A Second Look at Overloading

Technical Report 3/95,
University of Karlsruhe, Department of Computer Science

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Abstract

We study a minimal extension of the Hindley/Milner system that supports overloading and polymorphic records. We show that the type system is sound with respect to a standard untyped compositional semantics. We also show that every typable term in this system has a principal type and give an algorithm to reconstruct that type.

1 Introduction

Arithmetic, equality, showing a value as a string: three operations guaranteed to give a language designer nightmares. Usually they are dealt with by some form of overloading; but which form is best?

To provide some hope of uniformity, let’s limit our attention to languages based on the highly successful Hindley/Milner type system. Nonetheless, we find that the same language may treat different operators differently; that different languages may treat the same operator differently; and even that the same language may treat the same operator differently, at different times. For instance, in Miranda arithmetic is defined only on a single numeric type; equality is a polymorphic function defined at all types, including abstract types where it breaks the abstraction barrier; and the show function may be defined by the user for new types. In the first version of SML equality was simply overloaded at all monomorphic types; while the second version introduced special equality type variables.

Type classes were introduced into Haskell in order to provide a uniform framework for solving all three problems [WB89]. It must have been an idea whose time had come, as it was independently described by KAES [Kae88]. Since then type classes have attracted considerable attention, with many refinements and variants being described [NS91, NP93, HHPW94, Aug93, RJ93, Jon92, CHO92, Jon93]. They have also attracted some criticism [App93].

In our view, one of the most serious criticisms of type classes is that a program cannot be assigned a meaning independent of its types. A consequence of this is that two of the most celebrated properties of the Hindley/Milner type system are not satisfied in the presence of type classes: there is no semantic soundness result, and the principal types result holds only in a weak form.

The semantic soundness result shows a correspondence between the typed static semantics of program and its untyped dynamic semantics. It is summarised by Milner’s catchphrase ‘well typed programs cannot go wrong’. One cannot even formulate such a result for type classes, as no untyped dynamic semantics exists.

The principal type result shows that every typable program has a single most general type. This is also true for type classes. However, much of the utility of this result arises from another property of the Hindley/Milner system: every typeable program remains typeable if all type declarations are removed from it, so type declarations are never required. This fails for type classes: some programs are inherently ambiguous, and require type declarations for disambiguation. Put another way: under Hindley/Milner, a program is untypeable only if it may have no meaning; under type classes, a program may be untypeable because it has too many meanings.

The absence of these properties is not merely the lack of a technical nicety. Rather, they reflect problems in the ease with which a programmer can visualise the meaning of a program.

The above problems can be solved by a simple restriction to type classes. Recall that a type class limits a type variable, say a, to range only those types on which an overloaded operator is defined; the overloaded operator may have any type involving a. Here are some
examples, representing in simplified form parts of the Haskell standard prelude.

```
class (Num a) where
  (+) :: a -> a -> a
  (*) :: a -> a -> a
  negate :: a -> a
  fromInteger :: Integer -> a

class (Eq a) where
  (==) :: (Eq a) => a -> a -> Bool

class (Text a) where
  show :: a -> String
  showList :: [a] -> String
  read :: String -> a
```

For instance, the first of these states that type a belongs to class Num only when there are operators (+), (*), negate, and fromInteger of the specified types defined for a. One specifies that a type belongs to a class with an instance declaration.

The restriction is as follows: for a type class over a type variable a, each overloaded operator must have a type of the form a -> t, where t may itself involve a. In the above, (+), (*), negate, (==), and show satisfy this restriction, while fromInteger, showList, and read do not.

Remarkably, this simple restriction enables one to construct an untyped dynamic semantics, and ensures that no ambiguity can arise: hence type soundness and the strong form of principal types do hold. The resulting system is still powerful enough to handle the overloading of arithmetic, equality, and showing a value as a string, but not powerful enough to handle the overloading of numerical constants or reading a string as a value. The latter are perhaps less essential than the former: neither Miranda nor SML support overloading of the latter sort.

The above problems arise in a sense type classes are too powerful: the power afforded by allowing the meaning of a program to depend on a type results in the loss of type soundness and strong principal type properties. We next turn our attention to a sense in which type classes are not powerful enough.

Type classes restrict type variables to range over types at which certain overloaded operators are defined. This appears to be closely related to bounded polymorphism, which restricts type variables to range over types that are subtypes of a given type [CW85, BT89]. Indeed, one can use type classes to mimic bounded polymorphism for the usual subtyping relation on records. But, annoyingly, this mimicry works only for monomorphic records; type classes are not quite powerful enough to handle polymorphic records.

For instance, one would expect the operations xcoord and ycoord to apply to any record type that contains those fields, for instance it should apply both to a type Point containing just those two fields, and to a type CPoint that contains both those fields plus a colour. Here is how one can mimic such records in Haskell.

```
class (Pointed a) where
  xcoord :: a -> Float
  ycoord :: a -> Float

instance Pointed Point where
  xcoord (MkPoint x y) = x
  ycoord (MkPoint x y) = y

instance Pointed CPoint where
  xcoord (MkCPoint x y c) = x
  ycoord (MkCPoint x y c) = y
  dist :: (Pointed a) => a -> Float
  dist p = sqrt (sqr (xcoord p) + sqr (ycoord p))
```

Note, alas, that this trick depends on each field of the record having a monomorphic type that can appear in the class declaration. The polymorphic equivalent of the above would be to have overloaded operations first and second that return the corresponding components of either a pair or a triple, where these may have any type rather than being restricted to Float. But there is no way to do this in Haskell.

We solve this problem by getting rid of class declarations, instead allowing each instance to be declared separately. Here is the previous example in our new notation.

```
data Point = MkPoint Float Float
=data CPoint = MkCPoint Float Float Colour

instance Pointed Point where
  xcoord (MkPoint x y) = x
  ycoord (MkPoint x y) = y

instance Pointed CPoint where
  xcoord (MkCPoint x y c) = x
  ycoord (MkCPoint x y c) = y
  dist (xcoord,ycoord::a->Float) = a->Float
  dist p = sqrt (sqr (xcoord p) + sqr (ycoord p))
```

Moreover, it is now possible to overload first and second on polymorphic pairs and triples.

```
instance (a,b) -> a
  first (x,y) = x

instance (a,b) -> b
  second (x,y) = x

instance (a,b,c) -> a
  first (x,y,z) = x

instance (a,b,c) -> b
```

2
second \((x,y,z) = y\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{inst third} &:: (a,b,c) \rightarrow c \\
\text{third} &:: (x,y,z) = c
\end{align*}
\]

In short, eliminating class declarations makes type classes powerful enough to model bounded polymorphism.

