# Type sharing constraints and undecidability

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# Abstract

Let  $\mathscr{A}$  be a set of modules and parameterized modules including type sharing constraint specifications. We prove that determining the set of the effective modules described by  $\mathscr{A}$  is undecidable. As a consequence, type sharing constraints are proved to be not always avoidable by constructive transformations.

## 1 Introduction

When composing strongly typed components, explicit coherence type constraints, i.e. type sharing constraints, are sometimes necessary to ensure static type analysis (MacQueen, 1986; Harper et al., 1987; Harper & Mitchell, 1993). Incrementally constructed systems can then be safely implemented from compatible components. However, type sharing constraints may also make difficult the understanding of a software architecture that includes parameterized components like ML functors. If  $\mathscr{C}$  is the set of the components which can be obtained from such an architecture by instantiating its parameterized components, one may indeed wonder whether  $\mathscr{C}$ fulfills some programmer's needs. For instance, one could ask whether & contains components satisfying a given signature, or whether  $\mathscr{C}$  contains components with coherent types that can be composed together. In the general case, we show that these questions are undecidable. The proof of this result does not rely on a particular ML-like type semantics, but only on the use of simple type sharing constraints. As such, this result can also be related to general software reuse frameworks like generic, parameterized or generative programming (Goguen, 1984; Krueger, 1992; Czarnecki & Eisenecker, 2000; Gibbons & Jeuring, 2003).

A consequence of this undecidability result is that explicit type sharing constraints cannot always be eliminated by constructive transformations applied to the components (a question already addressed (MacQueen, 1986; Jones, 1996; Harper, 2002; Harper & Pierce, 2005)). Type sharing specifications are thus irreducible, while they are known to induce many complications in the language semantics (Milner *et al.*, 1987).

# 2 Basics

We first recall some basic facts about ML module systems. *Signatures* are types and also interfaces for the implemented modular components. For instance, here is the



Fig. 1. A representation of the set  $\mathscr{A}$  of modules, functors, and signatures as given in the text. Each vertex corresponds to a signature: simple vertices for module signatures, and vertices with "handles" for functor signatures. Each parameter signature is linked to the handle of its functor, which is in turn linked to the result signature. Each vertex-signature contains all of the components in  $\mathscr{A}$  which satisfy it. The dotted arcs denote compatibility (subtype) relationships. The labeled handle of *ORDER\_COMPOSE* (a constrained version of *ORDER\_PAIR*) indicates its involved type sharing constraint. Applying the available functors yields new components which can also take their place in the vertices.

classic example about the ordered integers in SML (Paulson, 1992):

signature ORDER = sig	<pre>structure Int_0 : ORDER = struct</pre>
type t	type t = int
val leq : t * t -> bool	val leq $(x, y) = \dots$ (* some order *)
end ;	end ;

*Functors* are module functions – parameterized modules – with typed parameters. For example, here is a functor generating new ordered sets of pairs out of two ordered sets:

```
functor Pair_Lex (01: ORDER) (02: ORDER) = struct
type t = 01.t * 02.t
fun leq ((x1, y1), (x2, y2)) = ...
(* lexicographic order over pairs using O1.leq and O2.leq *)
end;
```

A generic ML *architecture* is a collection of modules, functors and signatures. Such an architecture may evolve by applying functor expressions. Full libraries can be designed following this technique (Biagnioni *et al.*, 2001; Harper, 2002; Narbel, 2005). For instance, developing further the above example, we give here a sketch of an "order machine" which generates many different ordered sets from other ones. The following functor List\_Lex generates *lexicographic* orders over lists of ordered data, and the functor Short\_Lex generates *shortlex* orders over structures having a length function (see figure 1):

```
functor List_Lex (0: ORDER) = struct
type t = 0.t list
val length = List.length
fun leq (11, 12) = ... (* lexicographic order using 0.leq *)
end;
```

```
signature ORDER_LEN = sig
type t
val leq: t * t -> bool
val length: t -> int
end;
functor Short_Lex (0: ORDER_LEN) = struct
type t = 0.t
fun leq (11, 12) = ... (* shortlex using 0.leq and 0.length *)
end;
```

