Bidirectional polymorphism through greed and unions

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Abstract
Bidirectional typechecking has become popular in advanced type systems because it works in many situations where inference is undecidable. In this paper, I show how to cleanly handle parametric polymorphism in a bidirectional setting, even in the presence of subtyping. The first contribution is a bidirectional type system that supports first-class (higher-rank and impredicative) polymorphism but is complete for predicative polymorphism (including ML-style polymorphism and higher-rank polymorphism). This power comes from bidirectionality combined with a "greedy" method of finding polymorphic instances inspired by Cardelli’s early work on System F_β. The second contribution adds subtyping; combining bidirectional typechecking with intersection and union types fortuitously yields a simple but rather powerful system. Finally, I present a more powerful algorithm that forms intersections and unions automatically. This paper demonstrates that bidirectionality is a strong foundation for traditionally vexing features like first-class polymorphism and subtyping.

1. Introduction
To check programs in advanced type systems, it is often useful to split the traditional typing judgment \( e : A \) into two forms, \( e \uparrow A \) read "\( e \) synthesizes type \( A \)" and \( e \downarrow A \) read "\( e \) checks against type \( A \)." This technique has been used for dependent types (Coquand 1996; Nori 2007; Abel et al. 2008; Löh et al. 2008); subtyping (Pierce and Turner 2000; Odersky et al. 2001); intersection, union, indexed and refinement types (Xu 1998; Davies and Pfenning 2000; Dunfield and Pfenning 2004); termination checking (Abel 2004); higher-rank polymorphism (Peyton Jones et al. 2007); refinement types for LF (Lovas and Pfenning 2004); contextual modal types (Pientka 2008; Pientka and Dunfield 2008); and compiler intermediate representations (Chipala et al. 2005).

Bidirectional typechecking is necessary because annotation-free type inference, which works well for the lambda calculus with prenex polymorphism, becomes difficult (if not undecidable) when we add first-class polymorphism, subtyping, intersection types, and so forth. Bidirectional typechecking is nice because reports of type errors are better localized, which is useful even when type inference is feasible.

In earlier work, we gave a concise recipe for bidirectional typechecking (Dunfield and Pfenning 2004). But we left out a vital feature: parametric polymorphism. So what are the proper bidirectional introduction and elimination rules for parametric polymorphism? It turns out that the introduction rule is easy, but the elimination rule is hard. For example, if we have a polymorphic function \( f : \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \), to find the right instantiation of \( \alpha \) in the application \( f \times y \) we must look at \( x \)'s type (and, for certain mixes of type system features, \( y \)'s type as well). Clearly, we do not know how to instantiate \( \alpha \) from the term \( f \) alone.

How can we find polymorphic instances in a bidirectional type system that is simple to formulate, implement, and use—without a heavy type annotation burden? I adapt an idea of Cardelli (1993), greed: the first constraint on a type variable determines the instantiation. For \( f \times y \), this means \( \alpha \) is determined by the type of \( x \).

In this paper, I show how to use a "greedy method" to find polymorphic instances in System F (Girard 1986; Reynolds 1974), where polymorphism is first-class (higher-rank and impredicative). This yields a remarkably simple algorithm that is complete for predicative polymorphism (including ML-style prenex polymorphism). That is, if a typing derivation exists that instantiates type variables at monomorphic types, the user gives no more information than the annotations already present if there were no polymorphism. The algorithm handles some uses of impredicative polymorphism (where type variables are instantiated with polymorphic types) without extra help; for the rest, I provide a versatile "hint" mechanism.

I then show how to use intersection and union types to extend the method to systems with subtyping. Cardelli devised his greedy method for such systems, but without intersections and unions the method is weak: to find the instance of \( \alpha \) for \( f \times y \) under subtyping, considering \( x \) alone may not suffice. Suppose \( x : A \) and \( y : B \) where \( A \) is a proper subtype of \( B \). The first term visited (after \( f \)) is \( x \), so we greedily take \( A \) as the instance of \( \alpha \). But \( y \) does not check against \( A \), and typechecking fails. However, with union types the user can split \( \alpha \) into two type variables, rewriting the type as

\[
f : \forall \alpha_1, \alpha_2. \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_2 \rightarrow (\alpha_1 \vee \alpha_2)
\]

Now, in \( f \times y \) where \( x : A \) and \( y : B \), the variables \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \alpha_2 \) will be instantiated separately to \( A \) and \( B \) respectively, and the union of \( A \) and \( B \) is synthesized as the type of \( f \times y \). Alternatively, we can automatically "unionize" \( \alpha \), reducing the user’s burden.

Taken together, these systems demonstrate that first-class polymorphism and subtyping, while tricky with type inference, are manageable in a bidirectional typechecking approach. Rather than starting with Damas-Milner inference, perhaps eventually trying to glue on some bidirectionality for the season's latest type features, we get simplicity and power by making things bidirectional from the ground up.

I will begin by giving a point of reference: a bidirectional type system that assumes polymorphic instances are found magically (Section 2). Next, I explain in Section 3 a decidable version of that system (inspired by Cardelli's greedy algorithm), and show that it is complete, with respect to the Section 2 system, for typing derivations that use only predicative polymorphism. Section 4

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Type variables $\alpha, \beta$

Atomic types $\text{A}_{\text{atomic}} := \text{I} | \alpha | \forall \alpha. \text{A} \ 

Types $\text{A}, \text{B}, \text{C} := \text{A}_{\text{atomic}} | \text{A} \to \text{B}$

Contexts $\Gamma := \cdot | \Gamma, x: \text{A} | \Gamma, \alpha$

Matches $\text{ms} := \cdot | c(x) \Rightarrow e \ | \text{ms}$

Annotations $\text{N} := (\Gamma \vdash \text{A})$

Terms $e := x | \hat{O} | \lambda x. e | e_1 e_2 | e(c) | (\text{case } e \text{ of } ms | e : \text{N})$

Values $v := x | \hat{O} | \lambda x. e | (c : v) | (v : \text{N})$

Evaluation contexts $\mathcal{E} := [] | (\begin{array}{|l} \mathcal{E} | e \ | \mathcal{E}(c)(\mathcal{E}) \end{array})$

$e' \Rightarrow_R e''$ $(\lambda x. e) v \Rightarrow_R [v/x] e$

$\mathcal{E}[e'] \Rightarrow \mathcal{E}[e'']$ case $c(v) \Rightarrow \ldots c(x) \Rightarrow e \ldots [v/x] e$

Figure 1: Grammar and operational semantics for System Bi

adds “real” subtyping, intersection types, and union types to the “magical” system, which Section 5 makes decidable. Section 6 describes its implementation. Finally, Section 7 presents an extension that automatically constructs intersections and unions within polymorphic instances where necessary, which is very helpful in certain situations.