This paper presents System O, a type system for overloading based on the above ideas, and with the following properties.

* System O possesses an untyped dynamic semantics, and satisfies a corresponding type soundness theorem.
* System O has a strong principal types property. It is never necessary to add type declarations to disambiguate a program.
* As with type classes, there is a standard dictionary transform which takes well-typed programs in System O into equivalent well-typed programs in the Hindley/Milner system.
* System O is powerful enough to model a limited form of F-bounded polymorphism over records, including polymorphic records.

We believe that this makes System O an interesting alternative to type classes.

**Related work.** Overloading in polymorphic programming languages has first been studied by Kees [Kee88] and Wadler and Blott [WB89]. Similar concepts can be found in earlier work in symbolic algebra [JT81]. This paper is very much in the tradition of Kees in that overloading is restricted to functions. It can be seen as a simplification of his system that gets rid of all syntactic declarations of predicates or type classes. We extend his work by a study of type soundness and the relationship to record typing.

Much of the later work on overloading is driven by the design and implementation of Haskell’s type classes, e.g., Nipkow et al. [NS91, NP93] on type reconstruction, Augustsson [Aug93] and Peterson and Jones [PJ93] on implementations, and Hall, Hammond, Peyton Jones and Wadler [HHHPW94] on the formal definition of type classes in Haskell. We have already compared our system to this work.

Haskell’s syntactic restrictions on type class declarations motivated work to lift these restrictions to some degree. For instance, Jones considers type classes with multiple type variables [Jon92]. Chen, Hudak and Odersky’s parametric type classes [CHO92] can also have multiple type variables, but a functional dependence is imposed between a primary class variable and dependent parameters. Parametric type classes can model container classes and records, but they retain the syntactical heritage of plain type classes. Constructor classes generalize type classes to type constructors [Jon93]. Constructor classes are very good at modeling containers with operations that mediate between similar containers with different element types. It is less clear how they could be applied to model records. We consider it an important problem to determine whether our type system can be generalized to type constructors.

All systems discussed so far implement an open world approach, where even empty classes, which do not have any instances at all, are considered legal. This approach works well in a system with separate compilation, where the type checker does not have complete knowledge of instance declarations. By contrast, the closed world approach of e.g. [Rou90, Smi91, Kee92] rules out empty type schemes. Duggan and Ophel [DO94] support both approaches by distinguishing between open and closed kinds. Volpano [Vol93] has argued that many previously known open world systems are unsound. By proving type soundness for System O, we show that Volpano’s critique does not apply to open world systems in general.

**Outline** The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents syntax and typing rules of System O. Section 3 develops a compositional semantics and proves a type soundness theorem. Section 4 discusses the dictionary passing transform. Section 5 presents an encoding of a polymorphic record calculus. Section 6 discusses type reconstruction and the principal type property. Section 7 concludes.

## 2 Type System

In this section we define System O, a simple functional language with overloaded identifiers. Figure 1 gives the syntax of terms and types. We split the variable alphabet into subalphabets \(U\) for unique variables, ranged over by \(u\), \(O\) for overloaded variables, ranged over by \(o\), and \(K\) for data constructors, ranged over by \(k\). The letter \(x\) ranges over both unique and overloaded variables as well as constructors. We assume that every non-overloaded variable \(u\) is bound at most once in a program.

The syntax of terms is identical to the language \(Exp\) in [Mil78]. A program consists of a sequence of instance declarations and a term. An instance declaration (inst \(o : \sigma_T = e\) in \(p\)) overloads the meaning of the identifier \(o\) with the function given by \(e\) on all arguments that are constructed from the type constructor \(T\).

A type \(\tau\) is a type variable, a function type, or a datatype. Datatypes are constructed from datatype
constructors $D$. For simplicity, we assume that all value constructors and selectors of a datatype $D \tau_1 \ldots \tau_n$ are predefined, with bindings in some fixed initial hypothesis $\emptyset$. With user-defined type declarations, we would simply collect in $\emptyset$ all selectors and constructors actually declared in a given program. Let $K_D$ be the set of all value constructors that yield a value in $D \tau_1 \ldots \tau_n$ for some types $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n$. We assume that there exists a bottom datatype $\bot \in D$ with $K_\bot = \emptyset$. Note that this type is present in Miranda, where it is written $\bot$, but is absent in Haskell, where $\bot$ has a value constructor.

We let $T$ range over datatype constructors as well as the function type constructor $(-\rightarrow)$, writing $(-\rightarrow) \tau \tau'$ as a synonym for $\tau \rightarrow \tau'$. A type scheme $\sigma$ consists of a type $\tau$ and quantifiers for some of the type variables in $\tau$. Unlike in Hindley/Milner polymorphism, a quantified variable $\alpha$ comes with a constraint $\pi_\alpha$, which is a (possibly empty) set of bindings $\alpha : \tau \rightarrow \tau$. An overloaded variable $\alpha$ can appear at most once in a constraint. Constraints restrict the instance types of a type scheme by requiring that overloaded identifiers are defined at given types. The Hindley/Milner type scheme $\forall \alpha. \sigma$ is regarded as syntactic sugar for $\forall \alpha. (\cdot) \Rightarrow \sigma$.

Figure 2 defines the typing rules of System O. The type system is identical to the original Hindley/Milner system, as presented in in [DBM82], except for two modifications.

- In rule $(\forall \exists)$, the constraint $\pi_\alpha$ on the introduced bound variable $\alpha$ is traded between hypothesis and type scheme. Rule $(\forall \exists)$ has as a premise an instantiation of the eliminated constraint. Constraints are derived using rule $(\exists \exists)$. Note that this makes rules $(\forall \exists)$ and $(\forall \exists)$ symmetric to rules $(-I)$ and $(-E)$.
- There is an additional rule (INST) for instance declarations. The rule is similar to (LET), except that the overloaded variable $\alpha$ has an explicit type scheme $\sigma_T$ and it is required that the type constructor $T$ is different in each instantiation of a variable $\alpha$.