Functor signatures can also be described in an explicit way in some ML dialects, e.g. OCaml and Moscow ML. For instance, here are signatures for the above functors:

```
signature ORDER_TRANSF = functor(0 : ORDER) -> ORDER;
signature ORDER_PAIR = functor(01 : ORDER) ->
functor(02 : ORDER) -> ORDER;
signature ORDER_TRANSF_LEN = functor(0 : ORDER) -> ORDER_LEN;
signature ORDER_LEN_SIMPL = functor(0 : ORDER_LEN) -> ORDER;
```

Sometimes functors need *type sharing constraints*, i.e. explicit type equalities to ensure type soundness of their bodies. A typical case occurs when the elements of the functor parameters are composed, necessarily imposing type coherence:

```
      signature OP = sig
type t
val f : t -> t
      functor Mix (structure M1 : OP and M2 : OP
sharing type M1.t = M2.t) = struct
fun g x = M1.f (M2.f x)
end;
```

Type sharing constraints in ML can also be expressed by directly adding type equations to signatures. Here is a functor which generates the *product order* by composing two orders:

This functor matches a constrained version of ORDER\_PAIR, and it can also take its place in the order machine (see figure 1). The whole example illustrates the fact that architectural complexity can be obtained with few generic components.

# 3 The undecidability of type sharing constraints

Given an ML architecture  $\mathscr{A}$  as above, what can be generated from it? For instance, let F be a functor with two parameters  $X_1, X_2$  such that  $X_1$  must satisfy ORDER. Then, one could ask whether  $\mathscr{A}$  would be able to generate orders for  $X_1$  that are type-coherent with the arguments of  $X_2$ . In a global setting, when type sharing constraints are involved, this kind of question is undecidable. In order to prove it in a general context, we first define a skeletal typed module language syntax derived from TypModL (Harper *et al.*, 1987; Leroy, 1996) and restricted to our needs, i.e. structures, first-order functors, signatures and generative type declarations. We add signature names, tuples of types, and *n*-ary functors. Let t range over type names, x over structure names, y over signature names, f over functors names:

```
Programs :
                               m \rightarrow \epsilon \mid \text{structure } x = s; m
                                        | functor f \{(x_i : S)\}^+ = s; m
                                        | signature y = S; m
Structure expressions: s \rightarrow p_s \mid \text{struct } d \text{ end } \mid f \{(s)\}^+
Structure paths :
                               p_s \rightarrow x \mid p_s.x
Structure bodies :
                               d \rightarrow \epsilon \mid c; d
Definitions :
                               c \rightarrow type t = T (type binding: non generative)
                                        | datatype t (type creation: generative)
Signature expressions : S \rightarrow y \mid \text{sig } D \text{ end}
Signature bodies :
                               D \rightarrow \epsilon \mid C; D
Specifications :
                                C \rightarrow \text{type } t
                                         | sharing type p_t = p'_t (type constraint)
                                T \rightarrow p_t \mid (T)
Type expressions :
                                        | T_1 \{* T_i\}^* (tuples of types)
Type paths:
                                p_t \rightarrow t \mid p_s.t
```

A type definition type t = T defines t as a synonym for the type expression T, and type generativity occurs only for datatype definitions. A usual "stamp-based" semantics can be applied (Milner *et al.*, 1987; Leroy, 1996).

# Theorem

Let  $\mathscr{A}$  be a set of signatures, modules, and parameterized modules including type sharing constraints. It is undecidable to determine whether or not a signature  $S_0$  can be instantiated from  $\mathscr{A}$ . More generally, it is undecidable to determine the set of components that can be generated from  $\mathscr{A}$ .