2. System Bi

System Bi is a very simple bidirectional type system with first-class polymorphism. System Bi does not touch the problem of finding polymorphic instances; that is left to System Bi$^\omega$ (“bi ex”), described in the next section. But it is a good reference point for proving things about System Bi$^\omega$.

Figure 1 gives the syntax of terms, types, etc. For simplicity, we omit some constructs such as fixed point recursion fix $u. e$, which is easy to handle as in previous work (Dunfield and Pfenning 2004).

We also gloss over datatypes $\text{A} \delta$ where $\delta$ is the name of an $n$-argument inductive datatype and $\text{A}$ is a sequence of $n$ types. For example, given a base type int and the one-argument datatype list, we can write int list. Term-level data constructors have constructor type $\text{A}_{\text{dm}} = \text{B} \to \hat{\alpha} \delta$—no GADTs here. Datatypes are not particularly interesting in System Bi; we will give the syntax of case arms (matches ms) and constructors c(e), omit details such as typing rules for case expressions.

The operational semantics (defined under type erasure) is straightforward, making use of evaluation contexts; $\mathcal{E}[e']$ is a term with $e'$ in evaluation position.

Figure 2 has the rules for well-formedness of types and contexts. In general, we assume every context we write is well-formed, but tend to explicitly say when individual types are well-formed.

The bidirectional typing judgments are $\Gamma \vdash e : \text{A}$, read “$e$ synthesizes $\text{A}$”, and $\Gamma \vdash e \perp \text{B}$, read “$e$ checks against $\text{B}$”. (The arrows correspond to the flow of type information in an abstract syntax tree representation of $e$.) Figure 2 gives the typing rules. Introduction and elimination rules follow the pattern we introduced (Dunfield and Pfenning 2004): the conclusion of an introduction rule is checked against a given type, and the premise of an elimination rule—where the type being eliminated appears—synthesizes a type. This yields the smallest sensible set of rules, and means that annotations are needed only on redexes (including declarations of recursive functions).

The rule sub expresses a subsumption principle: if $e$ synthesizes a type $\text{A}$ that is at least as polymorphic as $\text{B}$—the known type that $e$ is being checked against—then an $\text{A}$ can be used where a $\text{B}$ is expected. For example, a function of type $\forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha$ can be passed to a function expecting $\text{int} \to \text{int}$. We write this limited form of subtyping as $\Gamma \vdash \text{A} \leq \text{B}$.

The rule anno is read as “if $N = (\Gamma' \vdash A')$ matches the typing $\Gamma \vdash \text{A}$ and $e$ checks against $A$, then $(e : (\Gamma' \vdash A'))$ checks against $A'$. The matching relation $\prec$ handles the renaming between $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma'$, and between $A$ and $A'$. These contextual annotations are discussed below.

$\forall$ introduces a universal quantifier—with a value restriction, since my primary goal is a foundation for call-by-value languages with side effects. $\forall$ is an “oracular” elimination rule; it assumes someone has revealed to us the instance $A'$. Of course this is not practical—and, indeed, it begs the question that we want to answer—and we will address this in System Bi$^\omega$.

Figure 3 gives the rules for the limited subtyping used by the rule sub. We continue to omit the rules for datatypes, and further assume that all polymorphic datatypes are covariant. In the rule $\forall L \leq A$, we write $[A/\alpha]A$ to mean the substitution of $A'$ for $\alpha$ in the type $A$. Following Dunfield and Pfenning (2003) this avoids the need for a term-level binder for type variables. The rule anno is read as “if $N = (\Gamma' \vdash A')$ matches the typing $\Gamma \vdash \text{A}$ and $e$ checks against $A$, then $(e : (\Gamma' \vdash A'))$ checks against $A'$. The matching relation $\prec$ handles the renaming between $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma'$, and between $A$ and $A'$. These contextual annotations are discussed below.

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∀ 3. System Bi

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2. Show that every derivation in System Bi has a corresponding
derivation in the type assignment system.

3. Prove a type safety theorem for the type assignment system.

For Step 1, drop anno and change all “φ” and “∥” symbols to “;”. Step 2 consists of erasing annotations and removing applications of
anno, following Dunfield and Pfennig (2004).

We defer discussion of Step 3 until we discuss System Bi≤, which has richer subtyping, intersections, and unions. That examination will also apply to System Bi.

3. System Bi≥: Explicit Existential Variables

In this section, we will add to System Bi existential variables that
represent unsolved polymorphic instances, yielding System Bi≥ ("bi ex"). After extending the syntax, we explain the typing and
subtyping rules, discuss the hint construct, and then prove (with respect to System Bi) soundness and a limited form of completeness.

Types A ::= ... | α

Contexts Γ, Ω ::= ... | Γ, α | Γ, β → A | Γ, β ... |

Terms e ::= ... | hint(Γ′ ⊢ A′) in e

We write α, β, and so on for existential type variables, created in situations corresponding to the ∀E and ∀L≤ rules of System Bi. We create α by adding α to the context Γ. When the system finds a solution (e.g. when trying to derive α ⊢ A) the declaration α is re-

\[ \Gamma \vdash e \downarrow A \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash e \uparrow A \]
\[ \Gamma(x) = A \quad \text{var} \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash x \downarrow A \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash e \uparrow A \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash e \downarrow B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash e \uparrow B \]
\[ N \subseteq (\Gamma \vdash A) \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash e \downarrow A \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash (e : N) \uparrow A \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash () \downarrow I \]
\[ \Gamma, \alpha \vdash e \downarrow B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \alpha \downarrow A \rightarrow B \]
\[ \Gamma, \alpha \vdash \nu \downarrow A \]
\[ \Gamma, \alpha \vdash \nu \downarrow \forall \alpha. A \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash A \leq B \]
\[ A \text{ is at least as polymorphic as } B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash B_1 \leq A_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash A_2 \leq B_2 \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash A_1 \rightarrow A_2 \leq B_1 \rightarrow B_2 \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \alpha. A \leq B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash A \leq B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash [A'/\alpha]A \leq B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \alpha. A \leq B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash [A'/\alpha]A \leq B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \alpha. A \leq B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. B \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. \leq \alpha \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. \leq \alpha \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. \leq \alpha \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. \leq \alpha \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. \leq \alpha \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \forall \beta. \leq \alpha \]

\[
\text{Figure 3: Typing and subtyping in System Bi}
\]

placed by α=A, indicating that the solution of α is A. Contexts are
ordered: the position of the declaration α specifies which variables can appear in a solution: in the context Γ, α=A, β=B the solution
type A must be well-formed under Γ, without using anything declared in Γ2. This prevents circularity, and allows rules like VI that add non-existential declarations to remove them without making dangling references. Similarly, α, β is well-formed because α is declared before x, α.