We let $\sigma_T$ range over closed type schemes that have $T$ as outermost argument type constructor:

$$
\sigma_T = T \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_n \rightarrow \tau \quad (\text{tv}(\tau) \subseteq \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}) \\
\mid \forall \alpha. \pi_\alpha \Rightarrow \sigma'_T \\
(\text{tv}(\pi_\alpha) \subseteq \text{tv}(\sigma'_T)).
$$

The explicit declaration of $\sigma_T$ in rule (INST) is necessary to ensure that principal types always exist. Without it, one might declare an instance declaration such as

$$
\text{inst } \alpha = \lambda x. x \text{ in } p
$$

where the type constructor on which $\alpha$ is overloaded cannot be determined uniquely.

The syntactic restrictions on type schemes $\sigma_T$ enforce three properties: First, overloaded instances must work uniformly for all arguments of a given type constructor. Second the argument type must determine the result type uniquely. Finally, all constraints must apply to component types of the argument. The restrictions are necessary to ensure termination of the type reconstruction algorithm. An example is given in Section 6.

The syntactic restrictions on type schemes $\sigma_T$ also explain why the overloaded variables of a constraint $\pi_\alpha$ must be pairwise different. A monomorphic argument to an overloaded function completely determines the instance type of that function. Hence, for any argument
type \( \tau \) and overloaded variable \( o \), there can be only one instance type of \( o \) on arguments of type \( \tau \). By embodying this rule in the form of type variable constraints we enforce it at the earliest possible time.

**Example 2.1** The following program fragment gives instance declarations for the equality function \((=\)\). We adapt our notation to Haskell’s conventions, writing \( :: \) instead of \( \vdash \) in a typing; writing \((\text{inst } o : \text{Set } a) \Rightarrow \text{Set } a\) instead of \(\forall o \, (o : \text{Set } a) \Rightarrow \text{Set } a\); and writing \(\text{inst } o : \text{Set } a; \ o = \text{e} \) instead of \(\text{inst } o : \text{Set } a; \ o = \text{e} \).

\[
\text{inst } (==) :: \text{Int } \rightarrow \text{Int } \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
(==) = \text{primEq1Int}
\]

\[
\text{listEq} :: ((==) :: \text{a} \rightarrow \text{a} \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \Rightarrow \text{[a]} \rightarrow \text{[a]} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
\text{listEq } True = True \\
\text{listEq } (\text{xs}) (\text{ys}) = \text{xs} == \text{ys} \& \& \text{listEq } \text{xs} \text{ ys}
\]

\[
\text{inst } (==) :: ((==) :: \text{a} \rightarrow \text{a} \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \Rightarrow \text{[a]} \rightarrow \text{[a]} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
(==) = \text{listEq}
\]

Note that using \((==)\) directly in the second instance declaration would not work, since instance declarations are not recursive. An extension of System O to recursive instance declaration would be worthwhile but is omitted here for simplicity.

**Example 2.2** The following example demonstrates an object-oriented style of programming, and shows where we are more expressive than Haskell’s type classes. We write instances of a polymorphic class \(\text{Set}\), with a member test and operations to compute the union, intersection, and difference of two sets. In Haskell, only sets of a fixed element type could be expressed. The example uses the record extension of Section 5; look there for an explanation of record syntax.

\[
\text{type } \text{Set } a \text{ sa} = \{ \text{union}, \text{inters}, \text{diff} :: \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa}, \text{ member } :: \text{a } \rightarrow \text{Bool} \}
\]

\[
\text{inst set } :: ((==) :: \text{a} \rightarrow \text{a} \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \Rightarrow \text{[a]} \rightarrow \text{[a]} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
\text{set } \text{xs} = \\
\{ \text{union } = \text{ys } \rightarrow \text{xs }++\text{ys}, \text{inters } = \text{ys } \rightarrow \text{[y } \& y <\text{ ys }\mid \text{y }\text{’elem’ }\text{xs}], \text{diff } = \text{ys } \rightarrow \text{xs }\setminus \text{ys}, \text{member } = \text{y }\rightarrow \text{y }\text{’elem’ }\text{xs}\}
\]

Here are some functions that works with sets.

\[
\text{union } :: (\text{set } : : \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa}) \Rightarrow \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa} \\
\text{union } \text{xs }\text{ ys } = \text{#union } (\text{set } \text{xs}) \text{ ys}
\]

\[
\text{diff } :: (\text{set } : : \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa }) \Rightarrow \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa} \\
\text{diff } \text{xs }\text{ ys } = \text{#diff } (\text{set } \text{xs}) \text{ ys}
\]

\[
\text{simdiff } :: (\text{set } : : \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa } \rightarrow \text{sa} \\
\text{simdiff } \text{xs }\text{ ys } = \text{union } (\text{diff } \text{xs }\text{ ys}) (\text{diff } \text{ys }\text{ xs})
\]

### 3 Semantics

We now give a compositional semantics of System O and show that typings are sound with respect it. The semantics specifies lazy evaluation of functions, except for overloaded functions, which are strict in their first argument. Alternatively, we could have assumed strict evaluation uniformly for all functions, with little change in our definitions and no change in our results.

The meaning of a term is a value in the CPO \( \mathcal{V} \), where \( \mathcal{V} \) is the least solution of the equation

\[
\mathcal{V} = \mathbf{W}_\bot + \mathcal{V} - \mathcal{V} + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{K}} (k \mathcal{V}_1 ... \mathcal{V}_{\text{arity}(k)})_\bot.
\]
\[ [x] \eta = \eta(x) \]
\[ [\lambda u. e] \eta = \lambda v. [e][u := v] \]
\[ [k \ M_1 \ldots \ M_n] \eta = \langle \underbrace{[[M_1]] \eta \ldots [[M_n]] \eta} \rangle, \quad \text{where } n = \text{arity}(k) \]
\[ [e : e'] \eta = \begin{cases} [e][\eta] \in \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} & \text{if } [e][\eta] \in \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} \text{ then } ([e][\eta])([e'][\eta]) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{W} \end{cases} \]
\[ \text{let } u = e \text{ in } e' \eta = [e'][\eta][u := [e] \eta] \]
\[ \text{inst } o : \sigma_T = e \text{ in } p \eta = \begin{cases} \begin{cases} p \eta[o := \text{extend}(T, [e][\eta], \eta(o))] \end{cases} & \text{if } \forall \eta \in \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} \text{ then } [p][\eta][o := \text{extend}(T, [e][\eta], \eta(o))] \end{cases} \]
\[ \text{else } \mathcal{W} \]

where
\[
\text{extend}(\langle \rangle, f, g) = \\
\lambda v. \text{if } v \in \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} \text{ then } f(v) \text{ else } g(v) \\
\text{extend}(D, f, g) = \\
\lambda v. \text{if } \exists k \in K_D \text{. } x \in k \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} \text{ then } f(v) \text{ else } g(v). \\
\text{arity}(k) \]

Figure 3: Semantics of terms.

