#### Principles of Programming Languages

http://www.di.unipi.it/~andrea/Didattica/PLP-16/

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#### Lesson 24

Type inference in ML / Haskell

# 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.

## 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 do not consider overloading now

#### Type Inference: Basic Idea

Example

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

- What is the type of £?
  - + has type: Int → Int
     (with overloading would be Num a => a → a → a)
  - 2 has type: Int

Since we are applying + to x we need x :: Int

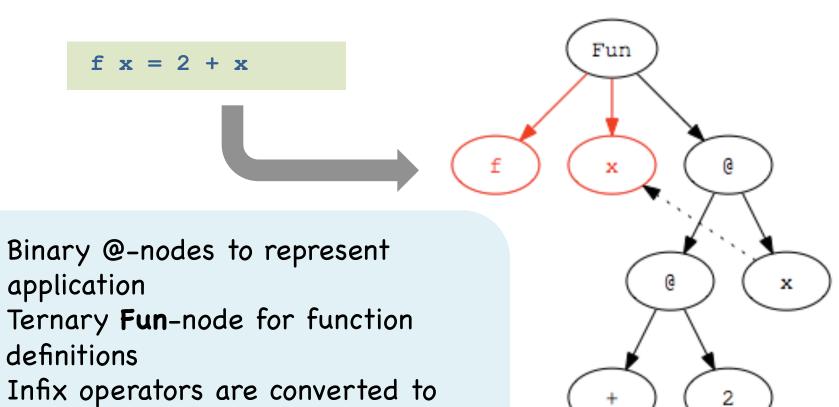
Therefore f x = 2 + x has type Int  $\rightarrow$  Int

#### Step 1: Parse Program

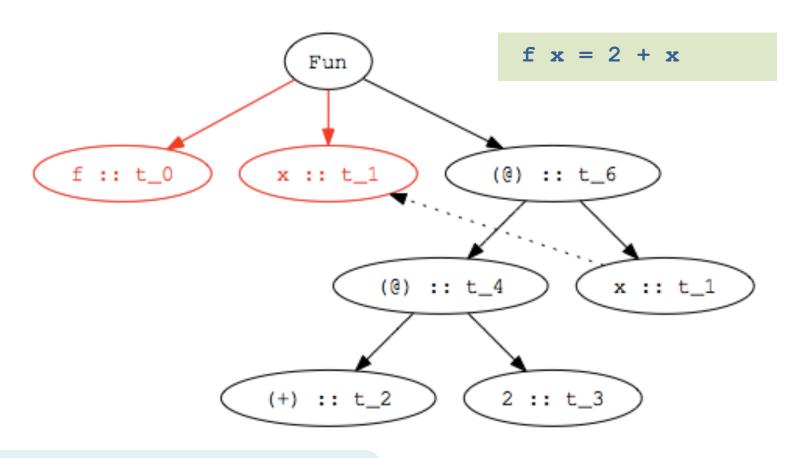
Parse program text to construct parse tree.

Curried function application during

parsing:  $2 + x \rightarrow (+) 2 x$ 

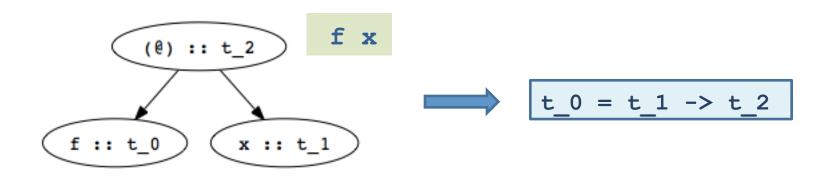


#### Step 2: Assign type variables to nodes



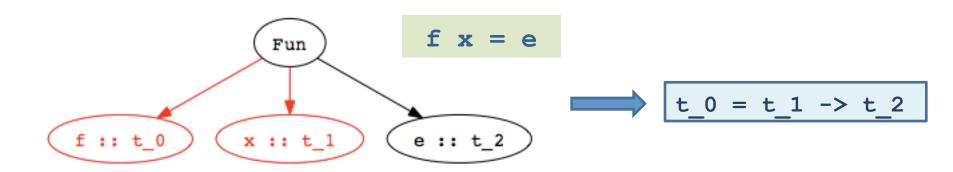
Variables are given same type as binding occurrence.