Since the rules need to add and replace things in Γ, we modify judgment forms like Γ ⊢ e ⊢ C:

\[ \Gamma \vdash e \downarrow C \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e \uparrow C \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash A \leq B \]

The output context Γ' is like Γ but may have more information, containing new α and α=A elements, and various β values replaced by β=B elements. (I chose ⊢ to suggest the fact that Γ and Γ' are equivalent in a declarative sense: if all the α, α=A, hint(…) declarations are dropped from Γ and Γ', those contexts are equal.)

A context Γ is well-formed. Γ ⊢ Γ', if each variable occurs
once in its domain (defined below) and each type in Γ is well-
formed under the declarations to its left.

Definition 1 (Domain of Γ). The domain dom(Γ) of a context Γ is:

\[ \text{dom}(\cdot) = \emptyset \]

\[ \text{dom}(\Gamma, x : A) = \text{dom}(\Gamma, A) \]

\[ \text{dom}(\Gamma, \alpha) = \text{dom}(\Gamma, A) \]

\[ \text{dom}(\Gamma, A) = \text{dom}(\Gamma) \]

\[ \text{dom}(\Gamma, hint(\Gamma')) = \text{dom}(\Gamma) \]

To prove properties of System Bi≥ it will be useful to view
existentia contexts as iterated substitutions, so that

\[ [\alpha = A, \beta = \alpha \rightarrow \beta] = A ightarrow A \]

The context is applied from the right, so first α replaces β, giving
α → β, and then A replaces α, yielding A → A.

We only apply contexts that complete the context in which the
type lives, so all existential variables disappear: given α → β, well-
formed in the context β = α, applying β → α, α → β yields 1 → 1. To apply a context Ω to another context Γ, the contexts must be the same except for Γ having more unsolved variables (and ignoring hints in both):.

\[
\begin{aligned}
[\cdot] \quad &= \cdot \\
[\Omega, x : A] &\quad = [\Omega, x : \Omega] \\
[\Omega, \alpha : A] &\quad = [\Omega, \alpha : A] \\
[\Omega, \alpha = A] &\quad = [\Omega] \\
[\Omega, \alpha = A] &\quad = [\Omega, \alpha = A] \\
[\Omega, \text{hint}(\Gamma') &\quad = [\Omega] \\
[\Omega, \text{hint}(\Gamma') &\quad = [\Omega] \\
\end{aligned}
\]

Definition 2 (Solved contexts). A context Γ is solved if it contains
no unsolved existentials α.
Figure 5: Typing derivations for `filter f xs` in System Bi, above, and System Bi\textsuperscript{α}, below.

Definition 3. We write $Γ \subseteq Ω$ if (1) each declaration in $Γ$ is either in $Ω$ or its solution is (e.g. $α$ is in $Γ$ while $x=α$ is in $Ω$), and (2) if two declarations appear in $Γ$ they appear in the same order in $Ω$.

Definition 4 (Completion of contexts). A context $Ω$ completes a context $Γ$ iff $\text{dom}(Ω) = \text{dom}(Γ)$ and $Γ \subseteq Ω$ and $Ω$ is solved.

How these existential contexts behave is best shown with an example. Suppose that $Γ(f) = int → bool$. At the top of Figure 5 there is a derivation in System Bi, which “guesses” $x = int$.

At the bottom of the figure is a derivation in System Bi\textsuperscript{α}. It has three interesting parts; the names of the involved rules are shaded, along with changes in the existential context. Towards the left we apply $∀E$, adding an unsolved existential $α$ to the output context. Along the upper right is a use of $α \rightarrow L \subseteq$, which expresses the essence of the greedy method: if we need to satisfy $α \subseteq B$, take $B$ as the solution. In this example, $B$ is int. The premise of $α \rightarrow L \subseteq$ checks that the solution is well-formed in the context to the left of $α$ in $Γ$, $\tilde{α}$.

Existential contexts flow “in-order”, starting in the conclusion on the left of the $∀$, up to the first premise (left of the $∀$), into the first premise’s derivation, then back into the first premise itself (right of the $∀$), over to the second premise (left of the $∀$), etc., and finally back to the conclusion on the right of the $∀$.

Finally, while omitted from the figure, within the subderivation of $Γ, \text{α}=\text{int} ⊢ \text{xs} \vdash \tilde{α} \text{list} \vdash Γ, \text{α}=\text{int}$ we would apply a rule to replace $\tilde{α}$ with $\text{int}$; this is not done implicitly.

3.1 Hints

We could have an explicit instantiation construct $e[A/\\cdot]$, such that if $e \vdash ∀x.A$, then $e[A/\\cdot] \vdash [A/x]A$. In effect, this gives an explicit version of $∀E$. But we also have the subtyping rule $∀L \subseteq$, which can be used on a deeply nested quantifier—and then where would we put the $[A/x]$? We might write a type annotation $e : [A/x]/A$, but this is verbose when the type $A$ is long.

So, instead of a construct that only works with $∀E$, we add one that lets the user suggest an instance for $∀E$ or $∀L \subseteq$. The syntax is

$$\text{hint } \Gamma \vdash A' \text{ in } e$$

When encountered, the typing $\Gamma \vdash A'$ is put in $Γ$:

\begin{align*}
&\quad (\alpha \rightarrow \text{bool}) \rightarrow \alpha \text{ list} \\
&\Gamma \vdash \text{filter } \uparrow \forall \alpha, \alpha \text{ list} \quad Γ \vdash \text{int \ if } \forall E \\
&\quad (\text{int } \rightarrow \text{bool}) \rightarrow \text{int list} \\
&\Gamma \vdash \text{filter } \uparrow \rightarrow \text{int list} \\
&\quad (\alpha \rightarrow \text{bool}) \rightarrow \alpha \text{ list} \\
&\Gamma \vdash \text{filter } \uparrow \alpha \text{ list} \quad Γ \vdash \text{int \ if } \forall E \\
&\quad (\tilde{α} \rightarrow \text{bool}) \rightarrow \tilde{α} \text{ list} \\
&\Gamma \vdash \text{filter } \uparrow \tilde{α} \text{ list} \quad Γ \vdash \text{int \ if } \forall E
\end{align*}

Figure 6: Contextual matching, used in the hint mechanism and in type annotations

\begin{align*}
&\text{hint } \Gamma \vdash A' \text{ in } e \vdash C \\
&\nu\text{hint } e \equiv e \downarrow C
\end{align*}

The type is then available to the rules $∀E$-hint and $∀L$-hint$\subseteq$. As with contextual annotations, the context $Γ'$ guides the interpretation of $A'$. For example, $\text{hint } (\alpha \vdash ∀β. α \rightarrow β) \in e$ constrains $α$ to be the type variable that is the type of $x$. On the other hand, $\text{hint } (α \vdash ∀β. α \rightarrow β) \in e$ is unconstrained; $α$ could be replaced by any type variable. This is managed through the contextual subtyping rules in Figure 6.

To ensure decidability, each hint can be used at most once in the derivation.$^1$

3.2 Typing and subtyping rules

Many of the typing and subtyping rules of System Bi\textsuperscript{α} (Figure 7) are the same as System Bi, overlaid with existential contexts. We discuss typing first.