Here, \((+)\) and \(\sum\) denote coalesced sums\(^1\) and \(\mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}\) is the continuous function space. The value \(\mathcal{W}\) denotes a type error — it is often pronounced “wrong”. We will show that the meaning of a well-typed program is always different from “wrong”.

The meaning function \([\ ]\) on terms is given in Figure 3. It takes as arguments a term and an environment \(\eta\) and yields an element of \(\mathcal{V}\), the environment \(\eta\) maps unique variables to arbitrary elements of \(\mathcal{V}\), and it maps overloaded variables to strict functions:
\[
\eta : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} \cup \mathcal{O} \rightarrow (\mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}).
\]
The notation \([\eta][x := v]\) stands for extension of the environment \(\eta\) by the binding of \(x\) to \(v\).

Note that our semantics is more “lazy” in detecting wrong terms than Milner’s semantics [Mil78]. Milner’s semantics always maps a function application \(f \mathcal{W}\) to \(\mathcal{W}\) whereas in our semantics \(f \mathcal{W} = \mathcal{W}\) only if \(f\) is strict. Our semantics correspond better to the dynamic type checking which in practice be performed when an argument is evaluated. We anticipate no change in our results if Milner’s stricter error checking is adopted.

We now give a meaning to types. We start with types that do not contain type variables, also called

monotypes. We use \(\mu\) to range over monotypes. Following [Mil78] and [MPS86], we let monotypes denote ideals. For our purposes, an ideal \(I\) is a set of values in \(\mathcal{V}\) which does not contain \(\mathcal{W}\), is downward-closed and is limit-closed. That is, \(y \in I\) whenever \(y \leq x\) and \(x \in I\), and \(\bigcup X \in I\) whenever \(x \in I\) for all elements \(x\) of the directed set \(X\).

The meaning function \([\ ]\) takes a monotype \(\mu\) to an ideal. It is defined as follows.
\[
[D \mu_1 \ldots \mu_n] = \\
\langle 1 \rangle \cup \{ k [\mu'_1] \ldots [\mu'_n] \mid 0 \vdash k : \mu'_1 \ldots \mu'_n \rightarrow D \mu_1 \ldots \mu_n \} \\
[\mu_1 \rightarrow \mu_2] = \\
\{ f \in \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} \mid \forall v \in [\mu_1] \Rightarrow f \in [\mu_2] \}.
\]

Proposition 3.1 Let \(\mu\) be a monotype. Then \([\mu]\) is an ideal.

**Proof:** A straightforward induction on the structure of \(\mu\). \(\square\)

When trying to extend the meaning function to type schemes we encounter the difficulty that instances of a constrained type scheme \(\forall \alpha. \pi_\alpha \Rightarrow \sigma\) depend on the overloaded instances in the environment. This is accounted for by indexing the meaning function for type schemes with an environment.

**Definition.** A monotype \(\mu\) is a semantic instance of a type scheme \(\sigma\) in an environment \(\eta\), written \(\eta \models \mu \leq \sigma\), if this can be derived from the two rules below.

\(\begin{align*}
(\text{a) } & \eta \models \mu \leq \mu. \\
(\text{b) } & \eta \models \mu \leq (\forall \alpha. \pi_\alpha \Rightarrow \sigma) \\
& \quad \text{if there is a monotype } \mu' \text{ such that } \eta \models \mu \leq [\mu' / \alpha] \sigma \text{ and } \eta(\alpha) \in [[\mu' / \alpha] \sigma], \text{ for all } \alpha : \tau \in \pi_\alpha.
\end{align*}\)

**Definition.** The meaning \([\sigma]_\eta\) of a closed type scheme \(\sigma\) is given by
\[
[[\sigma]]_\eta = \bigcap \{ [\mu] \mid \eta \models \mu \leq \sigma\}.
\]

**Definition.** \(\eta \models e_1 : \sigma_1, \ldots, e_n : \sigma_n\) iff 
\[\begin{cases}\[e_i][\eta] \in [\sigma_i]_\eta, \text{ for } i = 1, \ldots, n.\end{cases}\]

The meaning of type schemes is compatible with the meaning of types:

**Proposition 3.2** Let \(\mu\) be a monotype, and let \(\eta\) be an environment. Then \([\mu]_\eta = [\mu]_\epsilon\).

**Proof:** Direct from the definitions of \([\sigma]_\eta\) and \(\leq\). \(\square\)

We now show that type schemes denote ideals. The proof needs two facts about the bottom type \(\perp\).

---

\(^1\)Injection and projection functions for sums will generally be left implicit to avoid clutter.
Lemma 3.3 Let \( \eta \) be an environment.
(a) \( \eta \models o : \bot \rightarrow \mu \), for any variable \( o \), monotype \( \mu \).
(b) Let \( \sigma = \forall o_1. \pi_{o_1} \Rightarrow \ldots \forall o_n. \pi_{o_n} \Rightarrow \tau \) be a type scheme. Then \( \eta \models [\bot / o_1, \ldots, \bot / o_n] \tau \leq \sigma \).

Proof: (a) Assume \( \alpha \in [\bot] \). Since \( \bot \) does not have any constructors, \( [\bot] = \{ \bot \} \), hence \( \alpha = \bot \). Since \( \eta \models (o) \) is a strict function, \( \eta(o) = \bot \), which is an element of every monotype.
(b) Follows from the definition of \( \leq \) and (a). \( \Box \)

Proposition 3.4 Let \( \sigma \) be a type scheme and let \( \eta \) be an environment. Then \( [\sigma]_\eta \) is an ideal.

Proof: The closure properties are shown by straightforward inductions on the structure of \( \sigma \). It remains to show that \( \mathbf{W} \not\in [\sigma]_\eta \). By Lemma 3.3(b) there is a monotype \( \mu \) such that \( \eta \models \mu \leq \sigma \). Hence, \( [\sigma]_\eta \subseteq [\mu] \).

