1 Type schemas

We saw last time that we could describe type inference by writing typing rules that introduce explicit type variables T to solve for:

$$\begin{array}{c} \overline{\Gamma}, x: \tau \vdash x: \tau & \overline{\Gamma} \vdash b: \overline{B} \\ \\ \underline{\Gamma} \vdash e_0: \tau_0 \quad \underline{\Gamma} \vdash e_1: \tau_1 \quad \tau_0 = \tau_1 \to T \\ \overline{\Gamma} \vdash e_0: e_1: T & \overline{\Gamma} \vdash \lambda x. e: T \to \tau' \\ \\ \\ \underline{\Gamma} \vdash \mathbf{let} \ x = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ e_2 & \underline{\Gamma} \vdash \mathbf{rec} \ y. \ \lambda x. e: T_1 \to T_2 \\ \end{array}$$

This simple type inference mechanism does not result in as much $polymorphism^1$ as we would like. For example, consider a program that binds a variable f to the identity function, then applies it to both an **int** and a **bool**:

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{let} \ f = \lambda x. \ x \ \mathbf{in} \\ \mathbf{if} \ (f \ \mathbf{true}) \ \mathbf{then} \ (f \ 3) \ \mathbf{else} \ (f \ 4) \end{array}$$
(1)

The type system above will find that the function f has some type $T \to T$, which means that it can act as if it had this type for any T. However, when the type checker encounters the application to **true**, it decides $T = \mathbf{bool}$ first and says that the function is of type $\mathbf{bool} \to \mathbf{bool}$. It then gives a unification error when it sees the **int** parameters 3 and 4. We would like f to be polymorphic, having type $\mathbf{bool} \to \mathbf{bool}$ when applied to a **bool** parameter and type **int** \to **int** when applied to an **int** parameter.

The various versions of ML can do this. The trick is to bind variables like f not to types, but rather to type schemas. A type schema σ is a pattern for a type, which can mention type parameters α :

$$\sigma ::= \forall \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n . \tau \quad {}^{(n \ge 0)}$$

The idea is that if a variable has a type schema mentioning type parameters $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$, it is bound to a term that can act as though it has any type that looks like τ with the parameters α_i replaced by arbitrary types τ_1, \ldots, τ_n . For example, we give the variable f the type schema $\forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha$, and the type of the K combinator $\lambda xy. x$ (a.k.a. *FALSE*) is

$$\forall \alpha . \forall \beta . \alpha \to \beta \to \alpha.$$

1.1 Inferring type schemas

To incorporate type schemas into the type system, we extend Γ to bind variables to type schemas:

$$\Gamma = x_1 : \sigma_1, \ldots, x_n : \sigma_n$$

Then the typing rule for variables *instantiates* the variable's type by replacing type parameters α with types. To make this work with type inference, these types are fresh type variables to be solved for:

$$\overline{\Gamma, x : \forall \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n . \tau \vdash x : \tau \{T_1/\alpha_1, \dots, T_n/\alpha_n\}}$$
 (instantiation)

We extend the typing rule for let to correspondingly generate type schemas by generalizing over type parameters that appear only in the type of e_1 (that is, do not appear in Γ):

¹Greek for "many shapes"

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma, x : \forall \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n . \tau_1 \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \quad \alpha_i \notin FTV(\Gamma) \quad {}^{i \in 1..n}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{let} \ x = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ e_2 : \tau_2} \ (generalization)$$

How are the parameters α_i chosen? The algorithm is to type-check e_1 using type variables as above. However, once the type τ_1 is found, and unification is used to solve all equations in the derivation of $\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1$, any *unsolved* type variables T that are not constrained by appearing elsewhere in the program could be replaced by any type. Therefore, we replace each such type variable in τ_1 with a corresponding type parameter α . While it doesn't in principle hurt to have extra type parameters, the usual approach is to generate a type parameter for each unsolved T that appears in τ_1 but not in Γ .

1.2 Example

Here is a derivation exposing the polymorphic type of K in this system:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \frac{x:\alpha, y:\beta \vdash x:\alpha}{x:\alpha \vdash \lambda y. x:\beta \to \alpha} & \dots \\ \hline \vdash \lambda x. \lambda y. x:\alpha \to \beta \to \alpha & \hline k: \forall \alpha, \beta. \alpha \to \beta \to \alpha \vdash e_2:\tau_2 \\ \hline \vdash \mathbf{let} \ k = \lambda x. \lambda y. x \ \mathbf{in} \ e_2:\tau_2 \end{array}$$

The type inference algorithm would proceed by computing a type $T_1 \to T_2 \to T_1$ for the variable k. Because neither T_1 nor T_2 would be mentioned in the typing context, it would replace them with the type variables α and β and give k the type schema $\forall \alpha . \forall \beta . \alpha \to \beta \to \alpha$ when type-checking e_2 .

