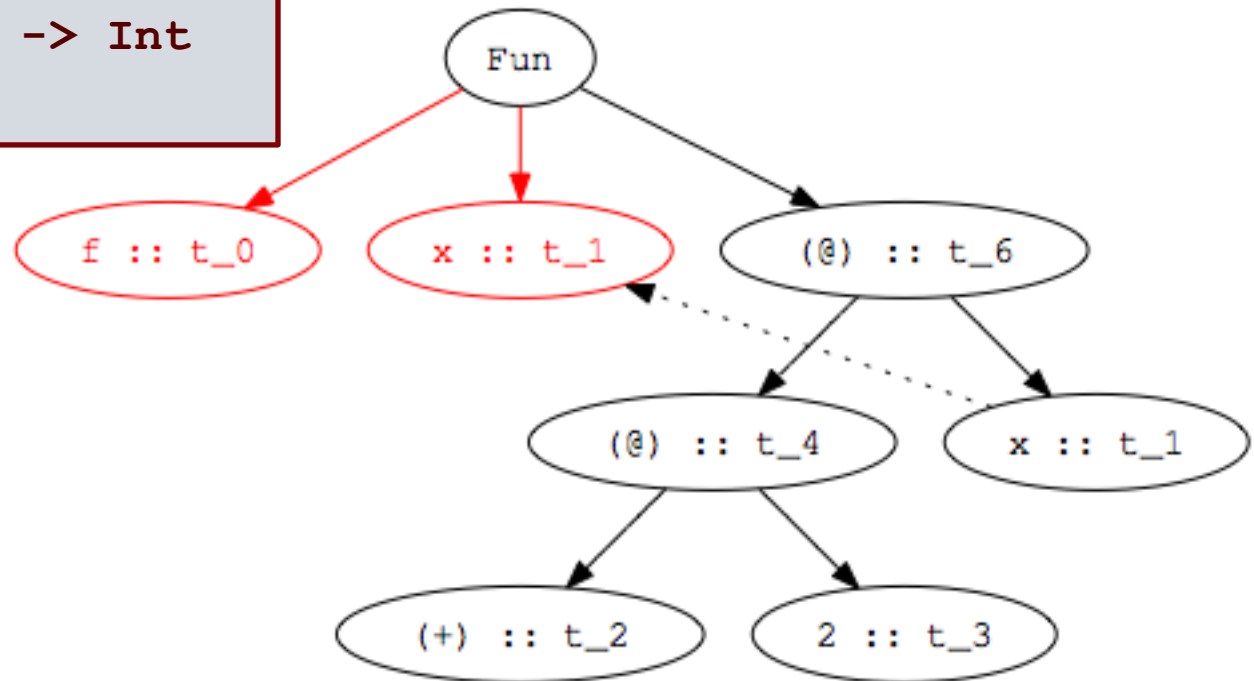
```
t_0 = Int -> Int
t_1 = Int
t_6 = Int
t_4 = Int -> Int
t_2 = Int -> Int -> Int
t_3 = Int
```

```
t_1 = Int
t_6 = Int
```

# Step 5: Determine type of declaration

```
t_0 = Int -> Int  
t_1 = Int  
t_6 = Int -> Int  
t_4 = Int -> Int  
t_2 = Int -> Int -> Int  
t_3 = Int
```

```
f x = 2 + x  
> f :: Int -> Int
```



# Unification

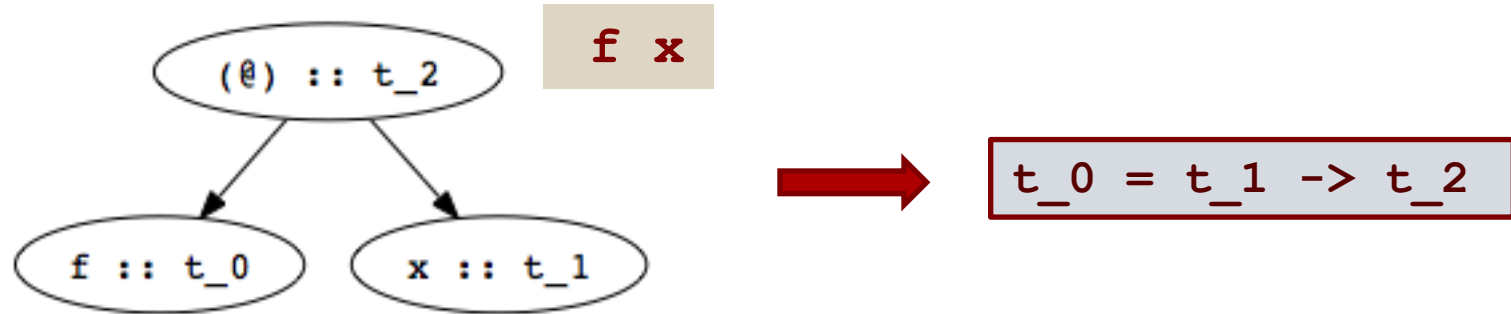
- Given two type terms  $t_1, t_2$
- Compute the most general unifier of  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ 
  - A mapping  $m$  from type variables to typed terms such that
    - $t_1 \{m\} == t_2 \{m\}$
    - Every other unifier is a refinement of  $m$
- Example
$$\text{mgu}(t_3 \rightarrow t_4, \text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int})) =$$
$$[t_3 \mapsto \text{Int}, t_4 \mapsto \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}] =$$

# Type Inference Algorithm

- Parse program to build parse tree
- Assign type variables to nodes in tree
- Generate constraints:
  - From environment: literals (**2**), built-in operators (**+**), known functions (**tail**)
  - From form of parse tree: e.g., application and abstraction nodes
- Solve constraints using *unification*
- Determine types of top-level declarations

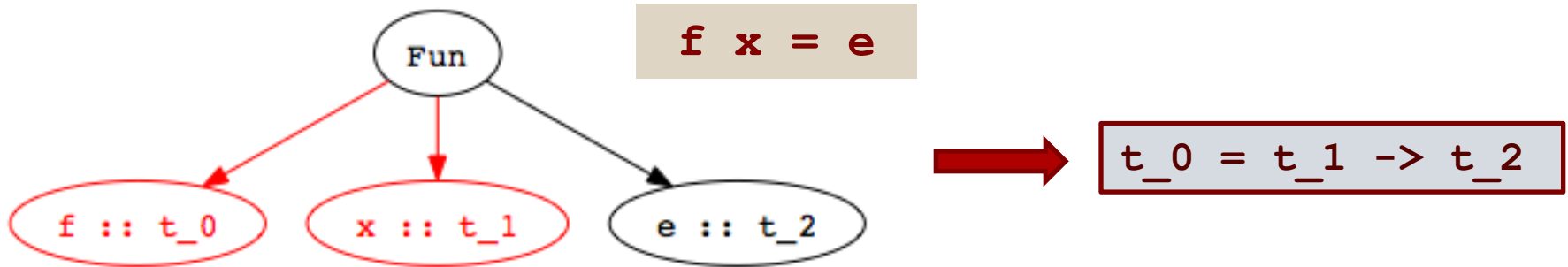


# Constraints from Application Nodes



- Function application (apply  $f$  to  $x$ )
  - Type of  $f$  ( $t_0$  in figure) must be domain  $\rightarrow$  range
  - Domain of  $f$  must be type of argument  $x$  ( $t_1$  in fig)
  - Range of  $f$  must be result of application ( $t_2$  in fig)
  - Constraint:  $t_0 = t_1 \rightarrow t_2$