But \( [\mu] \) is an ideal and therefore does not contain \( \mathbf{W} \).\( \Box \)

Proposition 3.4 expresses an important property of our semantics: every type scheme is an ideal, even if it contains a type variable constraint \( o : a \rightarrow \tau \), where \( o \) does not have any explicitly declared instances at all. Consequently, there is no need to rule out such a type scheme statically. This corresponds to Haskell's "open world" approach to type-checking, as opposed to the "closed world" approach of e.g. [Smill]. Interestingly, the only thing that distinguishes those two approaches in the semantics of type schemes is the absence or presence of the bottom type \( \bot \).

We now show that System O is sound, i.e. that syntactic type judgements, \( \vdash p : \sigma \) are reflected by semantic type judgements, \( \models p : \sigma \).

Definition. Let \( \alpha \) be a term, let \( \models \) be a closed hypothesis, and let \( \sigma \) be a closed type scheme. Then, \( \models \alpha : \sigma \) iff, for all environments \( \eta, \models \eta \models \alpha \), implies \( \models \eta \models \alpha : \sigma \).

As a first step, we prove a soundness theorem for terms. This needs an auxiliary lemma, whose proof is straightforward.

Lemma 3.5 If \( \eta \models \alpha : \sigma \) and \( \eta \models \mu \leq \sigma \) then \( \models \eta \models \alpha : \mu \).

Theorem 3.6 (Type Soundness for Terms) Let \( \models \alpha : \sigma \) be a valid typing judgement and let \( S \) be a substitution such that \( S \alpha \) is a valid type. Then \( S \alpha \models \alpha : S \sigma \).

Proof: Assume \( \models \alpha : \sigma \) and \( \models S \alpha \models S \sigma \). We do an induction on the derivation of \( \models \alpha : \sigma \). We only show cases (VI), (VE), whose corresponding inference rules differ from the Hindley/Milner system. The proofs of the other rules are similar to the treatment in [Mil78].

Case (VI): Then the last step in the derivation is

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n \vdash \alpha : \sigma' \\
\vdash \tau_i : \alpha \\
\vdash \tau_i : \sigma' \\
\vdash \tau_i : \sigma'
\end{array}
\]

for some \( \alpha, \tau_i, \sigma', \sigma' \) with \( \tau_i = \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \). We have to show that \( \tau_i \in [\mu] \), for all \( \mu \) such that \( \eta \models \mu \leq \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \). Pick an arbitrary such \( \mu \). By definition of \( \leq \), there exists a \( \mu' \) such that \( \eta \models \mu' / o] \Rightarrow \sigma' \) and \( \eta \models \mu \leq [\mu' / o] \Rightarrow \sigma' \). Since \( \eta \models \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \), and therefore \( \eta \models \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \). Then \( \alpha \models \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \) and \( \eta \models \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \). It follows with Lemma 3.5 that \( \eta \models \alpha : \mu \).

Case (VE): Then the last step in the derivation is

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n \vdash \alpha : \sigma' \\
\vdash \tau_i : \alpha \Rightarrow \tau_i \Rightarrow \sigma' \\
\vdash \tau_i : \sigma' \\
\vdash \tau_i : \sigma'
\end{array}
\]

for some \( \alpha, \tau_i, \sigma', \sigma' \) with \( \tau_i = \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \). We have to show that \( \tau_i \in [\mu] \), for all \( \mu \) such that \( \eta \models \mu \leq \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \). Pick an arbitrary such \( \mu \). By the induction hypothesis, \( \eta \models \forall o. \pi_o \Rightarrow \sigma' \) and \( \eta \models [\sigma' / o] \Rightarrow \sigma' \). It follows with the definition of \( \leq \) that \( \eta \models \mu \leq [\sigma' / o] \Rightarrow \sigma' \).

Then by Lemma 3.5, \( \eta \models \alpha : \mu \). \( \Box \)

We now extend the type soundness theorem to whole programs that can contain instance declarations.

Theorem 3.7 (Type Soundness for Programs) Let \( \models p : \sigma \) be a valid closed typing judgement. Then \( \models p : \sigma \).

Proof: By induction on the structure of \( p \). If \( p \) is a term, the result follows from Theorem 3.6. Otherwise \( p \) is an instance declaration at top-level. Then the last step in the derivation of \( \models p : \sigma \) is

\[
\begin{array}{c}
o : \sigma \Rightarrow T \\
\vdash e : \sigma \Rightarrow T' \\
\vdash \text{inst } o : \sigma \Rightarrow e : \sigma'
\end{array}
\]

for some type scheme \( \sigma \). We have to show that \( \eta \models \text{inst } o : \sigma \Rightarrow e : \sigma' \). By Theorem 3.6, \( \eta \models e : \sigma \Rightarrow T', \) which implies that \( [e]_\eta \) is a function. Therefore, \( [\text{inst } o : \sigma]_\eta = [e]_\eta [o := f] \) where \( f = \text{extend}(T, [e]_\eta \eta, \eta(o)) \).

Our next step is to show that \( f \in [\sigma]_\eta \). Let \( \mu \) be such that \( \eta \models \mu \leq \sigma \). Then \( \mu = \forall o_1. \pi_{o_1} \Rightarrow \ldots \forall o_n. \pi_{o_n} \Rightarrow \mu' \), for some monotypes \( \pi_{o_1}, \ldots, \pi_{o_n}, \mu' \). Now assume that \( v \in [\text{inst } o : \sigma]_\eta \). Then \( v \in [\text{inst } o : \sigma]_\eta \). Otherwise, by the definition of extend, \( f = v \in [e]_\eta \eta v \) and \( [e]_\eta \eta v \in [\mu'] \). In both cases \( v \in [\mu'] \). Since \( v \in [\text{inst } o : \sigma]_\eta \) was arbitrary, we have \( f \in [\mu] \). Since \( \mu \) was arbitrary, this implies \( f \in [\sigma]_\eta \).
It follows that $\eta[o := f] \models o : \sigma_T$. Furthermore, since $\eta \models , \sigma_T$ contains the premise of rule (INST) no binding $o : \sigma_T$, we have that $\eta[o := f] \models , o : \sigma_T$. Taken together, $\eta[o := f] \models , o : \sigma_T$. By the induction hypothesis, $\eta[o := f] \models p' : \sigma$, which implies the proposition. ☐

A corollary of this theorem supports the slogan that "well typed programs do not go wrong".