From the top, $\text{var, sub, anno, } →I, →E$ and $∀I$ clearly correspond to the rules in Figure 5. Note that $→I$ and $∀I$ add declarations $x:A$ and $α$, respectively, and in their conclusions drop some existential declarations $Γ_2$. Those declarations are out of scope, and since they appear on the right, nothing else refers to them. $∀E, \tilde{α}$

$^1$ Otherwise, writing $\text{hint } (\cdot \vdash ∀β.β) \in f x$ where $f$ has type $∀x.α$ is fatal. Using the hint, we replace $α$ with $∀β. β$, in $∀β. β$, on which we can use the hint again, and again...
adds a fresh $\alpha$ to the existential context and synthesizes $[\alpha/\alpha]A$. The rules ExSubst$\downarrow$ and ExSubst$\uparrow$ apply the solution to $\alpha$ in the checking and synthesizing direction, respectively. ExSubst$\downarrow$ does not apply $[A/\alpha]$ to $\Gamma$, because if we have, say, $y: \alpha$ in $\Gamma$, we can apply ExSubst$\uparrow$ after applying var. The rule $→\Gamma\alpha$ is syntax-directed: if checking a $\lambda$ against $\alpha$, then $\bar{\alpha} = \bar{\alpha}_1 \rightarrow \bar{\alpha}_2$ for some new variables $\bar{\alpha}_1, \bar{\alpha}_2$. Rule $→\Gamma\bar{\alpha}$ is dual.

In the subtyping rules, we change $\forall \alpha \leq \alpha'$ as we changed $\forall \alpha \leq \forall \beta$, to add an $\alpha$. As in $\rightarrow\Gamma$ and $\forall \alpha$, the declarations following the added $\alpha$ declaration are dropped; the notation $[\alpha/\alpha] \ldots$ represents either an unsolved $\alpha$ or a solved $\alpha = A$. The subtyping rules ExSubst$\{L,R\} \leq \alpha$ correspond to the typing rule ExSubst$\uparrow$. When there is an arrow on one side and an existential variable on the other side, $\rightarrow\alpha\alpha \leq \forall \alpha \leq \forall \beta$ split the existential (similar to $→\Gamma\alpha$). Eventually an “atomic” type is reached, and $\alpha \rightarrow L \leq \forall \alpha \rightarrow R \leq \forall \alpha \leq \forall \beta$ can be applied. These rules greedily instantiate the existential to the atomic type on the other side of $\leq$. "Atomic" is a misnomer here: it could be a polytype $\forall \alpha$. A; the point is to keep it from being an arrow, which would complicate the proof of predicative completeness. The premises of $\alpha \rightarrow L \leq \alpha \rightarrow R \leq \alpha \leq \beta$ check that the solution is well-formed under the declarations that precede the variable.

### 3.2.1 Greed and contextual matching $\leq$

The rules for $\leq$ do not change from System Bi to System Bi$^\alpha$, despite the $\leq$ premise in $\leq$-var.

When we add richer subtyping in later systems, we will need several typings in a single annotation. For example, in the term $(e : ([x:\text{pos} \vdash A_1], [x:\text{neg} \vdash B]))$ we check $e$ against $A$ when $x$ is in the context, and against $B$ when $x$ is in the context. But what if $x:\alpha$? In context? Greedily $\alpha$ would defer to a perhaps arbitrary ordering $([x:\text{pos} \vdash A_1]$-before-$(x:\text{neg} \vdash B)$. It seems best to refuse such curiosities, so that when you write a contextual annotation that depends on the type of $x$, you must make the type of $x$ explicit, by writing an annotation elsewhere.

This leads to an embedding of System Bi’s subtyping system within System Bi$^\alpha$, and questions arise about how we instantiate polymorphic types within that premise of $\leq$-var. Our simple solution is to weaken that embedded subtyping system by depriving it of $\forall \alpha \leq \forall \beta$, and replacing those two rules with $\Gamma, \beta \vdash [\beta/\alpha]A \leq B$ $\Gamma \vdash \forall \alpha. A \leq \forall \beta. B$

This applies only for the $\leq$ premise in $\leq$-var; the $\leq$ premise of sub uses the rules in Figure[4].

### 3.3 Preliminaries

For the metatheory, we will use a function $\Gamma$ that drops existential information and hints from $\Gamma$, yielding an ‘ordinary’ $\Gamma$ consisting only of variable declarations $x:A$ and type variables $\alpha$.

$$
\begin{align*}
\Gamma, x:A & \rightarrow \Gamma, x:A \\
\Gamma, [\alpha/\alpha] & \rightarrow \Gamma, [\alpha/\alpha] \\
\Gamma, \text{hint}[\Gamma \vdash \forall \alpha] & \rightarrow \Gamma
\end{align*}
$$

The next three lemmas are by induction on the given derivation; $\Gamma_2$; and $\Gamma_2$, respectively. Subsequently omitted proofs are in the appendix.

**Lemma 5.** If $\Gamma_1 \vdash J \vdash \Gamma_2$ then $\Gamma_1 \rightarrow \Gamma_2$.

**Lemma 6.** If $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \rightarrow \Gamma_2$ where $\Gamma_2$ has the form $x:A$ or $\alpha$ then $\Gamma_2 = \Gamma_2, \Gamma_2, \Gamma_2$ where $\Gamma_2 = \cdot$.

**Lemma 7.** $\Gamma \vdash A \leq (\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash A)$.

**Corollary 8 (Reflexivity).** $(\Gamma \vdash A) \leq (\Gamma \vdash A)$.

**Lemma 9.** If $\Omega$ completes $\Gamma$ then $\text{dom}(\Omega) \Sigma \subseteq \text{dom}(\Gamma)$.

**Corollary 10.** Given a context $\Omega$ that completes $\Gamma$, if $\Gamma \vdash A \text{ wf}$ then $[\Omega] \Gamma \vdash [\Omega]A \text{ wf}$.

**Lemma 11.** Given a context $\Omega$ that completes $\Gamma$, if $[\Omega] \Gamma \vdash [\Omega]A \text{ wf}$ then $\Gamma \vdash A \text{ wf}$.

**Lemma 12 (Well-Formedness).** If $\Omega \vdash J \vdash \Gamma \vdash \Gamma'$ then for any solved $\alpha \in \text{dom}(\Gamma)$, it is the case that $\Gamma = \Gamma_1, \alpha = A_1, \Gamma_2$ and $\Gamma_1 \vdash A \text{ wf}$, and likewise for any solved $\alpha \in \text{dom}(\Gamma')$.