#### 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:  $t_0 = t_1 -> t_2$

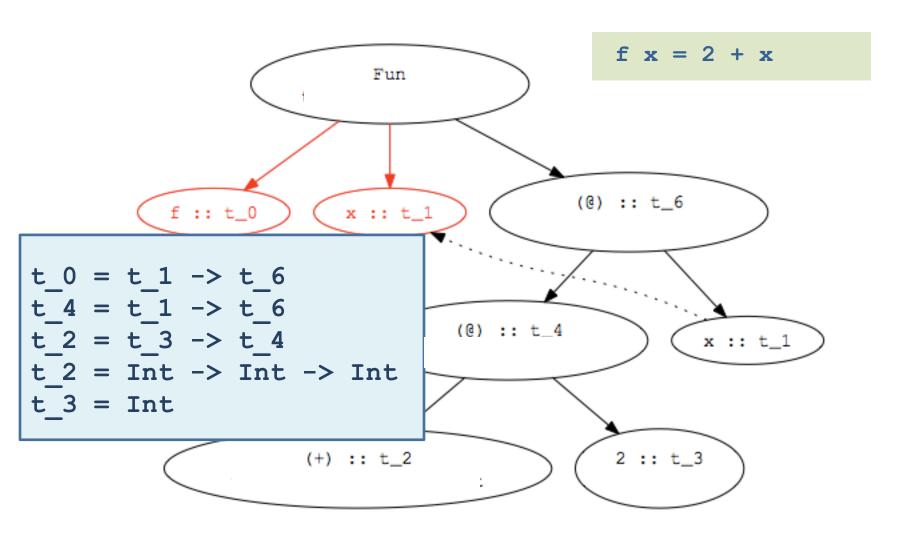
#### **Constraints from Abstractions**



#### 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:  $t = 0 = t = 1 \rightarrow t = 2$

## Step 3: Add Constraints



#### 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 -> t 4 = Int -> (Int -> Int)
t 3 = Int
                                t 3 = Int
t 0 = t 1 -> t 6
                                t 4 = Int -> Int
t 4 = t 1 -> t 6
t 4 = Int -> Int
t 2 = Int -> Int -> Int
                                t 1 -> t 6 = Int -> Int
t 3 = Int
                                t 1 = Int
t 0 = Int -> Int
                                t 6 = Int
t 1 = Int
t 6 = Int
t 4 = Int -> Int
t 2 = Int -> Int -> Int
t 3 = Int
                                                             12
```

# Step 5: Determine type of declaration