**Corollary 3.8** Let $\vdash p : \sigma$ be a valid closed typing judgement and let $\eta$ be an environment. If $\eta \models , , \eta \models p$.

**Proof:** Immediate from Theorem 3.7 and Proposition 3.4. ☐

### 4 Translation

This section studies the "dictionary passing" transform from System O to the Hindley/Milner system. Its central idea is to convert a term of type $\forall a.\pi_a \Rightarrow \tau$ to a function that takes as arguments implementations of the overloaded variables in $\pi_a$. These arguments are also called "dictionaries".

The target language of the translation is the Hindley/Milner system, which is obtained from System O by eliminating overloaded variables $o_i$ instance declarations, and constraints $\pi_a$ in type schemes. The translation of terms is given in Figure 4. It is formulated as a function of type derivations, where we augment type judgements with an additional component $e^*$ that defines the translation of a term or program $p$, e.g., $\vdash p : \sigma \Rightarrow p^*$. To ensure the coherence of the translation, we assume that the overloaded identifiers $o_i$ in a type variable constraint $\{o_1 : a \rightarrow \tau_1, \ldots, o_n : a \rightarrow \tau_n\}$ are always ordered lexicographically.

Types and type schemes are translated as follows.

$$
\begin{align*}
\tau^* & = \tau \\
(\forall a.\epsilon \Rightarrow \sigma)^* & = \forall a.\sigma^* \\
(\forall a. o : a \rightarrow \tau, \pi_a \Rightarrow \sigma)^* & = \forall a.(a \rightarrow \tau) \rightarrow (\forall \pi_a \Rightarrow \sigma)^*
\end{align*}
$$

The last clause violates our type syntax in that a type scheme can be generated as the result part of an arrow. This is compensated by defining

$$
\tau \rightarrow \forall a.\sigma \overset{\text{def}}{=} \forall a.\tau \rightarrow \sigma.
$$

Bindings and type hypotheses are translated as follows.

$$
\begin{align*}
(u : \sigma)^* & = u : \sigma^* \\
(o : \sigma)^* & = u_{o,\sigma} : \sigma^* \\
o_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, o_n : \tau_n & = (o_1 : \sigma_1)^*, \ldots, (o_n : \sigma_n)^*.
\end{align*}
$$

This translates an overloaded variable $o$ to a new unique variable $u_o,\sigma$, whose identity depends on both the name $o$ and its type scheme, $\sigma$.

Each derivation rule $\vdash p : \sigma$ in System O corresponds to a derivation of translated hypotheses, terms and type schemes in the Hindley/Milner system. One therefore has:

**Proposition 4.1** If $\vdash p : \sigma \Rightarrow p^*$ is valid then $\vdash p^* : \sigma$ is valid in the Hindley/Milner system.

We believe that the translation preserves semantics in the following sense.

**Conjecture** Let $p$ be a program, $\mu$ be a monotype, and let $\eta$ be an environment. Let $\mu$, be a hypothesis which does not contain overloaded variables. If $\vdash p : \mu \Rightarrow p^*$ and $\eta \models , \eta \models p$, then $[\mu] \eta = [p^*] \eta$.

Although the above claim seems clearly correct, its formal proof is not trivial. Note that coherence of the translation would follow immediately from the above conjecture. Coherence, again, is a property that appears obvious but is notoriously tricky to demonstrate [Blo91, Jon92b], so it is perhaps not surprising that the above conjecture shares this property.

### 5 Relationship with Record Typing

In this section we study an extension of our type system with a simple polymorphic record calculus similar to Ohori’s [Oh92]. Figure 5 details the extended calculus. We add to System O

- record types $\{l_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \tau_n\}$,
- record expressions $\{l_1 = e_1, \ldots, l_n = e_n\}$, and
- selector functions $\# l$.

It would be easy to add record updates, as in the work of Ohori, but more difficult to handle record extension, as in the work of Wand [Wan87] or Remy [Rem89]. Updates are however omitted here for simplicity.

Leaving open for the moment the type of selector functions, the system presented so far corresponds roughly to the way records are defined in Standard ML. Selectors are treated in Standard ML as overloaded functions. As with all overloaded functions, the type of the argument of a selector has to be known statically; if it isn’t, an overloading resolution error results.

Our record extension also treats selectors as overloaded functions but uses the overloading concept of System O. The most general type scheme of a selector $\# l$ is

$$
\forall \beta. \forall a.(a \leq \{l : \beta\}) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow \beta.
$$

This says that $\# l$ can be applied to records that have a field $l : \tau$, in which case it will yield a value of type $\tau$. The type scheme uses a subtype constraint $a \leq \rho$. Subtype constraints are validated using the subtyping
rules in Figure 5. In all other respects, they behave just like overloading constraints $o : a \rightarrow \tau$.

**Example 5.1** The following program is typable in System O (where the typing of max is added for convenience).

let max : $\forall \beta.((\beta) : \beta \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \text{bool}) \Rightarrow \forall \alpha. (\alpha \leq \{\text{key} : \beta\}) \Rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$

$= \lambda x. \lambda y. \text{if} \#\text{key} x < \#\text{key} y \text{ then } x \text{ else } y$

in

$max \{\text{key} = 1, \text{data} = a\} \{\text{key} = 2, \text{data} = b\}$

In Standard ML, the same program would not be typable since neither the argument type of the selector #key nor the argument type of the overloaded function () are statically known.

Note that the bound variable in a subtype constraint can also appear in the constraining record type, as in

$\forall \alpha. (\alpha \leq \{l : \alpha \rightarrow \text{bool}\}) \Rightarrow [a]$

Hence, we have a limited form of F-bounded polymorphism [CCH+89] — limited since our calculus lacks the subsumption and contravariance rules often associated with bounded polymorphism [CW85]. It remains to be seen how suitable our system is for modeling object-oriented programming. Some recent developments in object-oriented programming languages seem to go in the same direction, by restricting subtyping to abstract classes [SOM93].