**Lemma 13 (Monotonicity).** If $\Omega \vdash J \vdash \Gamma \vdash \Gamma'$ then for any $\alpha \in \text{dom}(\Gamma)$, one of the following holds:

1. $\alpha$ is unsolved in both $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma'$;
2. there exists $\alpha' \in \text{dom}(\Gamma)$ such that $\alpha$ is unsolved in $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma' = \Gamma_1', \alpha = A', \Gamma_2'$; or
3. there exists $\alpha' \in \text{dom}(\Gamma)$ such that $\Gamma = \Gamma_1, \alpha = A_1, \Gamma_2$ and $\Gamma' = \Gamma_1', \alpha = A', \Gamma_2'$.

### 3.4 Decidability

We prove that System Bi$^\alpha$ is decidable. To concisely define an ordering on judgments such that the premises of each rule are smaller than its conclusion, we need several definitions:

1. $A_1 \rightarrow A_2$ if $A_1$ is a proper subexpression of $A_2$, or if, by replacing one or more $\alpha$s with $\alpha$s in $A_1$, we get a proper subexpression of $A_2$.
2. $(C_1, C_2) \rightarrow (D_1, D_2)$ iff $C_k \not\supset D_l$ for all $k, l \in \{1, 2\}$, and there exist $k, l$ such that $C_k \not\supset D_l$.
3. The weight of an existential variable $\alpha$ in $\Gamma$ is the number of existential variables in $\Gamma_1$ where $\Gamma = \Gamma_1, \alpha, \ldots$, plus itself. For example, the weight of $\beta$ in $\alpha, \beta = \cdot$ is $2$. Solved and unsolved variables are counted alike. Weights are natural numbers, ordered by $\prec$.
4. The angst that a type has with respect to $\Gamma$ is the weight of its heaviest existential variable, again ordered by $\prec$.

The last two criteria are motivated by ExSubst$\downarrow$, ExSubst$\uparrow$, and ExSubst$\{L,R\} \leq \alpha$. For example, the type in ExSubst$\downarrow$’s premise is $\Gamma(\alpha)$ while its conclusion has $\alpha$. In the sense of part (i), $\Gamma(\alpha)$ could be much larger than $\alpha$. Counting the number of free existentials in the type doesn’t work, because $\alpha$’s solution could be $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_2$, which has two existential variables. But $\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_2 \downarrow \alpha$ does have less angst than $\alpha$, because $\alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2$ must be declared before $\alpha$ in $\Gamma$—otherwise they could not appear in $\alpha$’s solution.

In each rule, a term gets smaller, a type gets smaller (in the ordinary sense, e.g. $\alpha$ smaller than $\alpha$, or in the sense of becoming less angstful), the set of available hints gets smaller, or we introduce a solution for an existential variable. When comparing two synthesis judgments we flip the ordering of types because the types are output rather than input.

The appendix has a full definition of the ordering of judgments and a proof.

### 3.5 Soundness of System Bi$^\alpha$

Each System Bi$^\alpha$ derivation corresponds to a Bi one. In combination with type safety for a type assignment version of System Bi, this means that a well-typed-in-System Bi$^\alpha$ program won’t go wrong.

**Theorem 14 (Soundness of System Bi$^\alpha$).** If $\Gamma \vdash J \vdash \Gamma'$ and $\Omega$ completes $\Gamma'$ then $[\Omega] \Gamma' \vdash [\Omega] J'$, where $J'$ is $J$ with any hint $\ldots$ in e subterms replaced by e and hints in annotations removed.
Figure 7: Typing and subtyping rules of System Bi^\alpha
Note that $\Omega$ is an input to the theorem. Consider the System $Bi^\times$ derivation of $\vdash \Gamma$. Let $\Gamma = (\forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha) \cdot \alpha, y \vdash \alpha$. To create the corresponding System $Bi$ derivation, one must create an $\Omega$ that instantiates $\alpha$. Fortunately, one can instantiate it to anything, including $1$.

### 3.6 Completeness of System $Bi^\times$

We will show that, with respect to System Bi, System $Bi^\times$ is incomplete for impredicative polymorphism, complete when hints are added to the term, and complete for predicative polymorphism.

#### 3.6.1 Impredicative incompleteness

A small example shows that System $Bi^\times$ is incomplete for impredicative polymorphism. We abbreviate $\forall \beta, \beta \to \beta$ as ID. Let $\Gamma = \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow 1, \forall \alpha. (\exists \beta \cdot \alpha, y \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow 1$. The derivation in System $Bi$, shown at the top of Figure 5, has no hint-free analogue in System $Bi^\times$. Below it, the failed derivation in System $Bi^\times$ makes the problem clear: the first constraint on $\tilde{\alpha}$ is that it be a supertype of $\forall \alpha. x$, where $\vdash \forall \alpha. x$. Consequently, we substitute for $\tilde{\alpha}$ in the rest of the derivation. But the second constraint (shared) requires that $\vdash \forall \alpha. x$ be a subtype of ID, which is false. All the choices of rules are fully determined, so no derivation exists.

#### 3.6.2 Hinted completeness

The weakest completeness result says that for every System Bi derivation involving $e^+$, where $e^+$ is enclosed in hint declarations.

**Theorem 15.** If $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ in System $Bi$ and $\Gamma_{\text{hint}}$ consists of hints, then $\Gamma_{\text{hint}} \vdash \Delta$ in System $Bi^\times$ where $\Gamma_{\text{hint}}$ consists of hints.

**Proof.** By induction on the given derivation.

We show the $\forall E$ case. Let $\Gamma_{\text{hint}} = (\Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \text{hint} (\Gamma \vdash A'))$. By IH, $\Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \Gamma_{\text{hint}} \vdash e \uparrow \forall \alpha. A \vdash \Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \Gamma$. By Corollary 8 ($\Gamma \vdash A'$) we get $\Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \Gamma \vdash e \uparrow A'/\alpha A \vdash \Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \Gamma$, which is $\Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \text{hint} (\Gamma \vdash A'), \Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \Gamma \vdash e \uparrow A'/\alpha A \vdash \Gamma_{\text{hint}}, \Gamma$, which was to be shown.

**Corollary 16 (Hinted Completeness).** If $\vdash e \uparrow A$ in System $Bi$ then $\vdash e \uparrow A \vdash \Delta$ in System $Bi^\times$, where $e^+ = \text{hint} (\Gamma_{\text{hint}} \vdash A' \downarrow) \vdash \text{hint} (\Gamma_{\text{hint}} \vdash A_1 \downarrow) \vdash \text{hint} (\Gamma_{\text{hint}} \vdash \Delta)$.

**Proof.** By Theorem 15, $\Gamma_{\text{hint}} \vdash e \uparrow A \vdash \Delta$ where $\Gamma_{\text{hint}}$ consists of $n$ hints. The result follows by applying the hint rule $n$ times.

#### 3.6.3 Predicative completeness

In this section, we show that System $Bi^\times$ is predicatively complete: given a derivation in System $Bi$ in which all polymorphic instances $A'$ used in $\forall E$ and $\forall \leq$ are monomorphic (contain no $\forall$), we can derive the same judgment in System $Bi^\times$. Consequently, System $Bi^\times$ is complete for prenex or ML-style polymorphism, in which instances are monomorphic and $\forall$ appears only on the outside of types.