# Constraints from Abstractions



- Function declaration:
  - Type of  $f$  ( $t_0$  in figure) must domain  $\rightarrow$  range
  - Domain is type of abstracted variable  $x$  ( $t_1$  in fig)
  - Range is type of function body  $e$  ( $t_2$  in fig)
  - Constraint:  $t_0 = t_1 \rightarrow t_2$

# Inferring Polymorphic Types

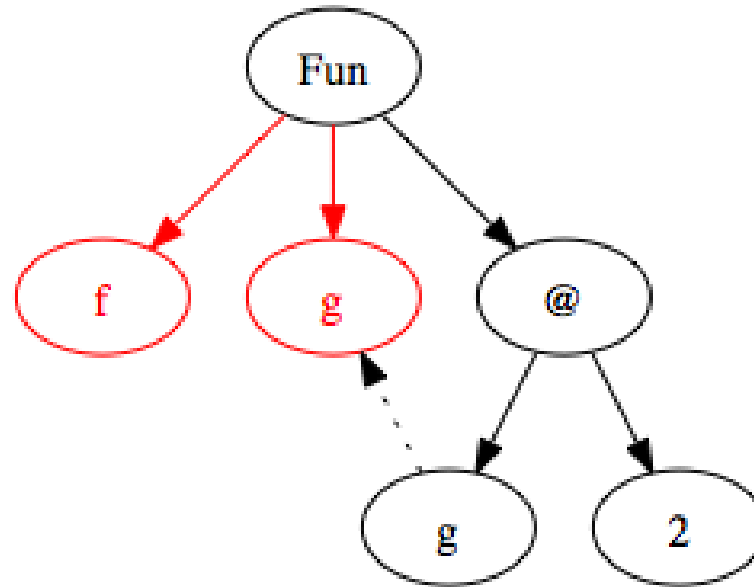
- Example:

```
f g = g 2
```

```
> f :: (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

- Step 1:

Build Parse Tree



# Inferring Polymorphic Types

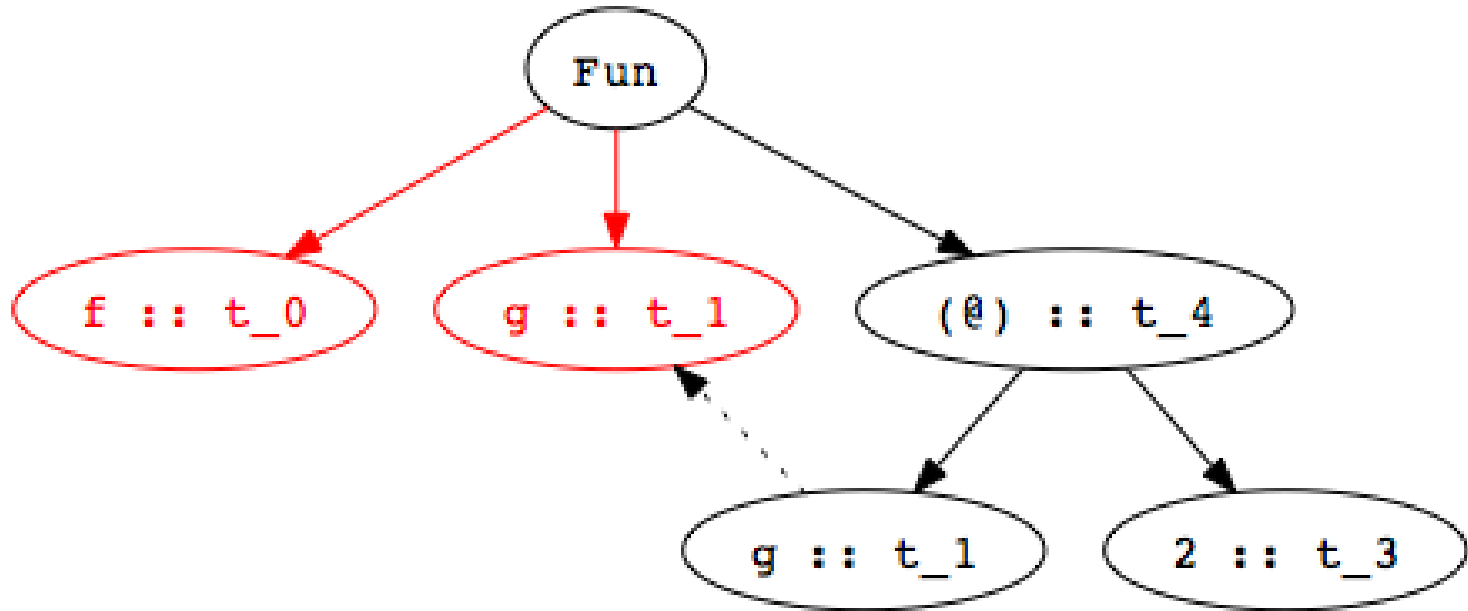
- Example:

```
f g = g 2
```

```
> f :: (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

- Step 2:

Assign type variables



# Inferring Polymorphic Types

- Example:

```
f g = g 2
```

```
> f :: (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

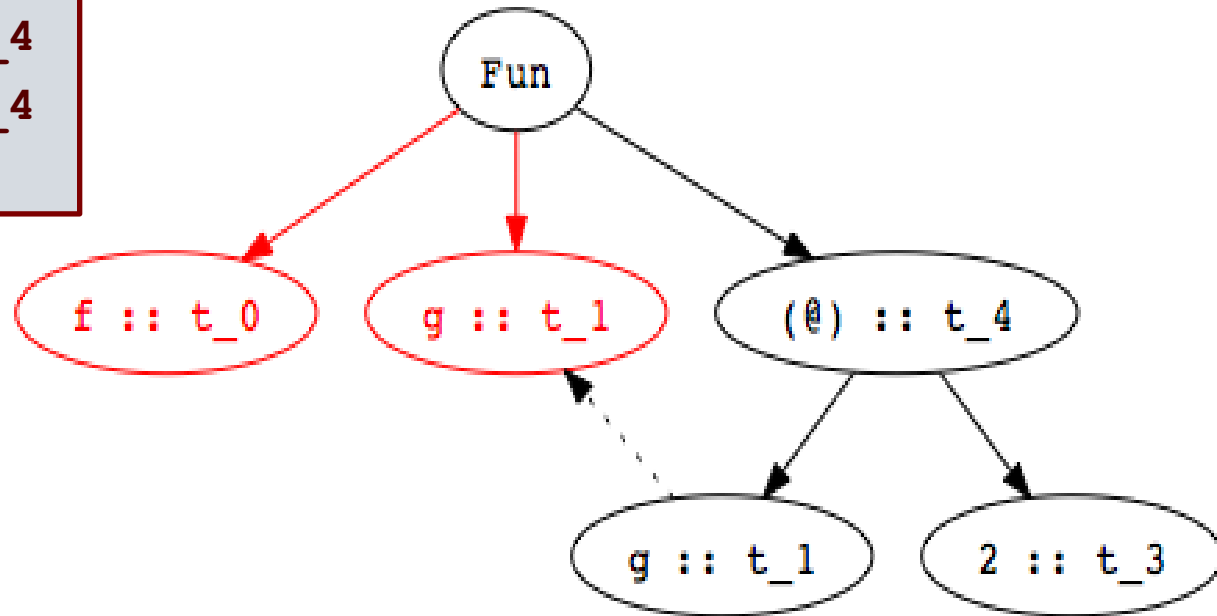
- Step 3:

Generate constraints

```
t_0 = t_1 -> t_4
```

```
t_1 = t_3 -> t_4
```

```
t_3 = Int
```



# Inferring Polymorphic Types

- Example:

```
f g = g 2  
> f :: (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

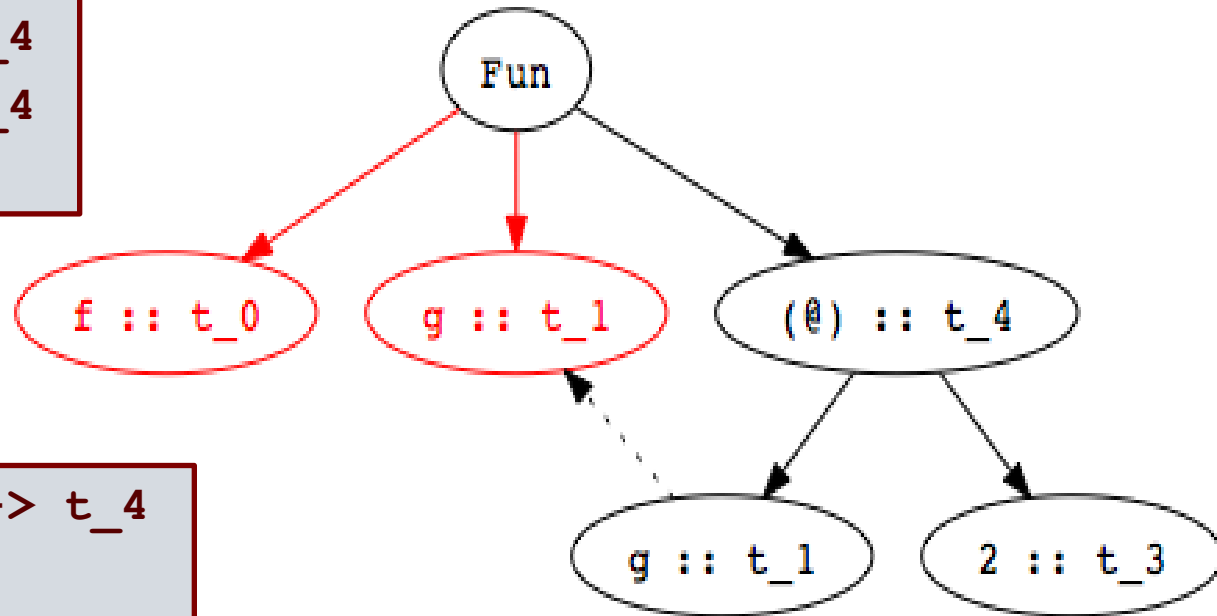
- Step 4:

Solve constraints

```
t_0 = t_1 -> t_4  
t_1 = t_3 -> t_4  
t_3 = Int
```



```
t_0 = (Int -> t_4) -> t_4  
t_1 = Int -> t_4  
t_3 = Int
```



# Inferring Polymorphic Types

- Example:

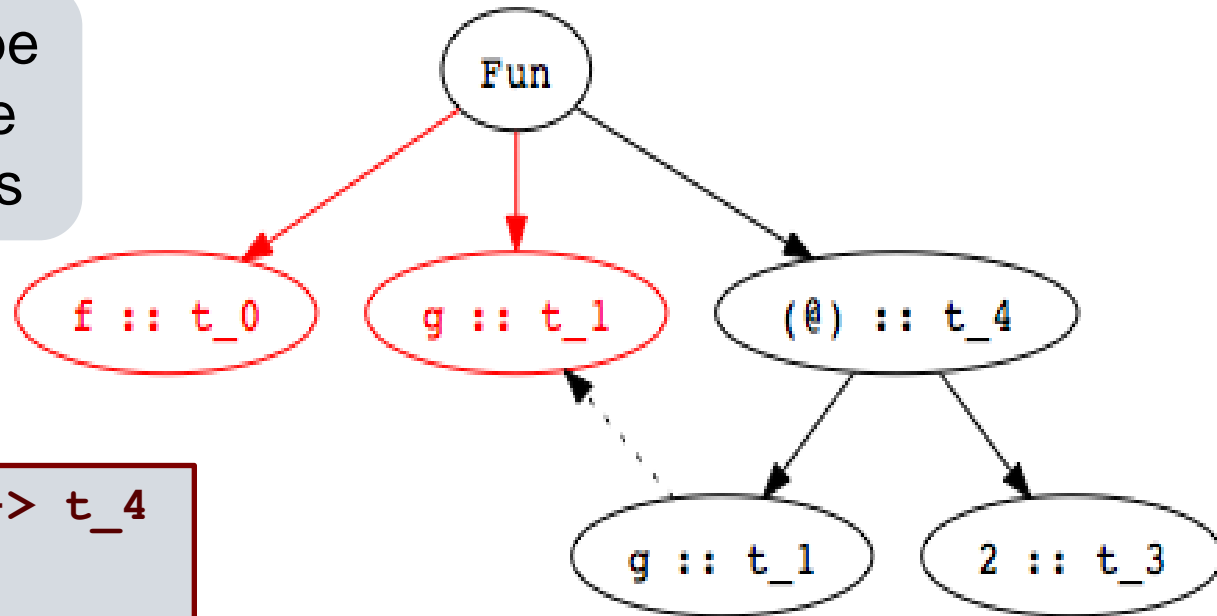
```
f g = g 2
```

```
> f :: (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

- Step 5:

Determine type of top-level declaration

Unconstrained type variables become polymorphic types



