# Extensible Programming with First-Class Cases

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## Abstract

We present language mechanisms for polymorphic, extensible records and their exact dual, polymorphic sums with extensible first-class cases. These features make it possible to easily extend existing code with new cases. In fact, such extensions do not require any changes to code that adheres to a particular programming style. Using that style, individual extensions can be written independently and later be composed to form larger components. These language mechanisms provide a solution to the expression problem.

We study the proposed mechanisms in the context of an implicitly typed, purely functional language PolyR. We give a type system for the language and provide rules for a 2-phase transformation: first into an explicitly typed $\lambda$-calculus with record polymorphism, and finally to efficient index-passing code. The first phase eliminates sums and cases by taking advantage of the duality with records.

We implement a version of PolyR extended with imperative features and pattern matching—we call this language **MLPolyR**. Programs in **MLPolyR** require no type annotations—the implementation employs a reconstruction algorithm to infer all types. The compiler generates machine code (currently for PowerPC) and optimizes the representation of sums by eliminating closures generated by the dual construction.

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***General Terms*** Design, Languages

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## 1. Introduction

In this paper we study language mechanisms for polymorphic extensible records and their duals: polymorphic sums with a mechanism for adding new cases to existing code handling such sums. We present a type system based on a straightforward application of row polymorphism [26] and incorporate it into a dialect of ML called **MLPolyR**. Our compiler for **MLPolyR** provides efficient type reconstruction of principal types by using a variant of the well-known algorithm W [19]. The key technical insight to fully general type inference is to keep separate type constructors for sums and cases during type inference. Taking advantage of duality, sums and cases can be eliminated later by translation into an explicitly typed inter-

mediate language. This translation is formalized as part of our type system.

As in any dual construction, the introduction form of the primal corresponds to the elimination form of the dual. Thus, elimination forms of sums (e.g., **match** or **case**) correspond to introduction forms of records. In particular, record extension (an introduction form) corresponds to extension of *cases* (an elimination form). This duality motivates making cases first-class values as opposed to mere syntactic form.[1] With cases being first-class and extensible, one can use the usual mechanisms of functional abstraction in a style of programming that facilitates composable extensions. We show examples for this later in the introduction and in Section 2.

Our polymorphic sums provide a notion of *type refinement* similar to data sorts of Freeman and Pfenning [9] and give rise to a simple programming pattern facilitating *composable extensions*. Composable extensions can be used as a principled approach to solving the well-known *expression problem* described by Wadler [30]. There have been many attempts at solving the expression problem, most of them in an object-oriented context [28, 22, 3, 16, 27, 6, 8, 33, 18, 4, 29, 34]. Garrigue shows an approach based on polymorphic variants which is similar to our proposal, but somewhat less general [11].

### Composable record extension and its dual

To understand the underlying mechanism, it is instructive to first look at an example. In **MLPolyR** we write { a = 1, ... = r } to create a new record which extends record $r$ with a new field a. Since records are first-class values, we can abstract over the record being extended and obtain a function add_a that extends any argument record (as long as it does not already contain a) with a field a. Such a function can be thought of as the "difference" between its result and its argument:

> **fun** add_a $r$ = { a = 1, ... = r }

Here the difference consists of a field labeled a of type int and value 1. The type of function add_a is inferred as:[2]

> **val** add_a: { $\beta$ } $\rightarrow$ { a: int, $\beta$ }

We can write similar functions add_b and add_c of types { $\beta$ } $\rightarrow$ { b:bool, $\beta$ } and { $\beta$ } $\rightarrow$ { c:string, $\beta$ } which add fields b and c respectively:

> **fun** add_b $r$ = { b = true, ... = r }
> **fun** add_c $r$ = { c = "hello", ... = r }

We can then "add up" record differences represented by add_a, add_b, add_c by composing these functions:

> **fun** add_ab $r$ = add_a (add_b $r$)
> **fun** add_bc $r$ = add_b (add_c $r$)

The inferred types are:

> **val** add_ab: { $\beta$ } $\rightarrow$ { a: int, b: bool, $\beta$ }
> **val** add_bc: { $\beta$ } $\rightarrow$ { b: bool, c: string, $\beta$ }

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[1] In Standard ML [20], the corresponding syntactic form is known as *match*.

[2] We omit the universal quantifier and the kind of the row variable $\beta$.

Finally, we can create actual records by "adding" differences to the empty record:

**val** a = add_a {}
**val** ab = add_ab {}
**val** bc = add_bc {}

When translated to the dual, extensibility of records becomes extensibility of code. Here is a function representing the difference between two code fragments, one of which can handle case `A while the other, represented by the argument $c$, cannot:

**fun** add_A $c$ = **cases** `A () => print "A"
                         **default:** $c$

Note that function add_A corresponds to add_a of the dual. The type inferred for add_A is:

**val** add_A: (<$\beta$> $\hookrightarrow$ ()) $\rightarrow$ (<`A of (), $\beta$> $\hookrightarrow$ ())

Here a type $\langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau$ denotes the type of first-class cases where $\langle\rho\rangle$ is the sum type that is being handled and $\tau$ is the result. One can think of $\hookrightarrow$ as an alternative function arrow whose elimination form will be discussed below. Examples for functions add_B and add_C (corresponding to add_b and add_c in the dual) are:

**fun** add_B $c$ = **cases** `B () => print "B"
                         **default:** $c$
**fun** add_C $c$ = **cases** `C () => print "C"
                         **default:** $c$

As in the dual, we can now compose difference functions to obtain larger differences:

**fun** add_AB $c$ = add_A (add_B $c$)
**fun** add_BC $c$ = add_B (add_C $c$)

By applying a difference to the empty case **nocases** we obtain case values:

**val** case_A = add_A **nocases**
**val** case_AB = add_AB **nocases**
**val** case_BC = add_BC **nocases**

These values can be used in a **match** form. The **match** construct is the elimination form for the case arrow $\hookrightarrow$. The following expression will cause "B" to be printed:

**match** `B () **with** case_BC

The previous examples demonstrate how functional record extension in the primal corresponds to code extension in the dual. This forms the basis for our proposed solution to the expression problem. In the non-recursive case, code extension is as straightforward as shown above. Section 2 discusses extensible CPS conversion as a realistic example where a recursive type is extended in an interesting way.

## 2. Case study: CPS conversion

Let us consider a recursive sum type whose values represent untyped $\lambda$-terms. We use a Scheme-like calculus [21] with multi-parameter functions.[3] Variables `Var $x$ are represented by small integers $x$, applications `App($e,\vec{e}$) by an operator $e$ and a list of operands[4] $\vec{e}$, and $\lambda$-abstractions `Lam($\vec{x},e$) by a list of bound variables $\vec{x}$ and a body $e$. We also include constants `Con $c$.

Terms whose outermost constructor is `Con, `Var or `Lam are called *syntactic values*. A commonly considered refinement of the term type restricts `App to only take such values. This is known as the CPS-restriction, since assuming a particular evaluation strategy (e.g., call-by-value, left-to-right) every unrestricted term can be converted into an "equivalent" CPS-term by making use of *Continuation-Passing Style*.

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[3] As we will see below, our CPS-converter requires this feature to accommodate continuation arguments.

[4] We use the vector-arrow notation as in $\vec{a}$ to indicate variables or sub-terms that are lists.