## Proof

We apply a reduction of the unsolvable dominoes Post's correspondence problem. Recall that this problem is the following: Let  $D = \{D_i = (\frac{up_i}{down_i})\}_{i=1,...,m}$  be a set of dominoes where  $up_i$  and  $down_i$  are words over some finite alphabet  $\Sigma$ . The question is to find a sequence of dominoes  $(\frac{up_{i_1}}{down_i})(\frac{up_{i_2}}{down_i})...(\frac{up_{i_n}}{down_{i_n}})$ , such that:  $up_{i_1}up_{i_2}...up_{i_n} = down_{i_1}down_{i_2}...down_{i_n}$ . The existence of such a solution is known to be undecidable (Davis & Weyuker, 1985).

We prove here that for each domino set D, there exists a collection of modules and functors for which the signature  $S_0$  instantiation problem is solvable iff the correspondence problem with D is solvable. The basic elements of the reduction are the following: For each letter a in the domino alphabet  $\Sigma$ , we define a distinct type:

datatype a = A

These "type-letters" can be concatenated into words by using the type product. The word  $w = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$ , with  $s_i \in \Sigma$ , is represented by:

type  $t_w = s1 * (s2 * ... (... * sn))...)$ 

We impose right associativity so that words have a unique type representation. Recall indeed that the Cartesian product of types is not associative, e.g.  $(a * b) * c \neq a * (b * c)$ .



Fig. 2. A representation of the Post reduction architecture. The labeled "handle" of the functor signature indicates the type sharing constraints between its two parameters.

Next, these words can be concatenated together by functors. Let  $w = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$  be a word and let w' be another word denoted by a type t contained in some module. Then, the "concatenating functor" to obtain ww' is:

```
signature TYPE = sig type t end
functor F_w (M: TYPE) = struct
  type t = s1 * ( s2 * ... (... * (sn * M.t))...)
end
```

Now, dominoes are represented as instances of the following signatures:

```
signatureDOMINO_UP = sigsignatureDOMINO_DOWN = sigtypedomino_seqtypedomino_seqtypeuptypedownendendend
```

For each domino  $D_i = (\frac{s_1 s_2 \dots s_n}{t_1 t_2 \dots t_m}) \in D$ , we define a distinct type:

```
datatype d_i = Dom_i
```

We also define two modules and two concatenating functors (see figure 2):

```
structure Di_Up = struct
  type domino_seq = d_i
  type up = s1 * (s2 * ... (... * sn)...)
end
structure Di_Down = struct
  type domino_seq = d_i
  type down = t1 * ( t2 * ... (... * tm)...)
end
functor F_Di_Up (D : DOMINO_UP) = struct
   type domino_seq = D.domino_seq * d_i
   type up = s1 * (s2 * ... (... * (sn * D.up))...)
end
functor F_Di_Down (D : DOMINO_DOWN) = struct
   type domino_seq = D.domino_seq * d_i
   type down = t1 * ( t2 * ... (... * (tm * D.down))...)
end
```

Next, we define a particular functor over a composition of modules satisfying DOMINO\_UP and DOMINO\_DOWN:

The signature of D2 is a constrained version of DOMINO\_DOWN which makes use of elements in D1 (the parameter sequence is assumed to define nested environments).

Considering the above components as the architecture  $\mathscr{A}$ , what are the conditions so that Check can be applied to instantiate  $S_0$ ? According to the type sharing constraints, this can happen either if some modules  $Di_Up$  and  $Di_Dwn$  are such that  $Di_Up.up = Di_Dwn.down$ , or if there are some functor application sequences  $D1 = F_Di_1_Up$  ( $F_Di_2_Up$  (... ( $F_Di_n_Up$  ( $Di_Up$ ))...) and  $D2 = F_Di_1_Down$  ( $F_Di_2_Down$  (... ( $F_Di_n_Down$  ( $Di_Down$ ))...) such that D1.up is equal to D2.down, that is,  $s_{j_1} * (s_{j_2} * (... * s_{j_k}))...) = t_{h_1} * (t_{h_2} * (... * t_{h_k}))...)$ . These equalities necessarily mean that  $s_{j_i} = t_{h_i}$  for every i = 1...k. Moreover, the equality  $D1.domino_seq = D2.domino_seq$  ensures the synchronization of the up and down parts of the dominoes, so that the application sequence induces a well-defined domino sequence. Therefore,  $Di_1Di_2...Di_nDi$  must be a solution of the Post's problem over D. Conversely, if there is a solution of the Post's problem, the above architecture emulates it by a sequence of  $F_Di_Up's$  and  $F_Di_Down's$  applications. The reduction is complete.  $\diamond$ 