```
t_0 = (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

```
t_1 = Int -> t_4
```

```
t_3 = Int
```

# Using Polymorphic Functions

- Function:

```
f g = g 2  
> f :: (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

- Possible applications:

```
add x = 2 + x  
> add :: Int -> Int
```

```
f add  
> 4 :: Int
```

```
isEven x = mod (x, 2) == 0  
> isEven :: Int -> Bool
```

```
f isEven  
> True :: Bool
```



# Recognizing Type Errors

- Function:

```
f g = g 2  
> f :: (Int -> t_4) -> t_4
```

- Incorrect use

```
not x = if x then True else False  
> not :: Bool -> Bool  
f not  
> Error: operator and operand don't agree  
operator domain: Int -> a  
operand:          Bool -> Bool
```

- Type error:  
cannot unify  $\text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$  and  $\text{Int} \rightarrow t$

# Another Example

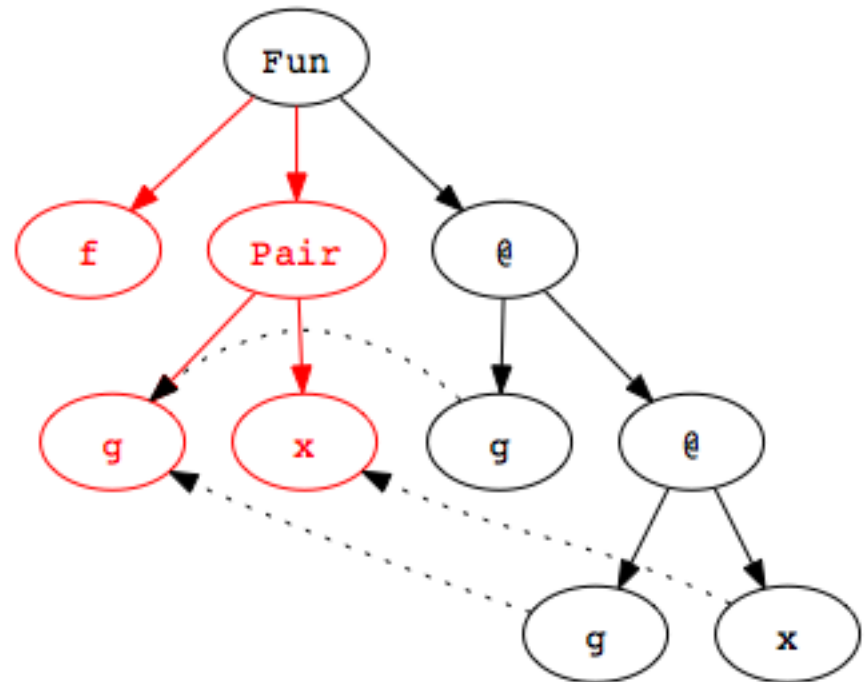
- Example:

$f(g, x) = g(g\ x)$

$> f :: (t\_8 \rightarrow t\_8, t\_8) \rightarrow t\_8$

- Step 1:

Build Parse Tree



# Another Example

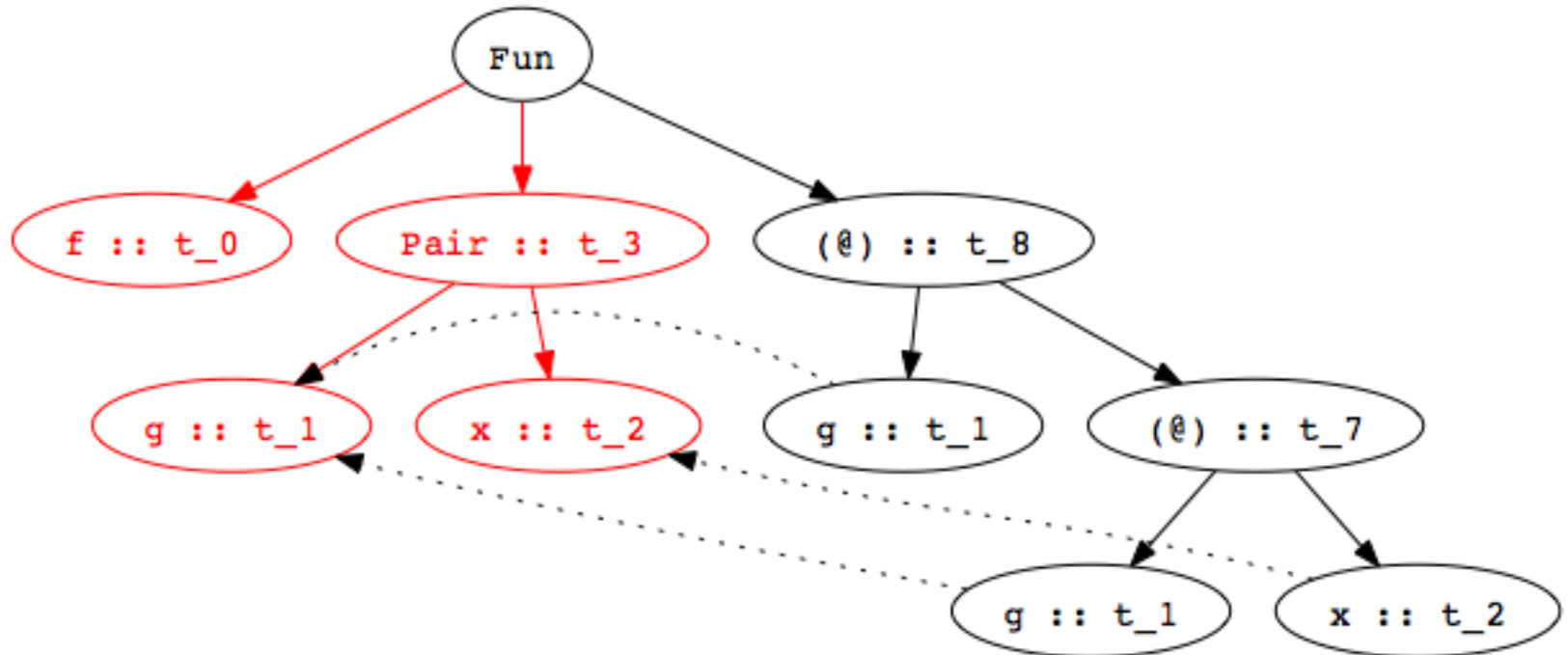
- Example:

```
f (g, x) = g (g x)
```

```
> f :: (t_8 -> t_8, t_8) -> t_8
```

- Step 2:

Assign type variables



# Another Example

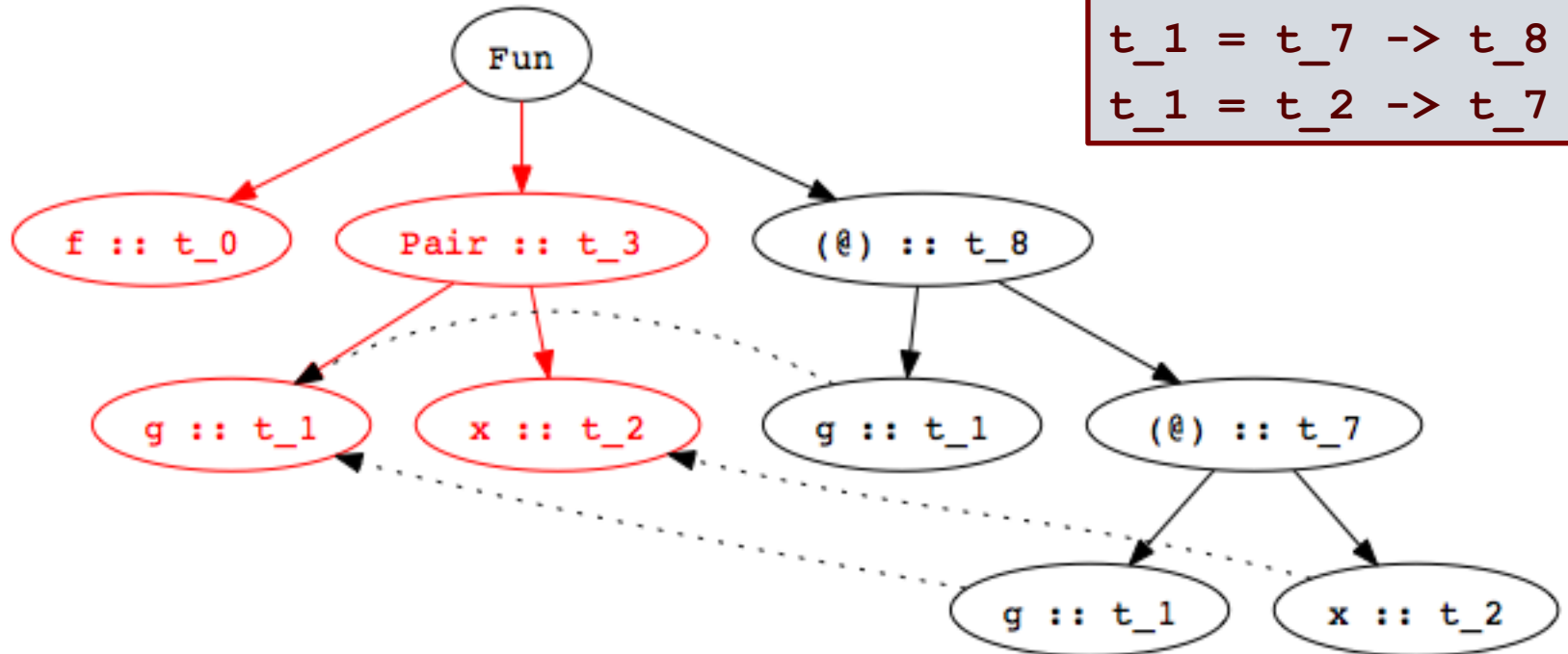
- Example:

```
f (g, x) = g (g x)
```

```
> f :: (t_8 -> t_8, t_8) -> t_8
```

- Step 3:

Generate constraints



# Another Example

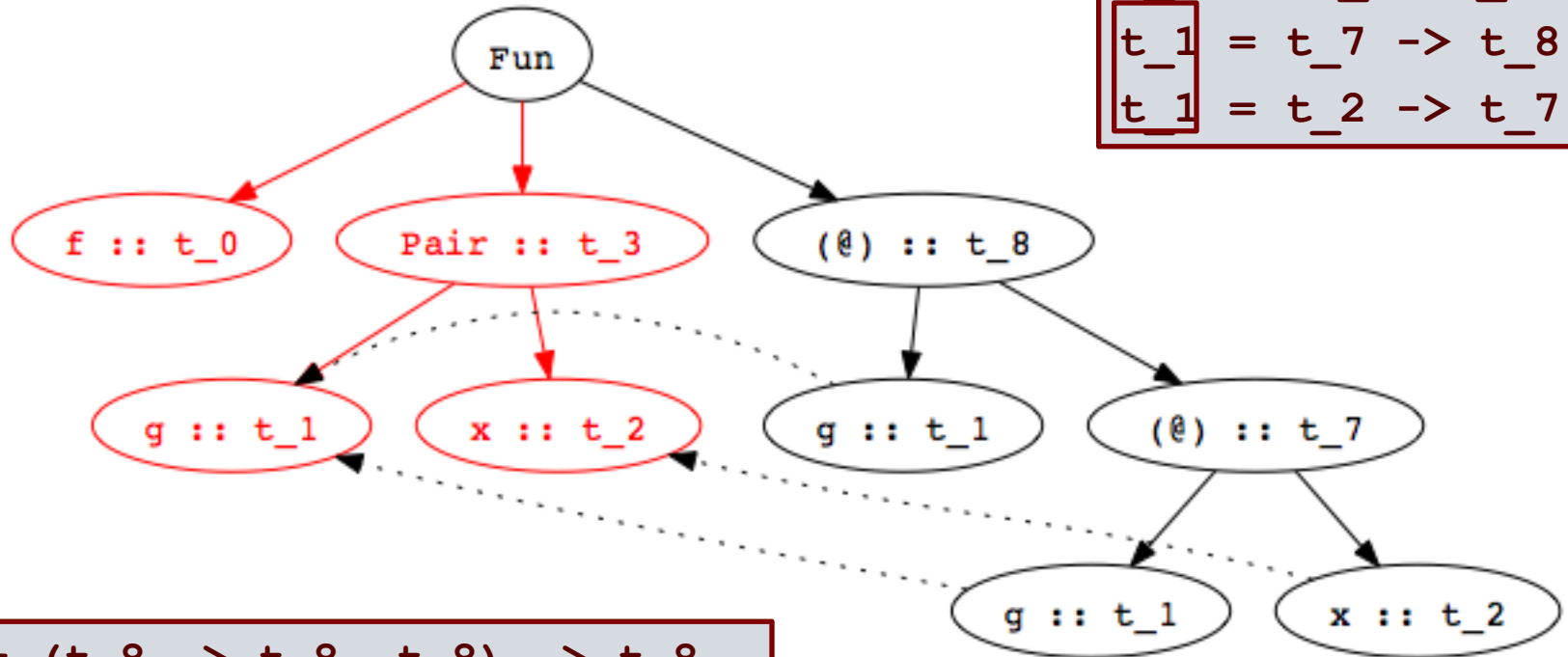
- Example:

```
f (g, x) = g (g x)
```

```
> f :: (t_8 -> t_8, t_8) -> t_8
```

- Step 4:

Solve constraints



# Another Example

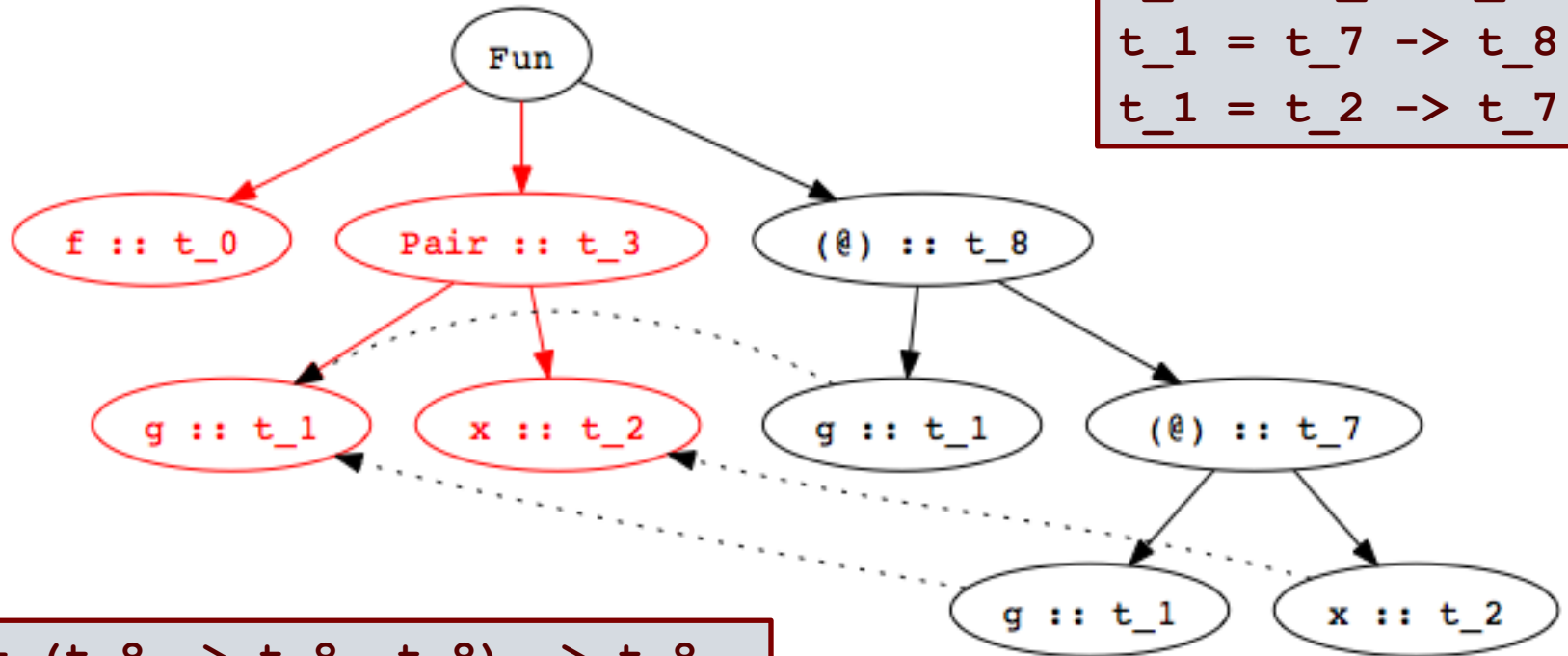
- Example:

```
f (g, x) = g (g x)
```

```
> f :: (t_8 -> t_8, t_8) -> t_8
```

- Step 5:

Determine type of f



```
t_0 = t_3 -> t_8  
t_3 = (t_1, t_2)  
t_1 = t_7 -> t_8  
t_1 = t_2 -> t_7
```

```
t_0 = (t_8 -> t_8, t_8) -> t_8
```

# Polymorphic Datatypes

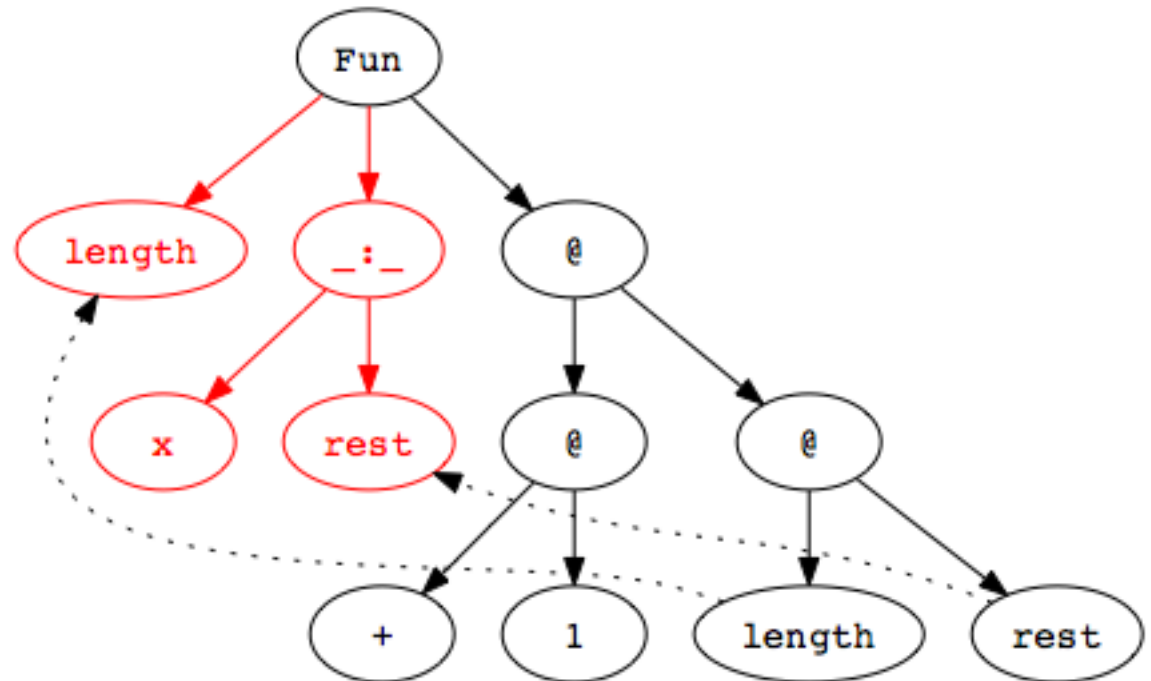
- Functions may have multiple clauses