```
= Int -> Int
                                                 f x = 2 + x
    = Int
                                                 > f :: Int -> Int
  6 = Int
    = Int -> Int
  2 = Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Int
                                        Fun
t 3 = Int
                      f :: t_0
                                      x :: t_1
                                                      (@) :: t_6
                                                               x :: t_1
                                              (@) :: t_4
                                     (+) :: t_2
                                                      2 :: t_3
```

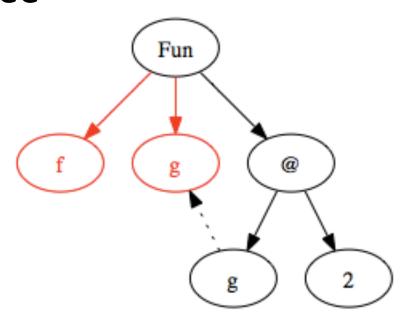
#### Type Inference Algorithm

- Parse program to build parse tree
- Assign type variables to nodes in tree
- Generate constraints:
  - From environment: constants (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

• Example:

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

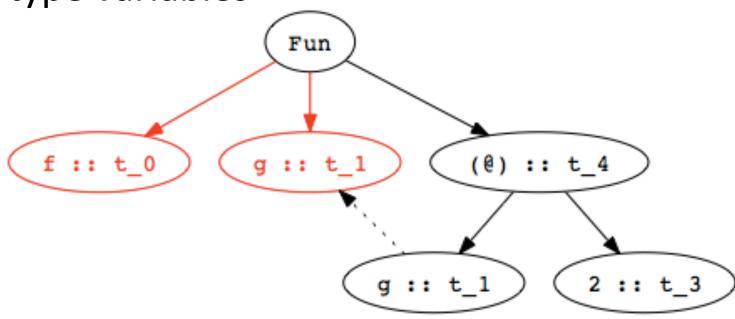
Step 1: Build Parse Tree



Example:

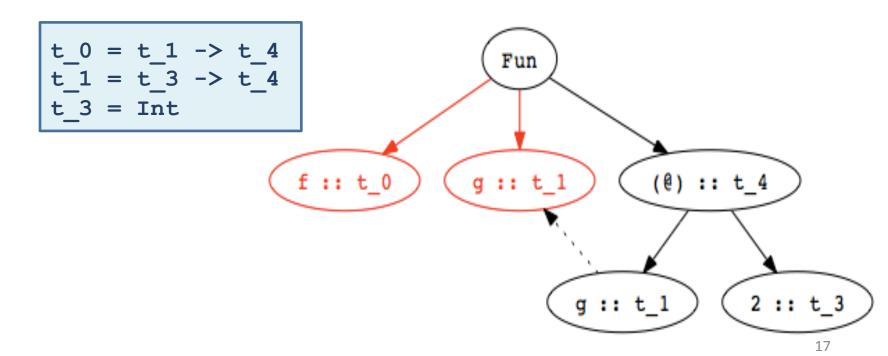
• Step 2:

Assign type variables



• Step 3:

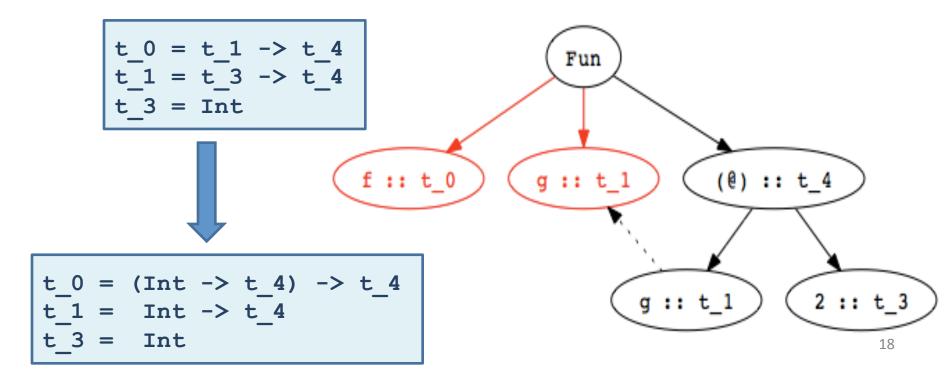
Generate constraints



Example:

• Step 4:

Solve constraints



• Example:

• Step 5:

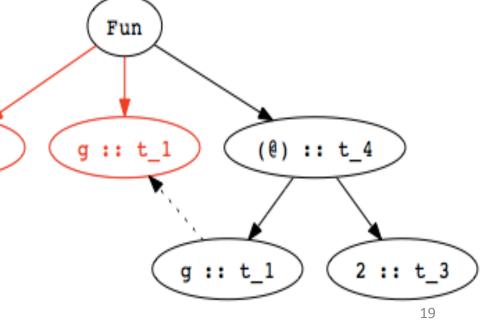
Determine type of top-level declaration

f :: t\_0

Unconstrained type variables become polymorphic types.

= (Int -> t 4) -> t 4

= Int -> t 4



# Using Polymorphic Functions

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 :: Int
```