We show completeness by building a System $Bi^\times$ derivation from any System Bi one. We have a derivation in System Bi of $\vdash \Delta$, we create a derivation of $\Gamma' \vdash \Delta \vdash \Gamma_2$, where $\Delta'$ is $\Delta$ but may have more existential variables. Specifically, $\Delta' = [\Omega]\Delta$ for some $\Omega$ representing solutions embedded in the System $Bi$ derivation.

Moreover, $\Gamma_1'$ and $\Gamma_2'$ must correspond to $\Omega$. The example derivations from Figure 5 give some intuition for this correspondence. Another example appears in the appendix.

When every arrow appearing in $\Omega$ has the form $\alpha_1 \vdash \alpha_2$, we say that $\Omega$ is articulated. System $Bi^\times$ keeps a derivation in System $Bi^\times$ by restricting $\forall \leq \Omega$ and $\forall \leq R$, which instantiates existential variables, to non-arrows.

We define the articulation of $\alpha = \alpha' \vdash \alpha''$ as follows:

$Artic(\alpha = \alpha') = \alpha'$  
$Artic(\alpha = \alpha') = \alpha''$

$Artic(\alpha = B_1 \rightarrow B_2) = \alpha = B_1 \rightarrow B_2$, $Artic(\alpha = B_1), Artic(\beta_2 = B_2)$

Since we require the System $Bi^\times$ derivation to be predicative, there is no need to define the articulation of $\forall \alpha. A$. The proof of the next theorem is in the appendix.

**Theorem 17 (Predicative Completeness).** For any $\Omega$ and $\Gamma'$ and predication derivation $D : \vdash [\Omega] \vdash \Delta$ in System $Bi$, provided that

1. $\Omega$ is predicative (for any $\alpha$, the type $\Omega(\alpha)$ is monomorphic) and articulated
2. $\Omega$ completes $\Gamma'$, and $[\Omega] \Gamma'' = \Gamma$

then $\Omega \vdash_1 \vdash [\Omega] A \vdash [\Omega] B' \implies \Gamma'' \vdash A' \vdash B' \vdash \Gamma''$

$\Omega \vdash_1 \vdash e \downarrow [\Omega] A' \implies \Gamma'' \vdash e \downarrow A' \vdash \Gamma''$

$\Omega \vdash_1 \vdash e \uparrow C \implies \Gamma'' \vdash e \uparrow C' \vdash \Gamma''$

for some $C'$ such that $C = [\Omega] C'$

### 4. System $Bi \leq$ with subtyping, intersection types, and union types

In this section, we extend System Bi with intersection and union types, replacing the weak $\leq$ relation with a richer subtyping relation $\leq$. The atomic subtyping relation on datatypes is defined using a datatrace relation $\delta_1 \leq \delta_2$. For example, we can define nonempty lists as a subset of all lists: nonempty $\leq$ list. Then int nonempty $\leq$ int list. (In this paper, we assume that all datatypes are covariant, so $A \delta$ is a subtype of $B \delta$.)

A value has intersection type $A \land B$ if it has type $A$ and type $B$. Intersection types can express combinations of properties of functions and data constructors (Reynolds1996, Davies2005, Dunfield and Penning2004; here, their central role is to express combinations of constraints on existential type variables. Where we need both $\alpha \leq B_1$ and $\alpha \leq B_2$, we can replace $\alpha$ with the intersection of new type variables $\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2$. Then we must satisfy $\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2 \leq B_1$ and $\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2 \leq B_2$. Greedy instantiation yields $\alpha_1 \leq B_1$ and $\alpha_2 \leq B_2$. (In Section 7, we formulate a type system that instantiates $\alpha$ to $B_1$ and $\alpha_2$ automatically.)

Union types (Pierce1991, Dunfield and Penning2004, Dunfield2007b) are dual to intersection types; a value has type $A \lor B$ if it has type $A$ or type $B$ (possibly both). Here, they serve a symmetric purpose: we need $A_1 \leq B_2$ and $A_2 \leq B_1$, we can instead replace $B_2$ with $B_1 \lor B_2$, leading to the obligations $A_1 \leq B_1 \lor B_2$ and $A_2 \leq B_1 \lor B_2$. Instantiating respectively yields $\delta_1 = B_1$ and $\delta_2 = B_2$. (In Section 7, we formulate a system that instantiates $\delta$ to $B_1$ and $\delta_2$ automatically.)

The typing rules for intersection and union types are the same as in Dunfield and Penning2004. As before, introduction rules check and elimination rules synthesize. The rule $\forall E$ reasons by cases: if $e' \uparrow A \lor B$, then $\mathcal{E}(e') \uparrow C$ if, assuming $x:A$, the term $\mathcal{E}[x] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}[e']$ with $x$ in place of $e$ checks against $C$ and also, assuming $y:B$, the term $\mathcal{E}[y]$ checks against $C$. The "tridirectional rule" direct, a unary version of $\forall E$, is needed for technical reasons (Dunfield2007b, p. 60) not especially pertinent here.
5. System Bi≰: System Bi≤ with existential contexts

Just as we added existential contexts to System Bi to get System Bi̸, we add existential contexts to System Bi≤ to obtain System Bi≰.

The rules are given in Figure 11. This step is easy; however, while there are various new rules for intersections and unions, there are no new rules corresponding to →I staples/→Ex. The reason is that intersection and union introduction are type-directed, not syntax-directed. We can have →IA concluding λx.e ⊢ A because the λ is a marker saying that A should be an arrow, but our language has no syntax to mark where intersections and unions should be introduced.

5.1 Type safety

To prove type safety, we:

1. Define “System F≤”, a type assignment version of System Bi≤.

2. Show that System Bi≤ is sound with respect to System F≤.

3. Prove type safety (and several lemmas) for System F≤ with respect to the operational semantics.

The first task is very easy: remove the rule anno and replace all “⇒” and “⇒” in the typing judgments with “⇒”. For example, Γ ⊢ e1 e2 : B becomes Γ ⊢ e1 e2 : B.

For the second task, soundness, we must show that given a derivation of Γ ⊢ e : A (or of Γ ⊢ e : A) in System Bi, we can construct a derivation of Γ ⊢ e : A in System F≤, where e′ is e with annotations erased. This is an easy proof by induction on the derivation, and I proved it in my dissertation Dunfield (2007b, Ch. 2) for a system similar to System F≤ and System Bi. The only novelty here is parametric polymorphism. But that presents no difficulties—in fact, the cases for ∀ and ∃ almost exactly follow the cases for Π and ΠE (those are the rules for universal index quantification, a feature I omit here to avoid distraction).

