COMP3161/COMP9161 Supplementary Lecture Notes

Parametric Polymorphism

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Polymorphism is a prominent part of most modern programming languages. It allows some form of *generic* programming, where values of *different types* can be manipulated by the *same function*.

Parametric polymorphism, sometimes called *generics* in OO languages, is the simplest form of polymorphism¹, where a function can declared to operate over any type at all. For example, suppose we had a swap function:

swap
$$x, y = (y, x)$$

What would the type of this function be? In a monomorphic language like MinHS, we couldn't write this function generically. We would have to have a variety of functions, swapBI: Bool × Int \rightarrow Int × Bool, swapIB: Int × Bool \rightarrow Bool × Int, and so on - a total of T^2 functions where T is the number of types in the language². This is obviously highly impractical, seeing as all these functions have the same implementation. What we want is to express a type swap: $\alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \beta \times \alpha$ for all types α and β . That is what parametric polymorphism gives us.

1 Type Parameters

Currently, all functions in MinHS take some values of a concrete type, and return a value of a concrete type. Sometimes in literature, these functions from values to values are represented as $\lambda(x:\tau)$. y, where τ is the type of the argument. In MinHs, we write letfun $(f:\tau\to\tau')$ x=y, annotating the function name with a type. This has the advantage that both the argument type τ and the result type τ' are visible.

A function that constructs a pair of two integers could be written with this notation as follows:

$$mkIntIntPair = (\lambda(x : Int), (\lambda(y : Int), Pair x y))$$

This function takes an argument x of type Int, and returns a function, which, given a y of type Int, will produce a pair of x and y. This nesting of functions is how we achieve n-ary functions in Haskell and similar languages, and is called currying.

In order to get parametric polymorphism, we extend functions slightly. In addition to having functions from values to values, like above, we include functions from types to values, usually written like $\Lambda \tau$. v. These uppercase- Λ binders introduce type variables, usually written with greek letters, which can be used in type signatures for values wherever it is in scope. For example, a generic mkPair function could be written like this:

$$\mathtt{mkPair} = \Lambda \alpha. \ \Lambda \beta. \ \lambda(x:\alpha). \ \lambda(y:\beta). \ \mathtt{Pair} \ x \ y$$

Applying a type to one of these generic functions is called *specialising*, and is written a variety of ways in the literature, including mkPair@Int@Int, mkPair [Int] [Int] or mkPair {Int} {Int}. As a result of the application to the type we get a monomorphic function: here, a pair-function which only works on integers.

Universal Quantification

To give a type to our new $\Lambda \tau$. e form, and thus to our mkPair function, we need to reflect the type variables introduced by the Λ on to the type level, where they are introduced by the universal quantifier, \forall :

¹And yet, it remains one of the worst-implemented features of all time in C++, and it simply doesn't exist in Go

²Since we have products and sums, $T = \infty$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \quad \alpha \notin FV(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash \Lambda \tau. \ e : \forall \alpha. \ \tau}$$

This generalisation rule allows us to provide a type to our mkPair function.

$$\frac{x:\alpha;y:\beta \vdash x:\alpha \quad x:\alpha;y:\beta \vdash y:\beta}{x:\alpha;y:\beta \vdash \operatorname{Pair} x \ y:\alpha \times \beta} \\ \frac{x:\alpha;y:\beta \vdash \operatorname{Pair} x \ y:\alpha \times \beta}{x:\alpha \vdash \lambda(y:\beta). \ \operatorname{Pair} x \ y:\beta \to \alpha \times \beta} \\ \frac{\vdash \lambda(x:\alpha). \ \lambda(y:\beta). \ \operatorname{Pair} x \ y:\alpha \to \beta \to \alpha \times \beta}{\vdash \Lambda\beta. \ \lambda(x:\alpha). \ \lambda(y:\beta). \ \operatorname{Pair} x \ y:\forall \beta. \ \alpha \to \beta \to \alpha \times \beta} \\ \vdash \Lambda\alpha. \ \Lambda\beta. \ \lambda(x:\alpha). \ \lambda(y:\beta). \ \operatorname{Pair} x \ y:\forall \alpha. \ \forall \beta. \ \alpha \to \beta \to \alpha \times \beta}$$