---

```
fun kv2kb k_v = λv.`App(k_v,[v])
fun kb2kv k_b = withfresh(λx_r.`Lam([x_r],k_b(`Var x_r)))
fun cvt_app(e,ē,k_v) = let
    fun lc([],k_b) = k_b([])
      | lc(e::ē,k_b) = pc(e,ē,λ(v,v̄).k_b(v::v̄))
    and pc(e,ē,k_b) = cvt(e,λv.lc(ē,λv̄.k_b(v,v̄)))
in pc(e,ē,λ(v,v̄).`App(v,k_v::v̄)) end
and cvt_lam(x̄,e) = withfresh (λx_k.
    `Lam(x_k::x̄,cvt(e,kv2kb(`Var x_k))))
and cvt(e,k_b) = match e with
    cases `Con i ⇒ k_b(`Con i)
      | `Var x ⇒ k_b(`Var x)
      | `Lam(x̄,e) ⇒ k_b(cvt_lam(x̄,e))
      | `App(e,ē) ⇒ cvt_app(e,ē,kb2kv(k_b))
fun convert e = cvt_lam([],e)
```

**Figure 1.** A simple CPS-converter. When converting `App, the continuation builder $k_b$ must be turned into a syntactic value $k_v$ that can be passed as an additional argument; this $k_v$ is a new `Lam with a single parameter $x_r$ and a body obtained by applying $k_b$ to $x_r$ (see function kb2kv). Conversely, to convert a `Lam, an extra formal argument $x_k$ representing the continuation is added. The corresponding $k_b$ simply constructs an `App of $x_k$ to whatever argument $v$ is given to $k_b$ (see function kv2kb). For clarity, the code for `App and `Lam has been separated out into functions cvt_app and cvt_lam; cvt_app uses helper functions lc and pc to recursively convert the operator $e$ and all operands $\vec{e}$.

Following Appel [1], the conversion can be performed in essentially linear time using an approach that could be called "continuation-builder passing style" where the converter function cvt (see Figure 1) receives the expression $e$ to be converted and $k_b$, the *continuation builder*, which represents the context in which $e$ appeared within the original expression. Once the converter comes up with a syntactic value $v$ for the result of $e$, $k_b$ is invoked on this $v$ in order to produce the CPS expression representing $e$'s original context.

### 2.1 Variants, polymorphism, subtyping, and refinement

As explained in the introduction, our language **MLPolyR** has polymorphic sum types in the style of OCaml.[5] The type system is based on Rémy-style *row polymorphism*, handles equi-recursive types, and can infer principle types for all language constructs. For function convert in Figure 1, the compiler calculates the following type:

```
val convert:
∀α.∀ξ : {`App},ζ : {`Con,`Lam,`Var}.
    (ε as <`App of (ε, [ε]), `Con of α,
            `Lam of ([int], ε), `Var of int> →
    (ν as <`Con of α,
            `Lam of ([int], <`App of (ν, [ν]), ξ>),
            `Var of int, ζ>)
```

Here $\epsilon$ is a recursive sum type, indicated by keyword **as** and a type row enclosed in < ... >; $\epsilon$ can clearly be recognized as the type of lambda expressions.[6] Similarly, type $\nu$ is the type of syntactic values. Function convert is polymorphic in $\alpha$, the type of values carried by `Con. Finally, $\xi$ and $\zeta$ are row type variables constrained to a particular *kind*. The kind is a set of labels that must be *absent* in any instantiation. Like in Standard ML, the type printer in our compiler does not ever print universal quantifiers for ordinary

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[5] In fact, even our syntax for constructors is inspired by OCaml's choice.

[6] We use Haskell notation [$t$] for **MLPolyR**'s built-in list type.

```
fun cvt_app(cvt,e,ē,k_v) = … as before …
fun cvt_lam(cvt,x̄,e) = … as before …

fun cvt_c(cvt,k_b) = cases … same cases as before …

fun mkConvert (c,e) =
    let fun cvt(e,k_b) = match e with c(cvt,k_b)
    in cvt_lam(cvt,[],e) end

fun convert e = mkConvert(cvt_c,e)
```

**Figure 2.** Preparing for extensibility. Explicitly open-code recursion and separate the cases from the scrutinee in the **match**-construct.

```
fun Let(x,e_1,e_2) = 'App('Lam([x],e_2),[e_1])

fun cvti_c(cvt,k_b) =
    cases 'If(e_c,e_t,e_e)⇒withfresh(λx_k.
        Let(x_k,kb2kv k_b,cvt(e_c,λv_c.
            let val k'_b=kv2kb('Var x_k)
            in 'If(v_c,cvt(e_t,k'_b),cvt(e_e,k'_b)) end)))
    default: cvt_c(cvt,k_b)

fun converti e = mkConvert(cvti_c,e)
```

**Figure 3.** Extending the CPS converter to handle 'If.

```
fun cvt_lcc(cvt,x_c,e,x_k) =
    withfresh(λx_d.withfresh(λx_r.
        Let(x_c,'Lam([x_d,x_r],'App('Var x_k,['Var x_r])),
            cvt(e,kv2kb('Var x_k)))))

fun cvtc_c(cvt,k_b) =
    cases 'LetCC(x_c,e)⇒
        withfresh(λx_k.Let(x_k,kb2kv(k_b),
            cvt_lcc(cvt,x_c,e,x_k)))
    default: cvt_c(cvt,k_b)
fun convertc e = mkConvert(cvtc_c,e)
```

**Figure 4.** Extending the CPS converter to handle 'LetCC.

type variables, and it suppresses them for row variables whenever the kind can be inferred from how the variable is used. In this case, since $\xi$ appears in a row with 'App and $\zeta$ appears in a row with 'Con, 'Lam, and 'Var, kind information can be left implicit. In fact, even the identity of the variables is irrelevant since there is only one occurrence of each. Therefore, the actual type expression printed by the **MLPolyR** compiler is the following:

```
val convert:
  (ε as <'App of (ε, [ε]), 'Con of α,
          'Lam of ([int], ε), 'Var of int>) →
  (ν as <'Con of α,
          'Lam of ([int], <'App of (ν, [ν]), …>),
          'Var of int, …>)
```

A remarkable fact about this inferred type is its precision. Even though we had in mind only one restriction, namely that 'App cannot appear directly inside another 'App, the inference engine noticed that the converter enforces another invariant: all bodies of 'Lam are instances of 'App. Nevertheless, this extra precision is not harmful. The result type is polymorphic and can be instantiated to the one we may have had in mind:

```
(ν as <'Con of α,
        'Lam of ([int], (ε as <'App of (ν, [ν]), 'Con of α,
                                'Lam of ([int], ε),
                                'Var of int>)),
        'Var of int>)
```

In other words, although any occurrence of 'Lam in the output will in fact have been applied to a value constructed with 'App, one can send this output into a context that is prepared to also handle other cases for 'Lam. In fact, the output type is flexible enough to be instantiated to the original unrestricted expression type. This means that we could, for example, compose the convert function with itself:

```
        fun convert_twice e = convert (convert e)
```

Doing so may be of limited use, but more importantly, existing utility routines such as pretty-printers, evaluators, and so forth that work on unrestricted expression can also be composed with function convert.

Conversely, if the code for convert contained a bug that can cause its output to violate the intended invariant, then this fact would also be visible in the type. Composition with code that *expects* the invariant will then fail to type-check.

## 2.2 Preparing for extensibility

As we have seen, row polymorphism represents a form of type refinement for the output of function convert. The input type, however, is rigid. This means that we cannot apply convert to a

value that potentially contains constructors other than 'Con, 'Var, 'Lam, and 'App. Clearly, the type system is doing the right thing here, since the code itself is in no way prepared to handle anything but those four cases.

To make the code extensible, we need a way of adding new cases, i.e., new language constructs that are handled. Since these new constructs should be allowed to appear anywhere within a given input expression, we also must open up the recursion.

As explained earlier, in **MLPolyR**, the cases of a **match**-expression handling a sum type $\langle\rho\rangle$ and returning a value of type $\tau$ are represented by first-class values of type $\langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau$, and these values are extensible in the same sense in which records can be extended with new fields. Thus, to prepare the code for future extensions we separate the cases from the scrutinee and parameterizing them by closing over their free variables. By letting one of these free variables be the recursive instance of function cvt itself we straightforwardly achieve open recursion. Finally, we put the mechanism that closes the recursion into its own reusable routine mkConvert and then use it to recover the original function convert by applying mkConvert to cvt_c (see Figure 2).