We now show that the record extension adds nothing essentially new to our language. We do this by presenting an encoding from System O with records to plain System O. The source of the encoding is a program with records, where we assume that the labels $l_1, \ldots, l_n$ of all record expressions $\{l_1 = e_1, \ldots, l_n = e_n\}$ in the source program are sorted lexicographically (if they are not, just rearrange fields). The details of the encoding are as follows.

1. Every record-field label $l$ in a program is represented by an overloaded variable, which is also called $l$.
2. For every record expression $\{l_1 = e_1, \ldots, l_n = e_n\}$ in a program, we add a fresh n-ary datatype $R_{l_1 \ldots l_n}$ with a constructor of the same name and selectors as given by the declaration

   $\text{data } R_{l_1 \ldots l_n} a_1 \ldots a_n = R_{l_1 \ldots l_n} a_1 \ldots a_n$.

3. For every datatype $R_{l_1 \ldots l_n}$ created in Step 2 and every label $l_i$ ($i = 1, \ldots, n$), we add an instance declaration

   $\text{inst } l_i : \forall \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_n. R_{l_1 \ldots l_n} a_1 \ldots a_n \rightarrow a_i$

   $= \lambda (R_{l_1 \ldots l_n} x_1 \ldots x_n). x_i$

   (where the pattern notation in the formal parameter is used for convenience).

4. A record expression $\{l_1 = e_1, \ldots, l_n = e_n\}$ now translates to $R_{l_1 \ldots l_n} e_1 \ldots e_n$.
5. A selector function $\#l$ translates to $l$.
6. A record type $\{l_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \tau_n\}$ is translated to $R_{l_1 \ldots l_n} \tau_1 \ldots \tau_n$.
7. A subtype constraint $\alpha \leq \{l_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \tau_n\}$ becomes an overloading constraint $l_1 : \alpha \rightarrow \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \alpha \rightarrow \tau_n$.

Let $\epsilon^\dagger$, $\sigma^\dagger$, or $\dagger$ be the result of applying this translation to a term $\epsilon$, a type scheme $\sigma$, or a hypothesis $\dagger$. Then one has:

**Proposition 5.2** $, \dagger \vdash \epsilon : \tau$ if $, \dagger \vdash \epsilon^\dagger : \tau^\dagger$. 
Additional Syntax

Field labels \( l \in \mathcal{L} \)
Terms \( \epsilon = \ldots \mid \#1 \mid \{ l_1 = \epsilon_1, \ldots, l_n = \epsilon_n \} \quad (n \geq 0) \)
Record types \( \rho = \{ l_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \tau_n \} \quad (n \geq 0, \text{with } l_1, \ldots, l_n \text{ distinct}) \)
Types \( \tau = \ldots \mid \rho \)
Constraints on \( \alpha \) \( \tau_\alpha = \ldots \mid \alpha \leq \rho \)
Hypotheses \( \gamma = \ldots \mid \alpha \leq \rho \)

Subtyping Rules

(Taut) \( , , \alpha \leq \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \leq \beta \)
\( \vdash \{ l_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \tau_n \} \leq \{ l_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \tau_n \} \quad (\text{Rec}) \)

Additional Typing Rules

(\{1\}) \( \vdash \epsilon_1 : \tau_1 \ldots \vdash \epsilon_n : \tau_n \)
\( \vdash \{ l_1 = \epsilon_1, \ldots, l_n = \epsilon_n \} : \{ l_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, l_n : \tau_n \} \quad (\{E\}) \)
\( \vdash \#1 : \forall \beta \forall \alpha \leq \{ \beta, \alpha \rightarrow \beta \} \)

Figure 5: Extension with record types.

Proposition 5.2 enables us to extend the type soundness and principal type properties of System O to its record extension without having to validate them again. It also points to an implementation scheme for records, given an implementation scheme for overloaded identifiers.

Example 5.3 The program of Example 5.1 translates to
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{inst } \text{data} & : \forall \alpha \forall \beta. R_{\text{data}/\text{key}} (\alpha \beta \rightarrow \alpha) \\
& = \lambda R_{\text{data}/\text{key}} x y. \text{in} \\
\text{inst } \text{key} & : \forall \alpha \forall \beta. R_{\text{data}/\text{key}} (\alpha \beta \rightarrow \beta) \\
& = \lambda R_{\text{data}/\text{key}} x y. \text{in} \\
\text{let } \text{max} & : \forall \beta. (\langle \beta \beta \rightarrow \text{bool} \rangle \Rightarrow \forall \alpha. (\alpha \beta \rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \\
& = \lambda x y. \text{if } \text{key } x < \text{key } y \text{ then } x \text{ else } y \\
& \text{in} \\
& \text{max} (R_{\text{data}/\text{key}} 1 a) (R_{\text{data}/\text{key}} 2 b)
\end{align*}
\]

6 Type Reconstruction

Figures 6 and 7 present type reconstruction and unification algorithm for System O. Compared to Milner’s algorithm W [Mil78] there are two extensions.

- In the unification algorithm, before binding a type variable \( \alpha \) to a type \( \tau \) it must be ensured that the constraints given by \( \gamma, \alpha \) can be satisfied by \( \tau \). This is accomplished by function \( \text{mkinst} \) in Figure 6.

- The function \( \text{tp} \) is extended with a branch for instance declarations \( \text{inst } \alpha : \sigma_T = \epsilon \) in \( p \). In this case it must be checked that the inferred type \( \sigma_T' \) for the overloading term \( \epsilon \) is at least as general as the given type \( \sigma_T \).

We now state soundness and completeness results for the algorithms \( \text{unify} \) and \( \text{tp} \). The proofs of these results are along the lines of [Che94]; they are omitted here.

We use the following abbreviations:
\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha, & \quad \{ \alpha : \alpha \rightarrow \tau \mid \alpha : \alpha \rightarrow \tau \in \} \\
\alpha, & \quad \cup \{ \alpha \in A \mid \alpha \}
\end{align*}
\]
where \( A \) is a set of type variables.

Definition. A configuration is a pair of a hypothesis \( \gamma \) and a substitution \( S \) such that, for all \( \alpha \in \text{dom}(S) \), \( \alpha, \alpha = \emptyset \).

Definition. The following defines a preorder \( \preceq \) between substitutions and configurations and a preorder \( \equiv \) on type schemes. If \( X \preceq Y \) we say that \( Y \) is more general than \( X \).