To type the application of our mkPair function, we need a type for the specialisation form, $e@\tau$

$$\frac{e: \forall \alpha. \tau'}{e@\tau: \tau'[\alpha:=\tau]}$$

This states that we can substitute the type variable α in the type for e with the type after the @ and get a well-typed result. Now we can type a term like mkPair@Int@Bool 3 True:

$$\frac{ \cdots \vdash \mathsf{mkPair} : \forall \alpha \beta. \ \alpha \to \beta \to \alpha \times \beta}{ \cdots \vdash \mathsf{mkPair} @ \mathsf{Int} : \forall \beta. \ \mathsf{Int} \to \beta \to \mathsf{Int} \times \beta} \\ \\ \hline \cdots \vdash \mathsf{mkPair} @ \mathsf{Int} @ \mathsf{Bool} : \mathsf{Int} \to \mathsf{Bool} \to \mathsf{Int} \times \mathsf{Bool} \\ \hline \cdots \vdash \mathsf{mkPair} @ \mathsf{Int} @ \mathsf{Bool} \ 3 : \mathsf{Bool} \to \mathsf{Int} \times \mathsf{Bool} \\ \hline \cdots \vdash \mathsf{mkPair} @ \mathsf{Int} @ \mathsf{Bool} \ 3 \ \mathsf{True} : \mathsf{Int} \times \mathsf{Bool} \\ \hline \\ \end{array}$$

This lets us define functions that are *generic* over their arguments, as required, so now let us examine what extensions we need to add to MinHS to make parametric polymorphism possible in MinHS programs.

2 Applying to MinHS

2.1 New Syntax

We introduce two new forms of expression syntax: type α in e for type abstraction, which corresponds to the $\Lambda \alpha$. e notation from earlier, and Inst e τ for the type instantiation of polymorphic functions, which is analogous to type application e@ τ .

We also extend type syntax with the universal quantifier Forall a. τ and type variables a, b, etc. This means our static semantics must ensure that types are well formed – that all type variables have an accompanying quantifier. We achieve by keeping track of the variables bound in a quantifier in the set Δ . The predicate OkP defines a superset of Ok which includes types with \forall -quantifiers.

For example, the type Forall a. $a \to b$ would not be a valid polymorphic type, since it contains the free type variable b, but Forall a. Forall b. $a \to b$ is fine. Also, the type Forall a. \to Forall a. a is not in OkP, even though it doesn't have any free variables, since it has internal quantifiers.

2.2 Typing Rules

The typing rules for Type α in e are the same as the typing rules for $\Lambda \alpha$. e:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \quad \alpha \notin FV(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{Type} \ \tau \ \mathsf{in} \ e : \forall \alpha. \ \tau}$$

Similarly for Inst $e \tau$ and $e@\tau$ respectively:

$$\frac{e:\forall \alpha.\tau'}{\mathtt{Inst}\; e\; \tau:\tau'[\alpha:=\tau]}$$

2.3 Prenex Restriction

Note that the well-formedness rules for types have been split into two judgements, Ok and OkP, where polymorphic types are always in OkP. This means that τ Ok implies that τ is a monotype. Furthermore, due to the rules defining OkP, we have restricted the Forall form to the outermost part of a type expression. This means that polymorphic functions are not first class – it is impossible to, for example, type a binding like this:

$$f:: (\forall \alpha \beta. \alpha \to \beta) \to \mathtt{Int} \to \mathtt{Bool})$$

 $f \ x \ i = (\mathtt{Inst} \ (\mathtt{Inst} \ x \ \mathtt{Int}) \ \mathtt{Bool}) \ i$

Even though a valid typing derivation can be produced for it. This is because our type-wellformedness rules preclude the possibility of higher-rank polymorphism, where quantifiers like \forall can be nested inside other types. There is no reason for this in the explicitly-typed MinHS we have described above, however incorporating higher-rank polymorphism into an implicitly typed language with type inference becomes very difficult.