#### Recognizing Type Errors

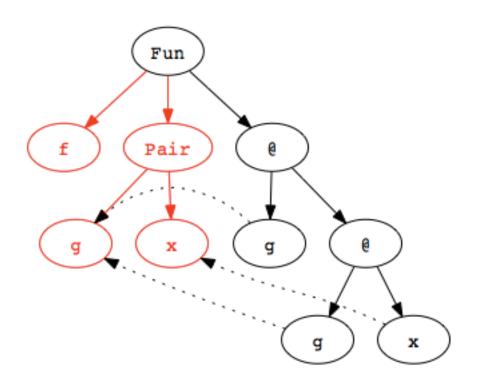
Incorrect use

```
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 Bool → Bool and Int → t

• Example:

Step 1: Build Parse Tree

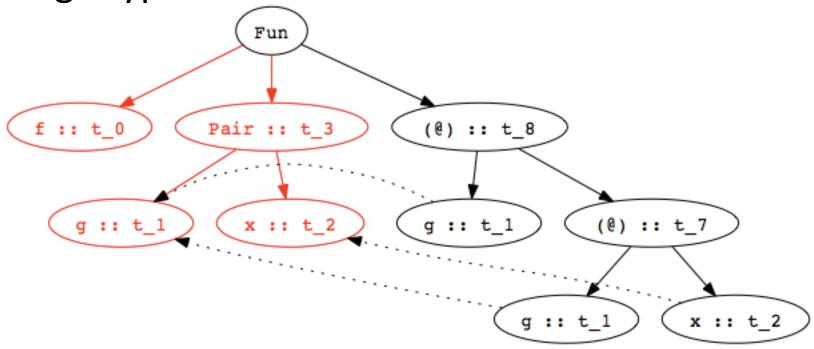


• Example:

$$f(g,x) = g(gx)$$
  
>  $f:: (t_8 -> t_8, t_8) -> t_8$ 

• Step 2:

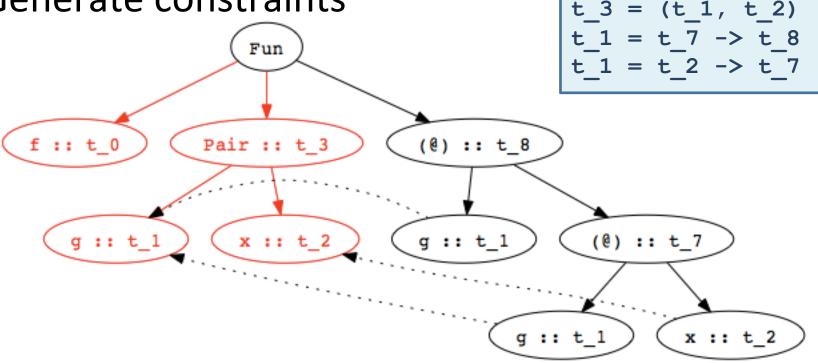
Assign type variables



• Example:

• Step 3:

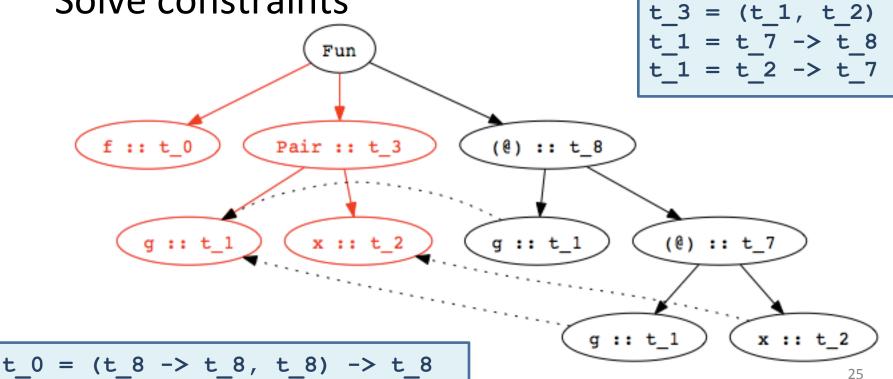
Generate constraints



• Example:

• Step 4:

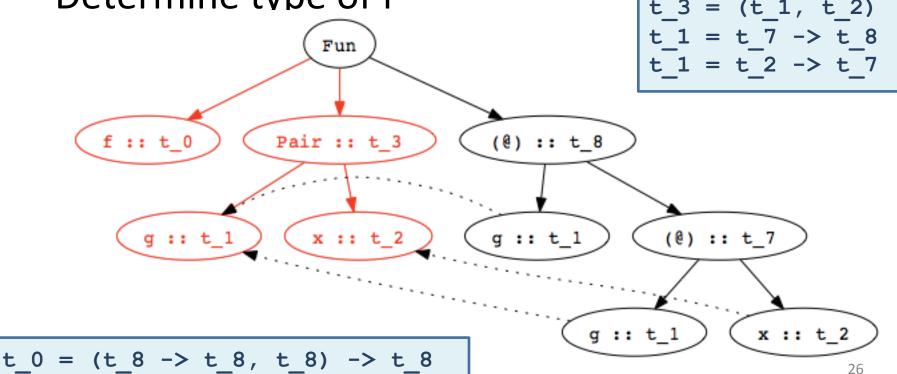
Solve constraints



• Example:

• Step 5:

Determine type of f



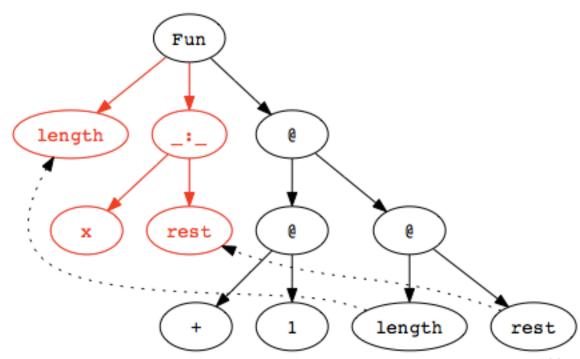
## Polymorphic Datatypes

Functions may have multiple clauses

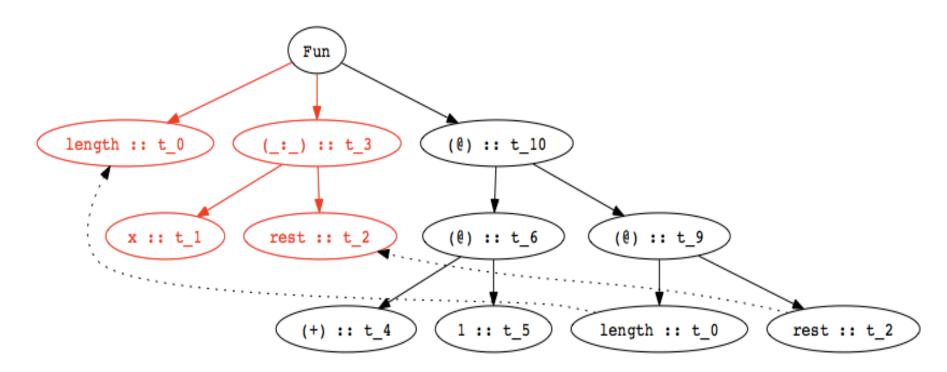
```
length [] = 0
length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest)
```

- 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

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



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



Example: length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest) Step 3: Generate constraints t\_0 = t\_3 -> t\_10 Fun  $6 = t 9 \rightarrow t 10$ 4 = t 5 -> t 6 $4 = Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Int$ (\_:\_) :: t\_3 length :: t\_0 (@) :: t\_10 t 5 = Intt 0 = t 2 -> t 9(0) :: t\_6 (0) :: t\_9 x:: t1 rest :: t\_2 1 :: t\_5 length :: t\_0 (+) :: t<sub>4</sub> rest :: t 2

Example: length (x:rest) = 1 + (length rest) Step 3: Solve Constraints = t 3 -> t 10Fun  $6 = t 9 \rightarrow t 10$  $4 = t_5 -> t_6$  $4 = Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Int$ (\_:\_) :: t\_3 length :: t\_0 (@) :: t\_10 t 5 = Intt 0 = t 2 -> t 9(0) :: t\_6 (0) :: t\_9 x:: t1 rest :: t\_2 1 :: t\_5 length :: t\_0 (+) :: t<sub>4</sub> rest :: t 2

#### 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 with overloading

- In presence of overloading (Type Classes), type inference infers a qualified type Q => T
  - T is a Hindley Milner type, inferred as usual
  - Q is set of type class predicates, called a constraint
- Consider the example function:

```
example z xs =
   case xs of
   []    -> False
    (y:ys) -> y > z || (y==z && ys == [z])
```

- Type T is a -> [a] -> Bool
- Constraint Q is { Ord a, Eq a, Eq [a]}

```
Ord a because y>z
Eq a because y==z
Eq [a] because ys == [z]
```

## Simplifying Type Constraints

- Constraint sets Q can be simplified:
  - Eliminate duplicates
    - {Eq a, Eq a} simplifies to {Eq a}
  - Use an instance declaration
    - If we have instance Eq a => Eq [a],
    - then {Eq a, Eq [a]} simplifies to {Eq a}
  - Use a class declaration
    - If we have class Eq a => Ord a where ...,
    - then {Ord a, Eq a} simplifies to {Ord a}
- Applying these rules,
  - {Ord a, Eq a, Eq[a]} simplifies to {Ord a}

# Type Inference with overloading

Putting it all together:

```
example z xs =
   case xs of
   []   -> False
   (y:ys) -> y > z || (y==z && ys ==[z])
```

- -T = a -> [a] -> Bool
- $-Q = \{Ord a, Eq a, Eq [a]\}$
- Q simplifies to {Ord a}
- $example :: {Ord a} => a -> [a] -> Bool$

#### Complexity of 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 exponentialtime complete
- Usually linear in practice though...
  - Running time is exponential in the depth of polymorphic declarations