- \( S' \preceq S \) iff there is a substitution \( R \) such that \( S' = R \circ S \).
- \( (\epsilon, S') \preceq (\epsilon, S) \) iff \( S' \preceq S \) and \( \epsilon, \epsilon, \epsilon \).
- \( \equiv \) succeeds to \( \preceq \) under \( \lambda \text{dom}(\cdot) \).
- \( \sigma' \equiv \sigma \) iff, for all \( u \in \text{dom}(\sigma') \), \( u : \sigma \) implies \( u : \sigma' \).

Definition. A constrained unification problem is a pair of tuples \((\tau_1, \tau_2), (\epsilon, S)\) where \( \tau_1, \tau_2 \) are types and \((\epsilon, S)\) is a configuration.

A configuration \((\epsilon, S')\) is a unifying configuration for \((\tau_1, \tau_2), (\epsilon, S)\) iff \((\epsilon, S') \preceq (\epsilon, S)\) and \( S' \equiv S' \tau_2 \).
unify : (τ, τ) → (S, S) → (S, S)
unify((τ₁, τ₂),(S₁, S₂)) = case (S₁ τ₁, S₂ τ₂) of
  (a, α) ⇒
  (S, S)
  (α, τ), (τ, a) where a ∉ tv(τ) ⇒
  foldr mkind((, α), [τ/α] ◦ S), a
      (T(τ₁, T(τ₂)) ⇒
  foldr unify(S, S)(zip(τ₁, τ₂)))

mkind : (ο : a → τ) → (S, S) → (S, S)
mkind(ο : a → τ)(S₁, S₂) = case S of
  β ⇒
  if ∃ο : β → τ′ ∈ ,
  then unify(τ, τ′)(S₁, S₂)
  else (S ⊔ {ο : β → [β/a]τ}, S)
T τ₁ ... τₙ ⇒
case {newinst(σₜ₁, , S) | o : σₜ ∈ ,} of
  {(σ₁, 1, S₁)} ⇒ unify(a → τ₁), (1, 1, S₁)

Figure 6: Algorithm for constrained unification

The unifying configuration (', S') is most general iff (', S') ⊏ (', S'), for every other unifying configuration (', S').

Definition. A typing problem is a triple (p, , S) where (, S) is a configuration and p is a term or program with fvs(p) ⊆ dom(τ).

A typing solution of a typing problem (p, , S) is a triple (σ, , S') where (', S') ⊏ (, S) and S' ⊏ p : S'σ.

The typing solution (σ, , S') is most general if for every other typing solution (σ'', , S'') it holds (', S'') ⊏ (', S') and S'' ⊏ p : S''σ.

Theorem 6.1 Let (τ₁, τ₂)(, S) be a constrained unification problem
(a) If unify(τ₁, τ₂)(, S) = (', S') and (', S') is a most general unifying configuration for (τ₁, τ₂)(, S).
(b) If unify(τ₁, τ₂)(, S) fails then there exists no unifying configuration for (τ₁, τ₂)(, S).

Theorem 6.2 Let (p, , S) be a typing problem.
(a) If tp(p, , S) = (σ', , S') then (σ', , S') is a most general solution of (p, , S).
(b) If tp(p, , S) fails then (p, , S) has no solution.

As a corollary of Theorem 6.2, we get that every typable program has a principal type, which is found by tp.

Corollary 6.3 (Principal Types) Let (p, , id) be a typing problem such that tv(τ₁) = ∅.
(a) Assume gen(tp(p, , id)) = (σ', , S) and let σ = Sσ'. Then
  , ⊢ p : σ
  , ⊢ p : σ'' ⇒ σ'' ⊏_τ σ, for all type schemes σ''.
(b) If tp(p, , id) fails then there is no type scheme σ such that , ⊢ p : σ.

The termination of unify and mkind critically depends on the form of overloaded type schemes σₜ:

σₜ = T a₁ ... aₚ → τ (tv(τ) ⊆ {a₁, ..., aₚ})
| ∀ο.σ₀ ⇒ σₜ₀ (tv(σ₀) ⊆ tv(σₜ₀)).

We show with an example why σₜ needs to be parametric in the arguments of T. Consider the following program, where k ∈ Kₚ.

p = let (;) x y = y in
  inst o ∀α.α : α → α ⇒ T(αa) → α
  = λk x. o x
  in λx.λy.λf. o x o y ; f (k y) ; fx

Then computation of tp(p, , id) leads to a call

tp(f x₁, , S) with x : a₁, f : T β → δ ∈ ,. This leads in turn to a call unify(a₁, T β)(, S) where the following assumptions hold:

• σₜ = ∀α.o : α → α ⇒ T(αa) → α
• o ⊑ {o : α → α, o : β → β, o : σₜ},
• S is a substitution with α, β ⊏ dom(S).

Unfolding unify gives mkind(o : α → a)(, [τ₁, α, S']) where S' = [T β/α] ◦ S, which leads in turn to the following two calls:

1. newinst(σₜ₁, , S) = (T(γy) → γ, , S')
   where γ ⊑ {o : β → γ, o : σₜ}, γ is a fresh type variable, and

2. unify(a → T γy), (γ, , S').

Since S'a = T β, unfolding of (2) results in an attempt to unify T β and T(γy), which leads to the call unify(T β, T(γy))(, , S'). This is equivalent to the original call unify(a₁, T β)(, S) modulo renaming of α, β to β, γ. Hence, unify would loop in this situation.

The need for the other restrictions on σₜ is shown by similar constructions. It remains to be seen whether a more general system is feasible that lifts these restrictions, e.g. by extending unification to regular trees [Kae92].

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We have shown that a rather modest extension to the Hindley/Milner system is enough to support both overloading and polymorphic records with a limited form of F-bounded polymorphism. The resulting system stays firmly in the tradition of ML typing, with type soundness and principal type properties completely analogous to the Hindley/Milner system.

The encoding of a polymorphic record calculus in System O indicates that there might be some deeper relationships between F-bounded polymorphism and overloading. This is also suggested by the similarities between the dictionary transform for type classes and the Penn translation for bounded polymorphism [BRTC891]. A study of these relationships remains a topic for future work.

Acknowledgments We are grateful to Kung Chen and John Maraist for valuable comments on previous drafts of this paper. The section on records was motivated in part by a discussion led by Simon Peyton Jones, Mark Jones and others on the Haskell mailing list. Many other discussions with numerous participants have also contributed to this work.

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