## 2.3 Extending the input language

With this preparation in place, it is now very easy to extend the converter to handle new language constructs. For example, the code in Figure 3 introduces a conditional 'If which can appear in the input, and, if it does, will also appear in the output. The key construct that makes this work is the **cases** form with a **default:** clause. Here, a single new case ('If) is handled, and the default explicitly refers to the original set of four cases represented by cvt_c. A new converter converti, now handling five cases including 'If, is obtained by closing the recursion using the same function mkConvert as before.

Another example for an extension is the addition of 'LetCC to the input language. 'LetCC is a binding construct which introduces a variable that, within its scope, refers to an "escape procedure"

```
fun cvti_c other_c (cvt,k_b) =
    cases 'If(e_c,e_t,e_e) ⇒ ... as before ...
    default: other_c(cvt,k_b)
fun cvtc_c other_c (cvt,k_b) =
    cases 'LetCC(x_c,e) ⇒ ... as before ...
    default: other_c(cvt,k_b)

fun converti e = mkConvert(cvti_c cvt_c,e)
fun convertc e = mkConvert(cvtc_c cvt_c,e)
fun convertci e = mkConvert(cvtc_c(cvti_c cvt_c),e)
```

**Figure 5.** Extensions parameterized by what is being extended.

representing the current continuation.[7] In CPS-converted code, the current continuation is always directly available as a value, meaning that 'LetCC can be supported without need for a new language construct in the output language. As a result, the extension shown in Figure 4 extends the input language only.

### 2.4 Linearly composable extensions

One major weakness of the two extensions ('If and 'LetCC) shown so far is that they are not orthogonal since each of them explicitly extends the *original* converter rather than another, potentially already extended version. But with the mechanisms shown, this deficiency can be overcome quite easily by parameterizing the extension over what is being extended. The resulting pattern is shown in Figure 5. Notice how the two extensions have become *differences* in the sense explained in the introduction, so they are now *composable*. We can think of them as layers of functionality that can be "stacked."

One can take the idea of extension composition to the extreme by using a programming style (or "pattern") where every case is written individually as a single layer in the above sense. Given $k$ such layers, one can easily generate a converter for any of the $2^k$ possible input languages simply by stacking the corresponding subset of layers. To support this idea, **MLPolyR** provides the syntactic form **nocases** of type $\langle\rangle \hookrightarrow \alpha$ for any $\alpha$. This form represents "no functionality" and can be used as the "base" upon which to stack.

## 3. The PolyR Language

This section describes an idealization of **MLPolyR**, called PolyR, with polymorphic, extensible sums, records, and first-class cases. To compile PolyR, we first translate it into a version of System F, called $F_R$ (Section 3.2). $F_R$ has support for records but not for sums. For brevity, we give the static semantics for PolyR and the translation to $F_R$ together (Section 3.3). Section 3.5 describes the translation from $F_R$ into an untyped $\lambda$-calculus.

### 3.1 Abstract Syntax

Figure 6 shows the abstract syntax for the language PolyR. The meta-variable $x$ and its variants range over variables. Meta-variable $l$ and variants range over an unspecified set of labels. Meta variables $\alpha$ and $\beta$ (and variants) range over type and row-type variables respectively. Variables, labels, type variables, and row-type variables are mutually disjoint sets.

The types of the language are separated into (ordinary) types (denoted by $\tau$ and variants), *row-types* (denoted by $\rho$ and variants), and type schemas (denoted by $\sigma$ and variants). The types consist of type variables $\alpha$, the base type **int**, function types, record types ($\{\rho\}$), sum types ($\langle\rho\rangle$), recursive sum types ($\alpha$ **as** $\langle\rho\rangle$), and case

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[7] 'LetCC($x$,$e$) is the same as Scheme's (call/cc (lambda ($x$) $e$)) [21].

$$\tau ::= \alpha \mid \mathbf{int} \mid \tau_1 \to \tau_2 \mid \{\rho\} \mid \langle\rho\rangle \mid \alpha \mathbf{\ as\ } \langle\rho\rangle \mid \langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau$$
$$\rho ::= \beta \mid \mathbf{.} \mid l : \tau, \rho$$
$$\kappa ::= \{l_1, \ldots, l_k\}$$
$$\sigma ::= \forall(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m). \forall(\beta_1 : \kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n : \kappa_n).\tau$$
$$v ::= n \mid \mathbf{fun\ } f\ x = e \mid l\ v \mid \{\, l_i = v_i \,\}_{i=1}^k \mid \{\, l_i\ x_i \Rightarrow e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k$$
$$\begin{aligned}e ::= {}& n \mid \mathbf{fun\ } f\ x = e \mid x \mid l\ e \mid e_1\ e_2 \mid \mathbf{let\ } x = e_1 \mathbf{\ in\ } e_2 \mid \\ & \{\, l_i = e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k \mid e_1 \otimes \{l = e_2\} \mid e \oslash l \mid \\ & \{\, l_i\ x_i \Rightarrow e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k \mid e_1 \oplus \{\, l\ x \Rightarrow e_2 \,\} \mid e \ominus l \mid \\ & e.l \mid \mathbf{match\ } e_1 \mathbf{with\ } e_2\end{aligned}$$

**Figure 6.** The abstract syntax of PolyR.

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{\tau} ::= {}& \alpha \mid \mathbf{int} \mid \bar{\tau}_1 \to \bar{\tau}_2 \mid \{\bar{\rho}\} \mid \alpha \mathbf{\ as\ } \bar{\tau} \mid \\ & \forall(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m). \forall(\beta_1{::}\kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n{::}\kappa_n).\bar{\tau}\end{aligned}$$
$$\bar{\rho} ::= \beta \mid \beta \rightarrowtail \bar{\tau} \mid \mathbf{.} \mid l : \bar{\tau}, \bar{\rho}$$
$$\kappa ::= \{l_1, \ldots, l_k\}$$
$$\begin{aligned}\bar{v} ::= {}& n \mid \mathbf{fun\ } f\ x : \bar{\tau} = \bar{e} \mid \{\, l_i = \bar{v}_i \,\}_{i=1}^k \mid \\ & \Lambda(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m).\Lambda(\beta_1{::}\kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n{::}\kappa_n).\bar{e}\end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned}\bar{e} ::= {}& x \mid n \mid \mathbf{fun\ } f\ x : \bar{\tau} = \bar{e} \mid \mathbf{let\ } x : \bar{\tau} = \bar{e}_1 \mathbf{\ in\ } \bar{e}_2 \\ & \Lambda(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m).\Lambda(\beta_1{::}\kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n{::}\kappa_n).\bar{e} \mid \\ & \bar{e}_1\ \bar{e}_2 \mid \bar{e}[\bar{\tau}_1, \ldots, \bar{\tau}_m][\bar{\rho}_1, \ldots, \bar{\rho}_n] \mid \\ & \{\, l_i = \bar{e}_i \,\}_{i=1}^k \mid \bar{e}.l \mid \bar{e}_1 \otimes \{l = \bar{e}_2\} \mid \bar{e} \oslash l\end{aligned}$$

**Figure 7.** The abstract syntax of $F_R$.

types ($\langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau$). We denote the set of free type variables of a type $\tau$ by $\mathrm{FTV}(\tau)$ and that of a typing context $\Gamma$ by $\mathrm{FTV}(\Gamma)$. Row-types consist of a row(-type) variables $\beta$, and possibly empty sequences of label and type matchings. The set of free row type variables of a type $\tau$ is denoted by $\mathrm{FRV}(\tau)$. For that of a typing context $\Gamma$ we write $\mathrm{FRV}(\Gamma)$. The recursive sum $\alpha \mathbf{\ as\ } \langle\rho\rangle$ specifies a sum type where the type variable $\alpha$ can recursively occur in the definition of $\rho$.