```
length [] = 0
length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest)
```

- Type inference
  - Infer separate type for each clause
  - Combine by adding constraint that all clauses must have the same type
  - Recursive calls: function has same type as its definition

# Type Inference with Datatypes

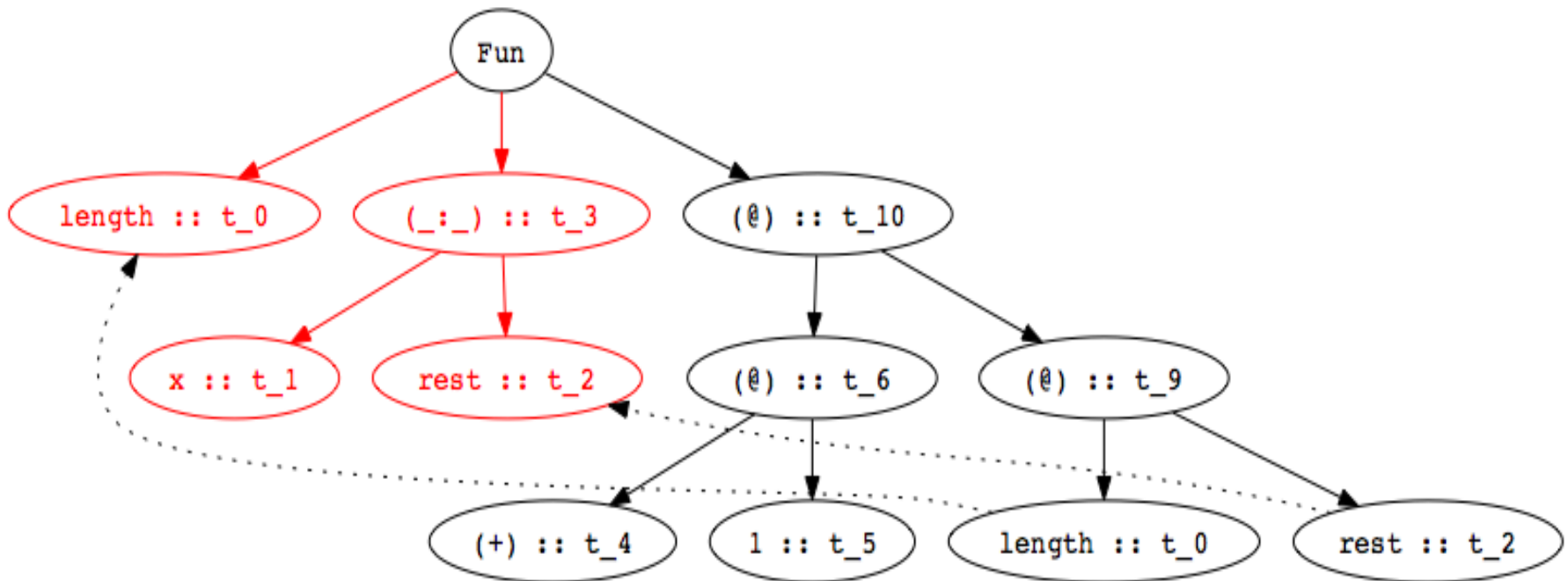
- Example: `length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest)`
- Step 1: Build Parse Tree





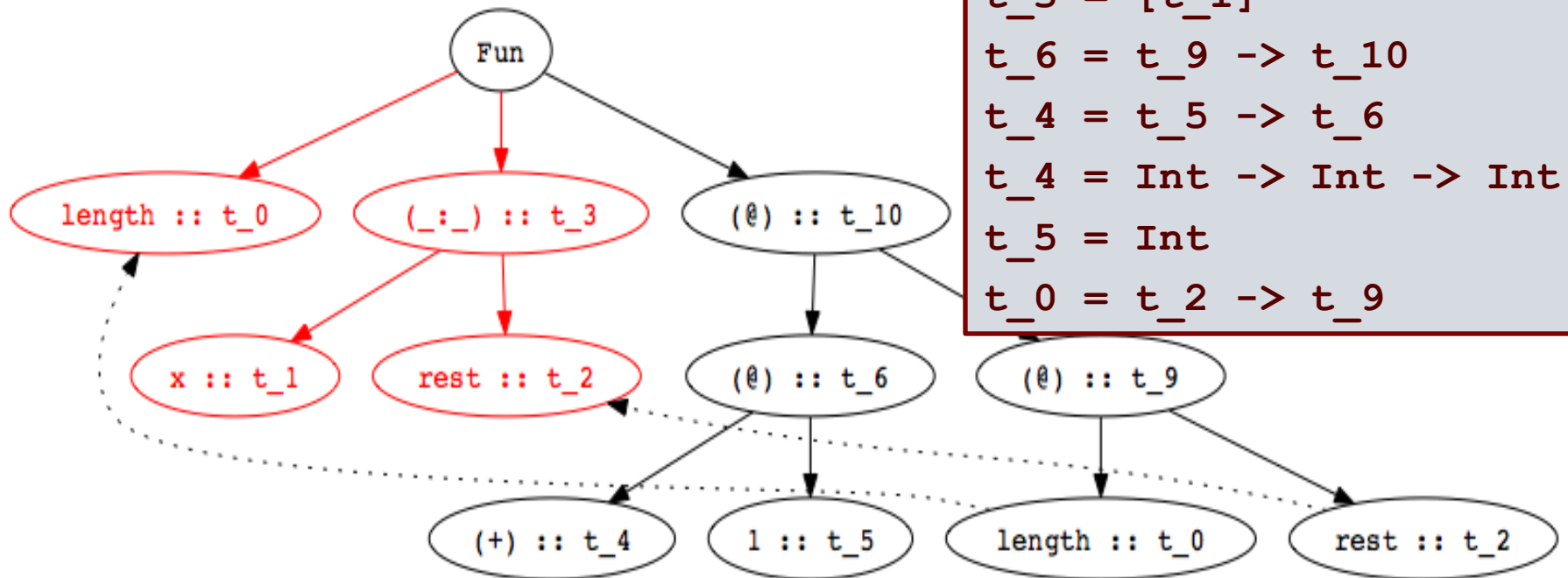
# Type Inference with Datatypes

- Example: `length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest)`
- Step 2: Assign type variables



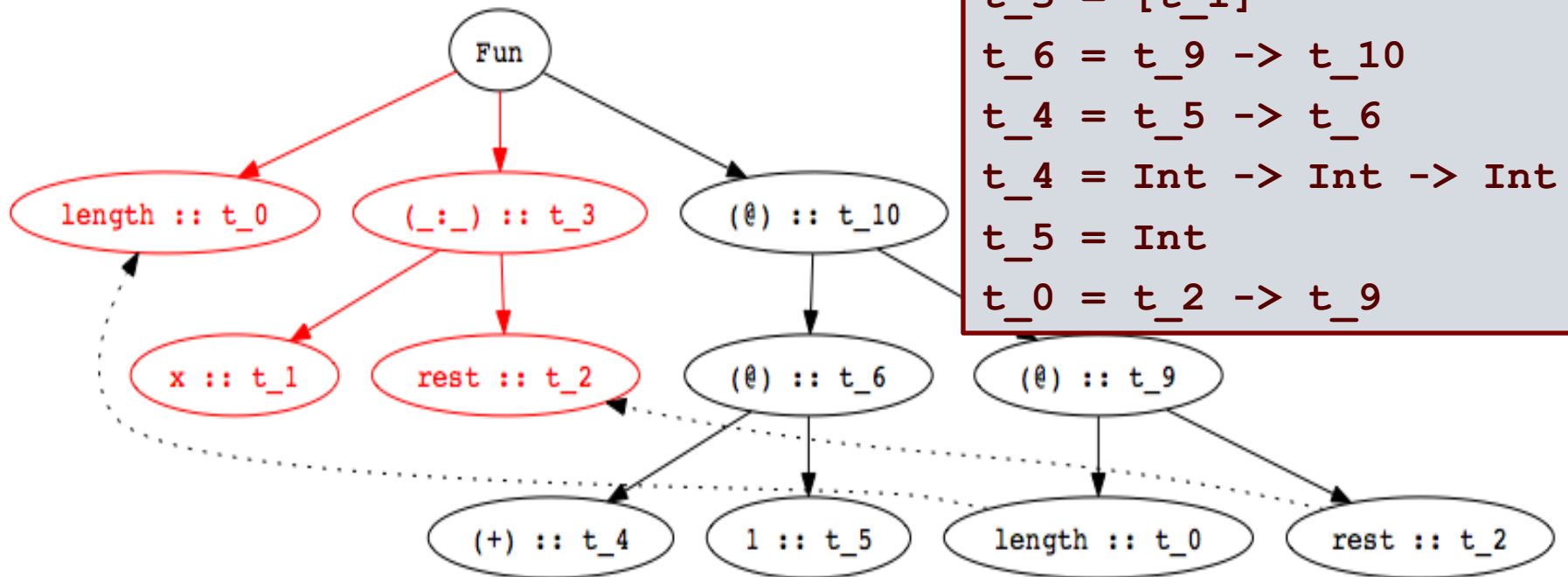
# Type Inference with Datatypes

- Example: `length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest)`
- Step 3: Generate constraints



# Type Inference with Datatypes

- Example: `length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest)`
- Step 3: Solve Constraints