The third task is not easy to undertake from scratch, but it is an easy extension of the proof in my dissertation Dunfield (2007b, Ch. 2). Again the reasoning for ∀I and ∀E follows the reasoning for ΠI and ΠE. In particular, there is no need to extend derivation rank and value definiteness Dunfield (2007b, pp. 36–38), nor the other concepts used in the type safety proof; all of those are tied in with so-called indefinite types (⊥, ∨), and ∨ is not among those.

5.2 Decidability

Decidability of subtyping in System Bi≰ can be proved as before in System Bi̸. Decidability of typing can also be proved as before, with one exception: in direct, if e′ is itself some variable y, the second premise is not smaller than the conclusion. It should be straightforward to obtain a proof of decidability by designing a “left tridirectional” system following Dunfield and Pfenning (2004) (and proving such a system equivalent to System Bi≰). Informally, it suffices to observe that if we never apply direct when e′ is a variable, System Bi≰ is decidable by the same reasoning as System Bi̸.

6. Implementation

I implemented a version of System Bi≰ as an extension of Stardust Dunfield (2007b), a typechecker for a subset of Standard ML with intersection types, union types, datasort refinements, and index refinements.

The example in Figure 12 begins with a simple application of higher-rank predicative polymorphism, used in short-cut deforestation Gill et al. (1993). Types are quantified explicitly in the function type annotations ([...]). multid uses only prenex polymorphism and can of course be written in SML, but build uses rank-2 polymorphism. The rest of the example is adapted from Leijen (2009), showing impredicative polymorphism.

6.1 Complexity of typechecking

If hints are used, typechecking a function can be exponential in the number of hints: at each opportunity to apply ∀Ex or ∃-hint, there is a choice between applying ∀Ex, applying ∃-hint with the first available hint, the second, etc. However, we can show the complexity is exponential even if ∀Ex is never used: As formulated, ∀Ex-hint drops a hint after use. First there are n hints and n choices; at the next opportunity to apply ∀Ex-hint there are n − 1 hints and n − 1 choices; and so on. If the last sequence of hints chosen is the only one to yield a valid derivation, we have done work proportional to n · (n − 1) · . . . · 2, or roughly n6.

I have not analyzed the complexity of typechecking, but consider the function fun nonlinear2 α β = { }. with type annotation ∀α. β. α → β → β → 1. Given the context id : ∀δ. δ → id, uf : 1 → 1, synthesizing a type for the application nonlinear2 uf uf id id involves several nondeterministic choices of when to instantiate each of the id types. Still, this can be checked with only a few calls to the function that attempts to derive a subtyping judgment, and this continues to hold as we add arguments according to the same pattern. But if we introduce a type error, even an obvious one like an extra argument nonlinear2 uf uf id id, then by the time we reach the 14-argument function nonlinear7 it takes 87,000 subtyping calls and 49 seconds to reject the program. This is a contrived example, and I have not yet tried a real example that makes typechecking unacceptably slow.

Note that intersection types make these systems PSPACE-hard Reynolds (1994), even if parametric polymorphism is never used.
and typechecking can be very slow when intersections and unions are used extensively (Dunfield 2007a).

7. A More Automatic System

A shortcoming of System Bi≤ is that the user must often rewrite types, adding unions and intersections, as in our introductory example: compose : ∀α. α → α must be changed to

\[
\text{compose} : \forall \alpha, \beta, \gamma. (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) 
\rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \gamma) 
\rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \gamma
\]

In fact, System Bi≤ would instantiate \( \beta \) to \( B_1 \) and \( \gamma \) to \( C_1 \), not matching the \( B_2 \rightarrow C_2 \) part of \( g \)'s type, and typechecking would fail.

Now, one can rewrite the type of compose to handle the above situation:

\[
\text{compose} : \forall \alpha, \beta_1, \beta_2, \gamma \text{. } (\beta_1 \rightarrow \gamma) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \beta_2) 
\rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow (\beta_1 \rightarrow \gamma))
\]

But this is only a (verbose) stopgap: it breaks down for \( g' : (B_1 \rightarrow C_1) \land (B_2 \rightarrow C_2) \land (B_3 \rightarrow C_3) \). Thus, manually rewriting types is not sustainable.

We can address this by automatically conjoining unions and intersections to solutions. This yields System Bi≤ Auto (Figure 13).
I have not yet proved any soundness or completeness properties for this system.

The basic idea is to provisionally set type variables to solutions. Instead of only having unsolved variables \( \alpha \) and solved variables \( \alpha = B \), we have four classes of elements in existential contexts:

- (completely) unsolved variables \( \alpha \), as before;
- open intersection solutions \( \alpha \cap = (B_1 \cap \ldots \cap B_n) \);
- open union solutions \( \alpha \cup = (B_1 \cup \ldots \cup B_n) \);
- closed solutions \( \alpha = B \), as before.

Traversing derivations in-order, the “transition relation” for the existential context element for some \( \alpha \) is no longer simply from \( \alpha \) to \( \alpha = B \) as it was in the earlier systems, but is now

\[
\begin{align*}
\begin{array}{c}
\alpha \leq \alpha \\
\alpha \leq \alpha \cap = \alpha \\
\alpha \leq \alpha \cup = \alpha \\
\alpha \leq \alpha = \alpha
\end{array}
\end{align*}
\]

where the loops indicate additional types being intersected or unioned with an open solution, and the two rightmost arrows represent what happens when we hit a subtyping obligation that goes against the grain of the previous obligations. For example, \( \alpha \leq A_1 \) followed by \( \alpha \leq A_2 \) results in \( \alpha \cap = A_1 \cap A_2 \); these are upper bounds on the instantiation. If we then need to satisfy a lower bound like \( B \leq \alpha \), we “close” the solution and end up in the rightmost node. This is necessary in the following situation. Suppose we encounter \( \alpha \leq A_1 \), then \( \alpha \leq A_2 \), then \( A_1 \cap A_2 \leq \alpha \), and

```plaintext
Figure 12: Example of first-class polymorphism
```

```plaintext
Figure 11: System Bi^{≤,σ}
```
\[ \frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash B \text{wf}}{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash \alpha \leq B \quad \Gamma_1 \vdash A \text{wf}} \quad \frac{\Gamma_1, \beta \vdash A \leq B}{\Gamma_1, \alpha, \beta \vdash B, \Gamma_2} \]

\[ \frac{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A, \Gamma_2 \vdash \alpha \leq B}{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A \wedge B, \Gamma_2} \quad \frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash A \text{ wf}}{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A, \Gamma_2} \]

\[ \frac{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A, \Gamma_2 \vdash e \vdash A \quad \Gamma' \Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A, \Gamma_2 \vdash e \vdash A \quad \Gamma'}{\text{ExSubstL}} \leq \text{Close} \]

\[ \frac{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A, \Gamma_2 \vdash e \vdash A \quad \Gamma'}{\text{ExSubstR}} \leq \text{Close} \]

\[ \frac{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A, \Gamma_2 \vdash e \vdash A \quad \Gamma'}{\text{ExSubstL}} \leq \text{Close} \]

\[ \frac{\Gamma_1, \alpha \vdash A, \Gamma_2 \vdash e \vdash A \quad \Gamma'}{\text{ExSubstR}} \leq \text{Close} \]

Figure 13: Rules of the “more automatic” System Bi$^{\alpha, \beta}$Auto

finally $\alpha \leq A_3$. If we left the solution $\alpha \leq A_1 \wedge A_2$ open, the $A_1 \wedge A_2 \leq \alpha$ obligation could be “satisfied” despite the later constraint $\alpha \leq A_3$. Closing this solution off cuts this source of unsoundness.