Type schemas rely on *kinds*, denoted by $\kappa$ and variants, defined as sets of labels. Kinds are associated with row variables and specify the labels that a row variable must not contain. Type schemas, denoted by $\sigma$ (and variants), are defined as

$$\sigma ::= \forall(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m). \forall(\beta_1{::}\kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n{::}\kappa_n).\tau$$

The quantifiers bind occurrences of type variables $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m\}$ and of row variables $\{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m\}$ that are free in $\tau$. The kinds of the row variables are given by $\{\kappa_1, \ldots, \kappa_n\}$.

Expressions consist of values, functions, variables, data type constructors ($l\ e$), applications, let bindings, record expressions, case expressions, and cases. Record expressions consist of record constructors $\{l_1 = e_1, \ldots, l_k = e_k\}$ (which we will often abbreviate as $\{\, l_i = e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k$), record extensions $e_1 \otimes \{l = e_2\}$, record subtractions $e \oslash l$, and record selections $e.l$. Case expressions are symmetric to records and consist of case constructors $\{l_1\ x_1 \Rightarrow e_1, \ldots, l_k\ x_k \Rightarrow e_k\}$ (abbreviated as $\{\, l_i\ x_i \Rightarrow e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k$), case extensions $e_1 \oplus \{\, l\ x \Rightarrow e_2 \,\}$, and case subtractions $e \ominus l$. A match expression $\mathbf{match\ } e_1 \mathbf{with\ } e_2$ matches $e_1$ to the expressions $e_2$ whose value must be a case. Values consist of numbers, named functions, records where each field is a value, and cases.

### 3.2 System F

PolyR expressions can be translated into expressions of a variant of System F with records and named functions. We call this language $F_R$. Figure 7 shows the syntax of the $F_R$ language. (For the rest of the paper we will use the terms "System F" and $F_R$ interchangeably.) The language can be derived from PolyR by ex-

$$\overline{\beta \blacktriangleright \beta} \qquad \overline{\cdot \blacktriangleright \cdot} \qquad \frac{\tau \blacktriangleright \bar\tau \quad \rho \blacktriangleright \bar\rho}{l:\tau,\rho \blacktriangleright l:\bar\tau,\bar\rho}$$

$$\frac{}{\beta;\bar\tau \blacktriangleright \beta \rightarrowtail \bar\tau} \qquad \frac{}{\cdot;\bar\tau \blacktriangleright \cdot} \qquad \frac{\tau_1 \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_1 \quad \rho;\bar\tau_2 \blacktriangleright \bar\rho}{(l:\tau_1,\rho);\bar\tau_2 \blacktriangleright l:\bar\tau_1 \to \bar\tau_2,\bar\rho}$$

$$\overline{\alpha \blacktriangleright \alpha} \qquad \overline{\text{int} \blacktriangleright \text{int}} \qquad \frac{\tau_1 \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_1 \quad \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_2}{\tau_1 \to \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_1 \to \bar\tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\tau \approx \tau' \quad \tau' \blacktriangleright \bar\tau'}{\tau \blacktriangleright \bar\tau'} \qquad \frac{\rho \blacktriangleright \bar\rho}{\{\rho\} \blacktriangleright \{\bar\rho\}} \qquad \frac{\rho;\alpha \blacktriangleright \bar\rho}{\langle\rho\rangle \blacktriangleright \forall\alpha.\,\{\bar\rho\} \to \alpha}$$

$$\frac{\langle\rho\rangle \blacktriangleright \bar\tau}{\alpha \text{ as } \langle\rho\rangle \blacktriangleright \alpha \text{ as } \bar\tau} \qquad \frac{\tau \blacktriangleright \bar\tau \quad \rho;\bar\tau \blacktriangleright \bar\rho}{\langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau \blacktriangleright \{\bar\rho\}}$$

**Figure 8.** The translation of rows (top) and types (bottom) of PolyR to $F_R$.

$$\overline{\Delta \vdash \cdot \setminus \kappa} \qquad \frac{\kappa \subseteq \Delta(\beta)}{\Delta \vdash \beta \setminus \kappa} \qquad \frac{\Delta \vdash \rho \setminus \kappa \quad l \notin \kappa}{\Delta \vdash (l:\tau,\rho) \setminus \kappa}$$

$$\overline{\Delta \vdash \alpha \text{ ok}} \qquad \overline{\Delta \vdash \text{int ok}} \qquad \frac{\Delta \vdash \tau_2 \text{ ok} \quad \Delta \vdash \tau_1 \text{ ok}}{\Delta \vdash \tau_1 \to \tau_2 \text{ ok}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash \rho \text{ ok}}{\Delta \vdash \{\rho\} \text{ ok}} \qquad \frac{\Delta \vdash \rho \text{ ok}}{\Delta \vdash \langle\rho\rangle \text{ ok}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash \rho \text{ ok}}{\Delta \vdash \alpha \text{ as } \langle\rho\rangle \text{ ok}} \qquad \frac{\Delta \vdash \rho \text{ ok} \quad \Delta \vdash \tau \text{ ok}}{\Delta \vdash \langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau \text{ ok}}$$

$$\overline{\Delta \vdash \beta \text{ ok}} \qquad \overline{\Delta \vdash \cdot \text{ ok}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash \tau \text{ ok} \quad \Delta \vdash \rho \setminus \{l\} \quad \Delta \vdash \rho \text{ ok}}{\Delta \vdash l:\tau,\rho \text{ ok}}$$

**Figure 9.** The *lacks* relations, and well-formed types and row-types (from top to bottom in that order) .

cluding sum types, case types, operations on sum types and cases, adding type abstraction, and type application. To distinguish between PolyR types and expressions from $F_R$ types and expressions, the $F_R$ meta-variables for expressions and types are written with a bar, e.g., $\bar{e}, \bar{v}, \bar{\tau}$.

The types of $F_R$ consist of type variables, the int type, function types, record types, recursive types, and polymorphic types. Record types are defined in terms of row types denoted by $\bar{\rho}$ (and variants) that consist of sequences of labeled types that can either end with an empty row $\cdot$, a row variable $\beta$, or a row arrow $\beta \rightarrowtail \bar{\tau}$. The key difference between the row types of the PolyR language and $F_R$ language is the inclusion of the *row-arrow* $\beta \rightarrowtail \bar{\tau}$. Row arrows are critical to represent sums and cases in terms of records.

The expressions of the language consist of variables, numbers, type abstractions $(\Lambda(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m).\Lambda(\beta_1::\kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n::\kappa_n).\bar{e})$, type applications $(\bar{e}[\bar{\tau}_1, \ldots, \bar{\tau}_m][\bar{\rho}_1, \ldots, \bar{\rho}_n])$, functions, applications, let expressions, and record expressions. The values consist of numbers, functions, type abstractions, and records where each field is a value.

Throughout the paper, we omit empty bindings for type- and row variables in type abstractions and empty type- and row type arguments in type applications. For examples, we may write $\forall\beta : \kappa.\bar{\tau}$ or $\bar{e}[\bar{\rho}]$ when no type variables are quantified.

### 3.3 Static Semantics and Translation to System F

We present the static semantics of PolyR and simultaneously show the translation of PolyR to System F.

Figure 8 shows the translation for row arrows and the translation of types of the PolyR language to those of $F_R$. Row-types are translated either directly, written as $\rho \blacktriangleright \bar{\rho}$, or in the context of a type $\bar{\tau}$, written as $\rho;\bar{\tau} \blacktriangleright \bar{\rho}$. The translation $\rho \blacktriangleright \bar{\rho}$ translates $\rho$ pointwise by translating each field. The judgment $\rho;\bar{\tau}_2 \blacktriangleright \bar{\rho}$ relates each field $l : \tau$ of $\rho$ to a field $l : \bar{\tau} \to \bar{\tau}_2$ of $\bar{\rho}$ where $\bar{\tau}$ is obtained by translating $\tau$. If $\rho$ is a row-type variable $\beta$, then the result is $\beta \rightarrowtail \bar{\tau}_2$.