1.3 Limitations of let-polymorphism

The type systems of ML and Haskell are based on let-polymorphism. We previously considered let $x = e_1$ in e_2 to be equivalent to $(\lambda x. e_2) e_1$, but in SML, the former may be typable in some cases when the latter is not, e.g.:

```
- let val f = fn \ x \Rightarrow x in if (f true) then (f 3) else (f 4) end;
val it = 3 : int
- (fn f \Rightarrow if (f true) then (f 3) else (f 4)) (fn x \Rightarrow x);
stdIn:17.27-17.32 Error: operator and operand don't agree [literal]
operator domain: bool
operand: int
in expression:
f 3
stdIn:17.38-17.43 Error: operator and operand don't agree [literal]
operator domain: bool
operand: int
in expression:
f 4
```

2 System F

If we consider type schemas to be regular types, we get the language System F, introduced by Girard in 1971. This lets us pass polymorphic terms uninstantiated to functions.

In the Church-style simply-typed λ -calculus, we annotated binding occurrences of variables with their types. The corresponding version of the polymorphic λ -calculus is called *System F*. Here we explicitly abstract terms with respect to types and explicitly instantiate by applying an abstracted term to a type. We augment the syntax with new terms and types:

 $e ::= \cdots \mid \Lambda \alpha. e \mid e[\tau] \qquad \tau ::= b \mid \tau_1 \to \tau_2 \mid \alpha \mid \forall \alpha. \tau$

where b are the base types (e.g., **int** and **bool**). The new terms are type abstraction and type application, respectively. Operationally, we have

$$(\Lambda \alpha. e)[\tau] \longrightarrow e\{\tau/\alpha\}.$$

This just gives the rule for instantiating a type schema. Since these reductions only affects the types, they can be performed at compile time.

The typing rules for these constructs need a notion of well-formed type. We introduce a new environment Δ that maps type variables to their *kinds* (for now, there is only one kind: **type**). So Δ is a partial function with finite domain mapping types to {**type**}. Since the range is only a singleton, all Δ does for right now is to specify a set of types, namely dom(Δ) (it will get more complicated later). As before, we use the notation Δ , α : **type** for the partial function Δ [**type**/ α]. For now, we just abbreviate this by Δ , α .

We have two classes of type judgments:

$$\Delta \vdash \tau : \mathbf{type} \qquad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau$$

For now, we just abbreviate the former by $\Delta \vdash \tau$. These judgments just determine when τ is well-formed under the assumptions Δ . The typing rules for this class of judgments are:

$$\Delta, \alpha \vdash \alpha \qquad \Delta \vdash b \qquad \frac{\Delta \vdash \sigma \quad \Delta \vdash \tau}{\Delta \vdash \sigma \to \tau} \qquad \frac{\Delta, \alpha \vdash \tau}{\Delta \vdash \forall \alpha. \tau}$$

Right now, all these rules do is use Δ to keep track of free type variables. One can show that $\Delta \vdash \tau$ iff $FV(\tau) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(\Delta)$.

The typing rules for the second class of judgments are:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{\Delta \vdash \tau} \\ \overline{\Delta; \ \Gamma, \ x: \tau \vdash x: \tau} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \underline{\Delta; \ \Gamma \vdash e_0: \sigma \to \tau \quad \Delta; \ \Gamma \vdash e_1: \sigma} \\ \overline{\Delta; \ \Gamma, \ x: \tau \vdash x: \tau} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \underline{\Delta; \ \Gamma \vdash e_0: \tau \quad \Delta \vdash \sigma} \\ \overline{\Delta; \ \Gamma \vdash (\lambda x: \sigma. e): \sigma \to \tau} \end{array} \\ \\ \hline \begin{array}{c} \underline{\Delta; \ \Gamma \vdash e: \forall \alpha. \tau \quad \Delta \vdash \sigma} \\ \overline{\Delta; \ \Gamma \vdash (e \ \sigma): \tau \{\sigma/\alpha\}} \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} \underline{\Delta, \ \alpha; \ \Gamma \vdash e: \tau \quad \alpha \notin FV(\Gamma)} \\ \overline{\Delta; \ \Gamma \vdash (\lambda \alpha. e): \forall \alpha. \tau} \end{array} \end{array}$$

One can show that if Δ ; $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ is derivable, then τ and all types occurring in annotations in e are well-formed. In particular, $\vdash e : \tau$ only if e is a closed term and τ is a closed type, and all type annotations in e are closed types.