The rules ExSubst↓, ExSubst↑, ExSubstL, R ≤ remain, with the understanding that $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is defined only for $\Gamma = \Gamma_1, \alpha = A$. The new rules ExSubst↓, Close, etc. handle the $\Gamma = \Gamma_1, \alpha \leq A_1 \wedge A_2$ cases. This mechanism has a slight resemblance to expansion in pure type inference in intersection type systems (Ronchi Della Rocca and Venneri [1984]; Carlier and Wells [2004], for instance), which creates intersections with fresh type variables, e.g. $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ becomes $(\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1) \wedge (\alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_2)$.

8. Related Work
8.1 Systems without subtyping and intersections

For impredicative System F without annotations, type inference is undecidable (Wells [1999]); it becomes decidable if quantifiers are restricted to rank 2 or less (Kfoury and Wells [1994]).

Peyton Jones et al. (2007) developed a bidirectional system that supports arbitrary-rank, but predicative, polymorphism (quantifiers can appear anywhere in types, but polymorphic instances must be monotypes). Their system does not support subtyping, except for “at least as polymorphic as” subtyping (which we write as $\leq$).

ML$^5$ (Leibn and Rémy [2003]), a type inference system in the Damas-Milner tradition, supports impredicative polymorphism, with annotations needed only for impredicative instantiations (similar to the predicative completeness of our system). ML$^5$ is more powerful than our systems, in the sense that our bidirectional approach requires annotations on more terms (including all function declarations), but appears substantially more complicated, even in its revised form (Rémy and Yakobowski [2008]).

HML (Leijen [2009]) extends Damas-Milner and has similar goals to ML$^5$. HML infers flexible types, polymorphic types that are bounded below, as $\forall \beta \geq \forall \alpha, \alpha \rightarrow \beta, \beta \rightarrow \beta$. HML requires annotations only on polymorphic arguments, and is a good deal simpler than ML$^5$. It is robust under many simple transformations, such as revapp $e \rightarrow e_1$ in place of $e_1 e_2$ (where revapp has type $\forall \alpha, \beta, \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow \beta$). In contrast, System Bi$^{\alpha, \beta}$ is sensitive to the ordering of terms when impredicative polymorphism is used: in the failed derivation in Figure 8, switching the arguments $x$ and $y$ would result in success.

8.2 Polymorphic instantiation under subtyping

In systems with subtyping, several approaches to inferring polymorphic instances have been presented. The most important difference from the subtyping systems in this paper is the lack of intersection and union types (Davies’ work has intersections, but not unions, and both are essential to System Bi$^{\alpha, \beta}$). We discuss some of these approaches here.

• In local type inference (Pierce and Turner [2000]), instances are found by computing upper and lower bounds on types, using information propagated locally within the program.

• Colored local type inference (Ordersky et al. [2001]) is broadly similar to Pierce and Turner’s approach, but also allows different parts of type expressions to be propagated in different directions. My approach gets a similar effect by manipulating type expressions with $\alpha$-variables, which allows us to fix part of the type expression (the part that is not $\alpha$) while $\alpha$ remains flexible.

• Davies’ Refinement ML (Davies [2005]), an extension of Standard ML with intersection types (but not union types) and data-type annotations (but not index refinements), has a refinement restriction: $\forall A \wedge B$ can be formed only if $A$ and $B$ are refinements of the same simple type. It is thus possible in his setting to do ordinary SML type inference to find simple-type instances of polymorphic variables. There are only finitely many dataset refinement patterns of a given simple type, and therefore finitely many subtypes of it, so the instance that will make typechecking succeed can be found, in theory, by exhaustive search. (In practice, there can be too many refinements for an exhaustive search, so in some cases an explicit annotation is needed.)

Davies also sketches a proposal for modes, in which types can be marked with the desired direction of typechecking, synthesis or checking. This would lead to somewhat verbose types; writing $\rightarrow$ for functions in which the argument is to be synthesized, the type of choose would be $\forall \alpha, (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \wedge (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha)$. In the second part, $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$, we must somehow skip the first argument so we can get to the second, but Davies does not propose creating an existential variable. Instead, it seems necessary to use a two-step process, in which the first step is simple Damas-Milner inference, giving an approximation of the first argument’s type.

9. Conclusion

I have presented a new approach to inferring polymorphic instances in bidirectional type systems. The simplest application of this approach is to first-class polymorphism, without subtyping. When intersection and union types are available, the approach can be readily extended to systems with subtyping.

The type systems in this paper might seem odd at first. System Bi$^{\alpha, \beta}$, which is not inherently exotic—it lacks intersections and unions—looks quite different from previous approaches to first-class polymorphism. Even those that use bidirectionality, such as Peyton Jones et al. (2007), are rooted in the Damas-Milner tradition. My work here is rooted elsewhere (Danfield and Pfennig [2004]). I would attribute the virtues of my work to the essential simplicity of bidirectional typechecking, plus dumb luck: I had no
inking that intersections and unions (together) would help with the problem of finding polymorphic instances.

The systems in this paper, like those in its immediate ancestors (my dissertation and the works of Xi, Davies, Pfenning), are meant for typechecking, not elaboration/compilation. They do not insert explicit polymorphic abstractions and applications. It seems easy to change System Bi⁵ into an elaboration system, but for System Bi⁵⁺ we would need to elaborate intersections and unions.

In addition to investigating elaboration and compilation, I plan to extend this work to GADTs. With bidirectinality and existential type variables, I expect this to be relatively straightforward.

At first, my goal was simply to add parametric polymorphism to the type systems described in my dissertation. For simplicity, I have omitted from this paper many interesting features of those “full” type systems. I have proved type safety for the full system, but I have not proved most of the other properties, e.g. those in respect of let-normal form (Dunfield 2007b, Ch. 5).

To designers of languages and type systems, consider bidirectional typechecking; as your type system becomes more powerful, you will likely outgrow Damas-Milner inference, and making it bidirectional from the beginning should lead to a cleaner and more logical system than what you get after retrofitting bidirectinality. If you don’t need subtyping, polymorphism is nearly free with your purchase of bidirectinality; if you do need subtyping, polymorphism is nearly free with your purchase of intersections and unions.

References


Abbrev.: ICFP = Int’l Conf. Functional Programming; POPL = Principles of Programming Languages.