The types of PolyR are translated into System F by translating sums and cases into records (Figure 8). This makes the rules that handle sums and cases particularly interesting. Sum types are translated into record types where each field is a function from a member of the sum type to a universally quantified type variable $\alpha$. More precisely, the sum type $\langle\rho\rangle$ is translated by first translating the row type $\rho$ into $\bar{\rho}$ under a type variable $\alpha$ and then generalizing the function type $\{\bar{\rho}\} \to \alpha$. For example, the sum type $\langle l_1 : \text{int}, l_2 : \text{int} \to \text{int}\rangle$ is translated into the type $\forall\alpha.\{l_1 : \text{int} \to \alpha, l_2 : (\text{int} \to \text{int}) \to \alpha\} \to \alpha$. As ex-

pressed by the $\approx$ relation, we ignore the order of labels in rows (Appendix B).

Typing rules for the PolyR language (Figure 10) are non-deterministic. Care must be taken to not introduce ill-formed types when "guessing" the types of functions, i.e., when creating an instance of a polymorphic type, and when constructing bigger row-types from existing row-types. Figure 9 defines the notion of well-formed types and row-types. The definitions rely on a *lacks* relation between rows and sets of labels. We say that a row $\rho$ *lacks* a set of labels $\kappa$ under the kinding context $\Delta$, denoted $\Delta \vdash \rho \setminus \kappa$, if $\rho$ does not contain any of the labels from $\kappa$; if $\rho$ contains a row-type variable $\beta$, then the kind of $\beta$ (recorded in $\Delta$) must be a superset of $\kappa$. We say that a row-type $\rho$ is well formed under $\Delta$, denoted $\Delta \vdash \rho$ **ok** if $\rho$ consists of distinct labels and lacks the labels specified by the kinding environment. We say that a type $\tau$ is well-formed under some kinding context $\Delta$, denoted $\Delta \vdash \tau$ **ok** , if all row-(sub)types of $\tau$ are well formed under $\Delta$.

Figure 10 shows the typing rules for PolyR and their translation to System F. The judgments take place under a kinding context $\Delta$ and the typing context $\Gamma$. The kinding context maps row variables to kinds—the kind of a row variable is the set of labels that the variable is known not to contain. The typing context maps (ordinary) variables to type schemas. The judgments take the form $\Delta;\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar{e} : \bar{\tau}$ and state that, under the kinding context $\Delta$ and the typing context $\Gamma$, the PolyR expression $e$ has type $\tau$ and translates to the $F_R$ expression $\bar{e}$ with $\bar{\tau}$. The following lemma states that the translation preserves the types of terms with respect to the translation. The proof of this lemma is omitted here.

**Lemma 1**
*If $\Delta;\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar{e} : \bar{\tau}$, then $\tau \blacktriangleright \bar{\tau}$.*

The most interesting judgments are those that introduce and eliminate polymorphism (the let/val and the var judgments), and those that operate on sums, records, and cases.

The PolyR language supports ML-style polymorphism (let polymorphism). How a let expression is type-checked depends on whether the expression whose value is being bound is a syntactic value or not. If the expression is of the form $\textbf{let } x = v_1 \textbf{ in } e_2$, then the type of the value $\bar{\tau}_1$ is generalized over all free type variables and row-type variables; the generalization requires constructing a kind for each row type (let/val judgment). If the expression is of the form $\textbf{let } x = e_1 \textbf{ in } e_2$, where $e_1$ is not a value, then the type of $e_1$ is not generalized (let/non-val judgment). There are two

$$\Gamma(x) = \forall \alpha_1 \ldots \alpha_m. \forall \beta_1 :: \kappa_1 \ldots \beta_n :: \kappa_n. \tau'$$
$$\forall i. \Delta \vdash \tau_i \ \mathbf{ok} \qquad \forall j. (\Delta \vdash \rho_j \ \mathbf{ok}\,) \wedge (\Delta \vdash \rho_j \setminus \kappa_j)$$
$$\tau = \tau'[\tau_i/\alpha_i, \rho_j/\beta_j]_{i=1\ldots m, j=1\ldots n}$$

$$\frac{\tau_i \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_i \qquad \rho_i \blacktriangleright \bar\rho_i \qquad \tau \blacktriangleright \bar\tau}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash x : \tau \quad \blacktriangleright \quad x[\bar\tau_1, \ldots, \bar\tau_m][\bar\rho_1, \ldots, \bar\rho_n] : \bar\tau} \ \textbf{(var)} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e : \bar\tau \quad \tau \approx \tau'}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau' \blacktriangleright \bar e : \bar\tau} \ \textbf{(reorder)}$$

$$\frac{}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash n : \mathbf{int} \blacktriangleright n : \mathbf{int}} \ \textbf{(int)} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma, f : \tau_2 \to \tau, x : \tau_2 \vdash e : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e : \bar\tau \quad \Delta \vdash \tau_2 \ \mathbf{ok} \quad \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{fun}\ f\ x = e : \tau_2 \to \tau \blacktriangleright \mathbf{fun}\ f\ x = \bar e : \bar\tau_2 \to \bar\tau} \ \textbf{(fun)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e : \bar\tau \quad \Delta \vdash (l : \tau, \rho)\ \mathbf{ok} \quad (l : \tau, \rho); \alpha \blacktriangleright \bar\rho}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash l\ e : \langle l : \tau, \rho \rangle \blacktriangleright (\mathbf{let}\ x_v : \bar\tau = \bar e\ \mathbf{in}\ \Lambda\alpha.\mathbf{fun}\ \_\ x_r = x_r.l\ x_v) : \forall \alpha. \{\bar\rho\} \to \alpha} \ \textbf{(data const.)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_2 \to \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e_1 : \bar\tau_2 \to \bar\tau \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \bar e_2 : \bar\tau_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1\ e_2 : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e_1\ \bar e_2 : \bar\tau} \ \textbf{(app)}$$

$$\vec\alpha = \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m = \mathrm{FTV}(\tau_1) \setminus \mathrm{FTV}(\Gamma) \quad \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n = \mathrm{FRV}(\tau_1) \setminus \mathrm{FRV}(\Gamma) \quad \overrightarrow{\beta :: \kappa} = \beta_1 :: \kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n :: \kappa_n$$
$$\frac{\Delta, \overrightarrow{\beta :: \kappa}; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \blacktriangleright \bar e_1 : \bar\tau_1 \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : \forall\vec\alpha.\forall\overrightarrow{\beta :: \kappa}.\tau_1 \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \bar e_2 : \bar\tau_2 \quad e_1 \text{ is a syntactic value}}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{let}\ x = e_1\ \mathbf{in}\ e_2 : \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \mathbf{let}\ x : \forall\vec\alpha.\forall\overrightarrow{\beta :: \kappa}.\bar\tau_1 = \Lambda\vec\alpha.\Lambda\overrightarrow{\beta :: \kappa}.\bar e_1\ \mathbf{in}\ \bar e_2 : \bar\tau_2} \ \textbf{(let/val)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \blacktriangleright \bar e_1 : \bar\tau_1 \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \bar e_2 : \bar\tau_2 \quad e_1 \text{ is not a syntactic value}}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{let}\ x = e_1\ \mathbf{in}\ e_2 : \tau_2 \blacktriangleright \mathbf{let}\ x : \bar\tau_1 = \bar e_1\ \mathbf{in}\ \bar e_2 : \bar\tau_2} \ \textbf{(let/non-val)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \langle \rho[\alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \langle\rho\rangle/\alpha]\rangle \blacktriangleright \bar e : \bar\tau[\alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \bar\tau/\alpha]}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \langle\rho\rangle \blacktriangleright \bar e : \alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \bar\tau} \ \textbf{(roll)} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \langle\rho\rangle \blacktriangleright \bar e : \alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \bar\tau}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \langle \rho[\alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \langle\rho\rangle/\alpha]\rangle \blacktriangleright \bar e : \bar\tau[\alpha\ \mathbf{as}\ \bar\tau/\alpha]} \ \textbf{(unroll)}$$