Note that this proof can be simplified in the case that no type synchronization is required. Indeed, consider the following signature:

```
signature DOMINO_CONSTR = sig
type up
type down
sharing type up = down
end
```

Dominoes can be directly instances of the signature:

```
signature DOMINO = sig
type up
type down
end
```

Thus, the reduction is simplified by defining for each domino  $D_i = (\frac{s_1 s_2 \dots s_n}{t_1 t_2 t_m}) \in D$ :

```
structure Di = struct
   type up = s1 * ( s2 * ... (... * sn)...)
   type down = t1 * ( t2 * ... (... * tn)...)
end
functor F_Di (D : DOMINO) = struct
   type up = s1 * ( s2 * ... (... * (sn * D.up))...)
   type down = t1 * ( t2 * ... (... * (tm * D.down))...)
end
```

Here, similarly to the above proof, the reduction amounts to check the existence of some functor application sequence producing an instance of DOMINO\_CONSTR.

Note also that the above undecidability result does not hold if type sharing constraints do not occur in  $\mathscr{A} \cup S_0$ . Indeed, let  $\mathscr{S}$  be the set of signatures in  $\mathscr{A} \cup S_0$ , let  $\mathscr{M}$  be the set of modules in  $\mathscr{A}$ , and  $\mathscr{F}$  be its set of functors. Assume that for each component in  $\mathscr{M} \cup \mathscr{F}$  there is some corresponding signature in  $\mathscr{S}$ . The set of all the components satisfying  $S_0$  can be described by a context-free grammar (see also (Batory & O'Malley, 1992; Czarnecki & Eisenecker, 2000)): the *non-terminals* are the signatures in  $\mathscr{S}$  and the *terminals* are the components in  $\mathscr{M} \cup \mathscr{F}$ . The production rules are first:  $S_2 \to S_1$ , with  $S_1, S_2 \in \mathscr{S}$  if  $S_1$  is compatible (a subtype) with  $S_2$ ; second,  $RES \to SF(S_1)(S_2)...(S_n)$  if  $(S_1, S_2, ..., S_n) \to RES$  is a functor signature in  $\mathscr{S}$ ; and third,  $S_1 \to M_1$  if  $S_1 \in \mathscr{S}$  and  $M_1 \in \mathscr{M} \cup \mathscr{F}$ , such that  $M_1$  satisfies  $S_1$ . Denote by  $L(S_0)$  the language defined with these rules with start symbol  $S_0 \in \mathscr{S}$ . One can check that this language consists exactly of all the components with signature  $S_0$  which can be generated from  $\mathscr{A}$ . Now, it is well-known that  $L(S_0) = \emptyset$  is decidable (see e.g., (Davis & Weyuker, 1985)).

Therefore, type sharing constraints are at the root of the above undecidability result, and they occur in a natural way when composing well-typed components. They also imply many complications in the ML semantics (Milner *et al.*, 1987). General techniques have been described to avoid them (MacQueen, 1986; Harper, 2002; Harper & Pierce, 2005): the idea is to express abstractions with regard to the components that need type sharing constraints so that type equivalences become true by construction. However, these transformations are not always possible without changing the meaning of a program:

## Corollary

Let  $\mathscr{A}$  be a set of signatures, modules, and parameterized modules. Then, the type sharing constraints occurring in  $\mathscr{A}$  cannot always be eliminated in a constructive way.

## Proof

We just have seen that the signature instantiation problem is decidable when no type sharing constraints occur. Hence, the constraints in  $\mathscr{A}$  cannot always be eliminated by constructive transformations without contradicting the above theorem.  $\diamond$ 

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