```
t_0 = t_3 -> t_10
t_3 = t_2
t_3 = [t_1]
t_6 = t_9 -> t_10
t_4 = t_5 -> t_6
t_4 = Int -> Int -> Int
t_5 = Int
t_0 = t_2 -> t_9
```

```
t_0 = [t_1] -> Int
```

# Multiple Clauses

- Function with multiple clauses

```
append ([], r) = r
append (x:xs, r) = x : append (xs, r)
```

- Infer type of each clause

- First clause:

```
> append :: ([t_1], t_2) -> t_2
```

- Second clause:

```
> append :: ([t_3], t_4) -> [t_3]
```

- Combine by equating types of two clauses

```
> append :: ([t_1], [t_1]) -> [t_1]
```

# Most General Type

- Type inference produces the *most general type*

```
map (f, [] ) = []  
map (f, x:xs) = f x : map (f, xs)  
> map :: (t_1 -> t_2, [t_1]) -> [t_2]
```

- Functions may have many less general types

```
> map :: (t_1 -> Int, [t_1]) -> [Int]  
> map :: (Bool -> t_2, [Bool]) -> [t_2]  
> map :: (Char -> Int, [Char]) -> [Int]
```

- Less general types are all instances of most general type, also called the *principal type*

# Type Inference Algorithm

- When Hindley/Milner type inference algorithm was developed, its complexity was unknown
- In 1989, Kanellakis, Mairson, and Mitchell proved that the problem was exponential-time complete
- Usually linear in practice though...
  - Running time is exponential in the depth of polymorphic declarations

# Information from Type Inference

- Consider this function...

```
reverse [] = []  
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs
```

... and its most general type:

```
> reverse :: [t_1] -> [t_2]
```

- What does this type mean?

Reversing a list should not change its type, so there must be an error in the definition of reverse!

# Type Inference: Key Points

- Type inference computes the types of expressions
  - Does not require type declarations for variables
  - Finds the most general type by solving constraints
  - Leads to polymorphism
- Sometimes better error detection than type checking
  - Type may indicate a programming error even if no type error
- Some costs
  - More difficult to identify program line that causes error
  - Natural implementation requires uniform representation sizes
  - Complications regarding assignment took years to work out
- Idea can be applied to other program properties
  - Discover properties of program using same kind of analysis



# Haskell Type Inference

- Haskell uses type classes
  - supports user-defined overloading, so the inference algorithm is more complicated
- ML restricts the language
  - to ensure that no annotations are required
- Haskell provides additional features
  - like polymorphic recursion for which types cannot be inferred and so the user must provide annotations

# Parametric Polymorphism: Haskell vs C++

- Haskell polymorphic function
  - Declarations (generally) require no type information
  - Type inference uses type variables to type expressions
  - Type inference substitutes for type variables as needed to instantiate polymorphic code
- C++ function template
  - Programmer must declare the argument and result types of functions
  - Programmers must use explicit type parameters to express polymorphism
  - Function application: type checker does instantiation

# Example: Swap Two Values

- Haskell

```
swap :: (IORef a, IORef a) -> IO ()
swap (x,y) = do {
    val_x <- readIORef x; val_y <- readIORef y;
    writeIORef y val_x;    writeIORef x val_y;
    return () }
```

- C++

```
template <typename T>
void swap(T& x, T& y){
    T tmp = x;  x=y;  y=tmp;
}
```

Declarations both swap two values polymorphically, but they are compiled very differently

# Implementation

- Haskell
  - **swap** is compiled into one function
  - Typechecker determines how function can be used
- C++
  - **swap** is compiled differently for each instance (details beyond scope of this course ...)
- Why the difference?
  - Haskell ref cell is passed by pointer. The local **x** is a pointer to value on heap, so its size is constant
  - C++ arguments passed by reference (pointer), but local **x** is on the stack, so its size depends on the type

# Summary

- Types are important in modern languages
  - Program organization and documentation
  - Prevent program errors
  - Provide important information to compiler
- Type inference
  - Determine best type for an expression, based on known information about symbols in the expression
- Polymorphism
  - Single algorithm (function) can have many types