---

$$\frac{\forall i. \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_i : \tau_i \blacktriangleright \bar e_i : \bar\tau_i \quad \Delta \vdash l_1, \ldots, l_k\ \mathbf{ok}}{\begin{array}{l}\Delta; \Gamma \quad \vdash \quad \{\, l_i = e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k : \{\, l_i : \tau_i \,\}_{i=1}^k \\ \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \{\, l_i = \bar e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k : \{\, l_i : \bar\tau_i \,\}_{i=1}^k\end{array}} \ \textbf{(r)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \{\rho\} \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \bar e_1 : \{\bar\rho\} \\ \Delta \vdash \rho \setminus \{l\} \\ \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \bar e_2 : \bar\tau_2\end{array}}{\begin{array}{l}\Delta; \Gamma \quad \vdash \quad e_1 \otimes \{l = e_2\} : \{l : \tau_2, \rho\} \\ \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \bar e_1 \otimes \{l = \bar e_2\} : \{l : \bar\tau_2, \bar\rho\}\end{array}} \ \textbf{(r/ext)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \{l : \tau, \rho\} \blacktriangleright \bar e : \{l : \bar\tau, \bar\rho\}}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e \oslash l : \{\rho\} \blacktriangleright \bar e \oslash l : \{\bar\rho\}} \ \textbf{(r/sub)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \{l : \tau, \rho\} \blacktriangleright \bar e : \{l : \bar\tau, \bar\rho\}}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e.l : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e.l : \bar\tau} \ \textbf{(select)}$$

$$\frac{\forall i. (\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \tau_i\ \mathbf{ok}\,) \wedge (\Delta; \Gamma, x_i : \tau_i \vdash e_i : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e_i : \bar\tau) \quad \Delta \vdash l_1, \ldots, l_k\ \mathbf{ok} \quad \forall i. (\tau_i \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_i)}{\begin{array}{l}\Delta; \Gamma \quad \vdash \quad \{\, l_i\ x_i \Rightarrow e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k : \langle\, l_i : \tau_i \,\rangle_{i=1}^k \hookrightarrow \tau \\ \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \{\, l_i = \mathbf{fun}\ \_\ x_i : \bar\tau_i = \bar e_i \,\}_{i=1}^k : \{\, l_i : \bar\tau_i \to \bar\tau \,\}_{i=1}^k\end{array}} \ \textbf{(c)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \bar e_1 : \{\bar\rho\} \\ \Delta \vdash \rho \setminus \{l\} \qquad \Delta \vdash \tau_1\ \mathbf{ok} \qquad \tau_1 \blacktriangleright \bar\tau_1 \\ \Delta; \Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \bar e_2 : \bar\tau\end{array}}{\begin{array}{l}\Delta; \Gamma \quad \vdash \quad e_1 \oplus \{l\ x \Rightarrow e_2\} : \langle l : \tau_1, \rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau \\ \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \bar e_1 \otimes \{l = \mathbf{fun}\ \_\ x : \bar\tau_1 = \bar e_2\} : \{l : \bar\tau_1 \to \bar\tau, \bar\rho\}\end{array}} \ \textbf{(c/ext)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \langle l : \tau_1, \rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e : \{l : \bar\tau_1 \to \bar\tau, \bar\rho\}}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e \ominus l : \langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e \oslash l : \{\bar\rho\}} \ \textbf{(c/sub)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \langle\rho\rangle \blacktriangleright \bar e_1 : \forall\alpha.(\{\bar\rho_\alpha\} \to \alpha) \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \langle\rho\rangle \hookrightarrow \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e_2 : \{\bar\rho_\tau\}}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{match}\ e_1\ \mathbf{with}\ e_2 : \tau \blacktriangleright \bar e_1[\bar\tau]\ \bar e_2 : \bar\tau} \ \textbf{(match)}$$

**Figure 10.** The static semantics and translation for basic terms (top), and records and cases.

motivations behind differentiating between syntactic values and non-values: 1) it ensures that the transformation to System F preserves non-termination semantics of the program, and 2) it makes it easier to extend the language with side effects (e.g., references). When used, a variable with a polymorphic type is instantiated to a non-polymorphic type by selecting types and row types for its polymorphic variables (var rule). An instantiation is translated into System F as a type application.

The bottom box in Figure 10 shows the typing rules for records (left) and cases (right). The judgments are arranged to bring out the symmetry between these rules.

A record constructor is assigned the record type that maps the labels to the types of the corresponding fields as long as the labels are distinct. The type of a record extension $e_1 \otimes \{l = e_2\}$ is a record type that extends the type $\{\rho\}$ of the record $e_1$ with the label $l$ under the condition that $l$ is not included in the record type. The type of a record subtraction $\bar e \oslash l$ is a record where label $l$ is excluded under the condition that $\bar e$ contains $l$. The type of a record selection is the type of the field $l$ being selected, under the condition that the record expression contains the field with label $l$. Since the $\mathsf{F_R}$ language includes the record expressions included in PolyR, all record expressions are translated into the $\mathsf{F_R}$ language directly.

A case constructor is assigned a case type that identifies the result type $\tau$ of the bodies ($e_i$'s) and maps each label $l_i$ to its domain type $\tau_i$. A case is translated into a record of functions, one for each label $l_i$, whose argument type is equal to the domain type $\bar\tau_i$ of $l_i$ and whose body is the body of the case $e_i$. A case extension extends the type of a case with a new branch. A case extension is translated to a record extension. A case subtraction takes out the specified branch from a case type and translates it

$$
\begin{aligned}
t &::= n \mid x \mid t_1 + t_2 \mid t_1 - t_2 \mid \mathbf{len}(t) \mid \\
&\quad \mathbf{fun}\ f\ x = t \mid t_1\ t_2 \mid \langle\, s_i\, \rangle_{i=1}^{n} \mid t.t \mid \\
&\quad \mathbf{let}\ x = t_1\ \mathbf{in}\ t_2 \\
s &::= t \mid (t, t, t) \\
v &::= n \mid \mathbf{fun}\ x\ t_1 = t_2 \mid
\end{aligned}
$$

**Figure 11.** The abstract syntax for LRec.

into a record subtraction. A match expression $\mathbf{match}\ e_1\ \mathbf{with}\ e_2$ is well typed if the domain type of $e_2$ is the same as the type $e_1$. Since data constructors are transformed into functions that select the appropriate function from their argument and apply their value to that function, a match expression is compiled into a function application. Since translated sum expressions have polymorphic type, this requires instantiating the function type first. We note that the symmetry to a selection is indirect (through the translation of data constructors).

### 3.4 Dynamic Semantics

The dynamic semantics of PolyR is mostly standard. The full semantics is given in Appendix A. Although the PolyR language is purely functional, the dynamic semantics is written with the same implicit threading of state in mind that is also used by the Definition of Standard ML [20]. This removes all non-determinism by enforcing an evaluation order. The primary motivation for this is to enable a precise specification of the transformation of PolyR into an untyped $\lambda$-calculus (Section 3.5) without altering the execution order. A secondary motivation is to ensure that the transformation would be consistent with imperative features, if the languages are extended with them.

### 3.5 Translation to Untyped $\lambda$-Calculus

We describe the translation of System F expressions (Section 3.2) into an untyped language, called LRec. The LRec language extends the untyped $\lambda$-calculus with ($n$-ary) tuples and named functions; Figure 11 shows the abstract syntax for LRec. The terms of the language, denoted by $t$ (and variants), consist of numbers $n$, variables $x$, the operations plus and minus, $\mathbf{len}(t)$ for determining the number of fields in a tuple $t$, named functions, function application, and introduction and eliminations forms for tuples. The introduction form for tuples, $\langle\, s_i\, \rangle_{i=1}^{n}$, specifies a sequence of slices from which the tuple is being constructed. The elimination form for tuples is selection (projection), written $t_1.t_2$, that projects out the field with index $t_2$ from the tuple $t_1$. The terms include a let expression (as syntactic sugar for application). A *slice*, denoted by $s$ (and variants), is either a term, or a triple of terms $(t_1, t_2, t_3)$, where $t_1$ yields a record while $t_2$ and $t_3$ must evaluate to numbers. A slice $(t_1, t_2, t_3)$ specifies consecutive fields of the record $t_1$ between the indices of $t_2$ (including) and $t_3$ (excluding).

Figure 12 shows the dynamic semantics for LRec. We enforce an order on evaluation by assuming that the premises are evaluated from left to right and top to bottom (in that order). The semantics is largely standard. The only interesting judgments concern evaluation of slices and construction of tuples. Slices evaluate to a sequence of values selected by the specified indices (if any). Tuple selection projects out the specified field with the specified index from the tuple. Since tuples can be implemented as arrays, selection can be implemented in constant time. Thus, if records can be transformed into tuples and record selection can be transformed into tuple selection, record operations can be implemented in constant time. The computation of the indices is the key component of the translation from System F to LRec.

Figure 13 shows the translation from System F (the $\mathsf{F_R}$ language) into the LRec language. The translation takes place under an *index context*, denoted by $\Delta$ that maps row variables to sets con-

$$
\frac{}{v \Downarrow v}\ \textbf{(val)}
$$

$$
\frac{t_1 \Downarrow n_1 \quad t_2 \Downarrow n_2}{t_1 + t_2 \Downarrow n_1 + n_2}\ \textbf{(plus)} \qquad
\frac{t_1 \Downarrow n_1 \quad t_2 \Downarrow n_2}{t_1 - t_2 \Downarrow n_1 - n_2}\ \textbf{(minus)}
$$

$$
\frac{\begin{array}{c} t_1 \Downarrow \mathbf{fun}\ f\ x = t_1' \quad t_2 \Downarrow v_2 \\ t_1'[\mathbf{fun}\ f\ x = t_1'/f_1, v_2/x] \Downarrow v \end{array}}{t_1\ t_2 \Downarrow v}\ \textbf{(app)}
$$

$$
\frac{t_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad t_2[v_1/x] \Downarrow v}{\mathbf{let}\ x = t_1\ \mathbf{in}\ t_2 \Downarrow v}\ \textbf{(let)} \qquad
\frac{t \Downarrow \langle v_0, \ldots, v_{n-1} \rangle}{\mathbf{len}(t) \Downarrow n}\ \textbf{(length)}
$$

$$
\frac{t_1 \Downarrow \langle v_0, \ldots, v_i, \ldots, v_{n-1} \rangle \quad t_2 \Downarrow i \quad 0 \le i < n}{t_1.t_2 \Downarrow v_i}\ \textbf{(select)}
$$

$$
\frac{s_1 \Downarrow_s v_{1,0}, \ldots, v_{1,k_1-1} \quad \cdots \quad s_n \Downarrow_s v_{n,0}, \ldots, v_{n,k_n-1}}{\langle s_1, \ldots, s_n \rangle \Downarrow \langle v_{1,0}, \ldots, v_{1,k_1-1}, \ldots, v_{n,0}, \ldots, v_{n,k_n-1} \rangle}\ \textbf{(tuple)}
$$

$$
\frac{t \Downarrow v}{t \Downarrow_s v}\ \textbf{(slice/singleton)}
$$

$$
\frac{\begin{array}{c} t_1 \Downarrow \langle v_0, \ldots, v_i, \ldots, v_j, \ldots, v_{n-1} \rangle \\ t_2 \Downarrow i \quad t_3 \Downarrow j \quad 0 \le i \le j \le n \end{array}}{(t_1, t_2, t_3) \Downarrow_s v_i, \ldots, v_{j-1}}\ \textbf{(slice/sequence)}
$$

**Figure 12.** The dynamic semantics for LRec.

sisting of label and term pairs. More precisely, for a row variable $\beta$, $\Delta(\beta) = \{(l_1, t_1), \ldots, (l_k, t_k)\}$, where $t_i$ is the term that will aid in computing the index for $l_i$ in a record. We write $\Delta(\beta)(l)$ for the index (term) of $l$ for $\beta$, i.e., if $(l, t) \in \Delta(\beta)$, then $\Delta(\beta)(l) = t$. Given $\Delta$, the kind of a row variable $\beta$, denoted $\kappa(\Delta, \beta)$ can be recovered by projecting out the labels. More precisely $\kappa(\Delta, \beta)$ is defined as $\kappa(\Delta, \beta) = \{l \mid (l, t) \in \Delta(\beta)\}$.

The translation of numbers, variables, functions, applications, and let expressions are straightforward. A record is translated into a tuple of slices, each of which is obtained by translating the label expressions. The slices are sorted based on the corresponding labels. Since sorting can re-arrange the ordering of the fields, the transformation first evaluates the fields in their original order by binding them to variables and then constructs the tuple using those variables.

A record selection is translated by computing the index for the label being projected based on the type of the record. To compute indices for record labels, the translation relies on two operations. Given a set of labels $\kappa$ and a label $l$, define the *position* of $l$ in $\kappa$, denoted $\mathrm{pos}(l, \kappa)$, as the number of labels of $l$ that are less than $l$ in the total order defined on labels. Formally, $\mathrm{pos}(l, \kappa) = |\{l' \mid l' \in \kappa \wedge l' <_l l\}|$, where $<_l$ denotes the ordering relation on labels. For a given row $\rho$, define $\mathrm{labels}(\rho)$ to be the pair consisting of the set of variables of $\rho$ and the remainder row, which is either empty or a row variable. More precisely:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{labels}(\{l_1, \ldots, l_k, \cdot\}) &= (\{l_1, \ldots, l_k\}, \cdot) \\
\mathrm{labels}(\{l_1, \ldots, l_k, \beta\}) &= (\{l_1, \ldots, l_k\}, \beta) \\
\mathrm{labels}(\{l_1, \ldots, l_k, \beta \rightarrowtail \tau\}) &= (\{l_1, \ldots, l_k\}, \beta)
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice that we treat $\beta \rightarrowtail \tau$ just like plain $\beta$, taking advantage of the fact that $(\beta \rightarrowtail \tau) \setminus l$ if and only if $\beta \setminus l$.

Let $\tau$ be some record type, and let $(L, \rho) = \mathrm{labels}(\tau)$. We compute the *index* of a label $l$ in $\tau$, denoted $\mathrm{indexOf}(\Delta, l, (L, \rho))$, as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{indexOf}(\Delta, l, (L, \cdot)) &= \mathrm{pos}(l, L) \\
\mathrm{indexOf}(\Delta, l, (L, \beta)) &= \Delta(\beta)(l) - \mathrm{pos}(l, \kappa(\Delta, \beta) \setminus L)
\end{aligned}
$$

To compute the indices for labels, the translation requires access to the System F types of certain expressions. We denote the type of an expression $e$ by $\mathrm{typeOf}(e)$.

$$\frac{}{\Delta \vdash n \triangleright n} \text{ (int)} \qquad \frac{}{\Delta \vdash x \triangleright x} \text{ (var)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash e \triangleright t}{\Delta \vdash \mathbf{fun}\, f\, x : \tau = e \triangleright \mathbf{fun}\, f\, x = t} \text{ (fun)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash e_1 \triangleright t_1 \quad \Delta \vdash e_2 \triangleright t_2}{\Delta \vdash e_1\, e_2 \triangleright t_1\, t_2} \text{ (app)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash e_1 \triangleright t_1 \quad \Delta \vdash e_2 \triangleright t_2}{\Delta \vdash \mathbf{let}\, x : \tau = e_1 \, \mathbf{in}\, e_2 \triangleright \mathbf{let}\, x = t_1 \, \mathbf{in}\, t_2} \text{ (let)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash e \triangleright t \quad t' = \mathrm{indexOf}(\Delta, l, \mathrm{labels}(\mathrm{typeOf}(e)))}{\Delta \vdash e.l \triangleright t.t'} \text{ (select)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}\forall i, j.\, i < j \Rightarrow l_{\#(i)} <_l l_{\#(j)} \\ \{l_{\#(1)}, \ldots, l_{\#(n)}\} = \{l_1, \ldots, l_n\} \\ \forall i.\, (\Delta \vdash e_i \triangleright t_i)\end{array}}{\begin{array}{lll}\Delta & \vdash & \{\, l_i = e_i \,\}_{i=1}^n \\ & \triangleright & \mathbf{let}\, x_1 = t_1 \, \mathbf{in} \ldots \mathbf{let}\, x_n = t_n \, \mathbf{in}\, \langle\, x_{\#(i)} \,\rangle_{i=1}^n\end{array}} \text{ (r)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}\Delta \vdash e_1 \triangleright t_1 \qquad \Delta \vdash e_2 \triangleright t_2 \\ t_0 = \mathrm{indexOf}(\Delta, l, \mathrm{labels}(\mathrm{typeOf}(e_1)))\end{array}}{\begin{array}{lll}\Delta & \vdash & e_1 \otimes \{l = e_2\} \\ & \triangleright & \mathbf{let}\, x = t_1 \, \mathbf{in}\, \langle(x, 0, t_0), t_2, (x, t_0, \mathbf{len}(x))\rangle\end{array}} \text{ (r/ext)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}\Delta \vdash e \triangleright t \\ t_0 = \mathrm{indexOf}(\Delta, l, \mathrm{labels}(\mathrm{typeOf}(e)))\end{array}}{\begin{array}{lll}\Delta & \vdash & e \oslash l \\ & \triangleright & \mathbf{let}\, x = t \, \mathbf{in}\, \langle(x, 0, t_0), (x, t_0 + 1, \mathbf{len}(x))\rangle\end{array}} \text{ (r/sub)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}\Delta, \ldots, \beta_i{::}\{(l_i^1, x_i^1), \ldots, (l_i^{m_i}, x_i^{m_i})\}, \ldots \vdash \bar{e} \triangleright t \\ \forall i.\, 1 \le i \le n.\, \kappa_i = \{l_i^1, \ldots, l_i^{m_i}\}\end{array}}{\begin{array}{lll}\Delta & \vdash & \Lambda(\alpha_1, \alpha_k).\Lambda\, (\beta_1{::}\kappa_1, \ldots, \beta_n{::}\kappa_n).\bar{e} \\ & \triangleright & \lambda x_1^1 \ldots \lambda x_1^{m_1} \ldots \lambda x_n^1 \ldots \lambda x_n^{m_n}.\, t\end{array}} \text{ (ty/abs)}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c}\Delta \vdash e \triangleright t \\ \mathrm{typeOf}(e) = \forall\, (\beta_1{::}\kappa_1 \ldots \beta_n{::}\kappa_n).\, \tau \\ \forall i.\, 1 \le i \le n.\, \kappa_i = \{l_i^1, \ldots, l_i^{m_i}\} \\ \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \forall j \in \{1, \ldots, m_i\}. \\ t_i^j = \mathrm{indexOf}(\Delta, l_i^j, (L_i \cup \kappa_i, \rho_i')) \\ \text{where } (L_i, \rho_i') = \mathrm{labels}(\{\rho_i\})\end{array}}{\begin{array}{lll}\Delta & \vdash & e[\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_k][\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_n] \\ & \triangleright & t\, t_1^1 \ldots t_1^{m_1} \ldots t_n^1 \ldots t_n^{m_n}\end{array}} \text{ (ty/app)}$$

**Figure 13.** The translation from the $F_R$ into the LRec language.

The record extension $e_1 \otimes \{l = e_2\}$ is translated by first finding the index of $l$ in the tuple corresponding to $e_1$, then splitting the tuple into two slices at that index, and finally creating a tuple that consists of the these two slices along with a slice consisting of the new field. Similarly, record subtraction splits the tuple for the record immediately before and immediately after the label being subtracted into two slices and creates a tuple from these slices. Type abstractions are translated into functions by creating an argument $x_i^j$ for each label $l_i^j$ in the kind $\kappa_i$ of the $\beta_i$. Note that abstractions of ordinary type variables ($\alpha_i$'s) are simply dropped. Type applications are transformed into function applications by generating "evidence" for each substituted row-type variable. As with type abstractions, substitutions into ordinary type variables are dropped. Evidence generation requires computing the indices of each label $l_i^j \in \kappa_i$ in any record type that extends $\{\rho_i\}$ by adding fields for every such $l_i^j$.

## 4. Implementation

The compiler for **MLPolyR** is written in Standard ML. It compiles to relatively simple, yet reasonably efficient PowerPC assembly code that can be assembled and executed under Mac OS X.

### 4.1 Basic language features

As currently implemented, the **MLPolyR** language takes a small subset of the Standard ML core language and extends it with the following features:

- Ohori-style record polymorphism
- polymorphic functional record extension and polymorphic functional record trimming (dropping of fields via "row capture" patterns)
- inferred row-polymorphic sum types and equi-recursive types
- extensible first-class cases
- mutable record fields

### 4.2 Compiler Phases

The compiler is structured in a fairly traditional way and consists of the following phases:

**lexer** lexical analysis, tokenization

**parser** LALR(1) parser, generating abstract syntax trees (AST)

**elaborator** perform type reconstruction and generation of annotated abstract syntax (Absyn)

**translate** generate index-passing LRec code

**anf-convert** convert LRec code into A-normal form [7]

**flatten** flatten arguments, eliminating most record- and tuple arguments by passing fields separately (i.e., in individual registers)

**uncurry** eliminate of most curried functions

**anf-optimize** constant folding, simple constant- and value propagation, elimination of useless bindings, short-circuit selection from known tuples, inline tiny functions, some arithmetic expression simplification; execution of this pass is repeated and interleaved with other phases (e.g., flatten and uncurry)

**closure** convert to first-order code by closure conversion

**clusters** separate closure-converted blocks into clusters of blocks; each cluster roughly corresponds to a single C function but may have multiple entry points

**treeify** re-grow larger expression trees to make tree-tiling instruction selection more useful

**traceschedule** arrange basic blocks to minimize unconditional jumps

**cg** instruction selection by tree-tiling (maximum-munch algorithm)

**regalloc** graph-coloring register allocation

**emit** generate assembly code

### 4.3 Type-checking and translation

Type reconstruction is performed by a variant of the classic algorithm W [19], augmented to handle Rémy-style row polymorphism and equi-recursive types. Resembling the corresponding parts of other compilers (e.g., SML/NJ [2]), the process of type checking and translation is divided into two phases: *elaboration* and *translation*.

The elaboration phase takes an abstract syntax tree and annotates it with type information, using an imperative-style unification algorithm as a subroutine. It permits equi-recursive types as long as type-level recursion goes though at least one sum type[8] by selec-

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[8] This is a pragmatic implementation decision based on experience with fully general equi-recursive types that seems to indicate that most of the time when such a type is inferred it was not actually intended by the programmer [17].

tively turning the occurs check off. To avoid looping, the implementation of unification variables employs a union-find data structure that is used to efficiently detect cycles. To enable the translation phase to properly insert type abstractions and type applications, the elaborator leaves *poly-row information* consisting of row type variables and label sets in the annotated syntax tree.

The translation phase combines generation of System F-code and the transformation to index-passing LRec-code into a single step. This means that in the current compiler there is no manifestation of the System F language.

### 4.4 Implementation of extensible polymorphic records

**Indexing:** Our implementation of polymorphic record indexing is essentially equivalent to that of Ohori's SML# [24]. Values that are polymorphic in some row variable turn into functions taking integer indices as arguments. The index calculation is given by the $\text{indexOf}(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot)$ function in section 3.5. In many cases, row-polymorphic values are themselves functions, which means that the index-passing transformation creates curried functions. In most cases, such currying is later eliminated by general-purpose uncurrying and argument-flattening passes within the optimizer.

**Slices:** In SML#, the only polymorphic record operation is field access. For this, it suffices to have a field selection operation where the index may be a variable. (For plain SML, the index is always a constant.) In **MLPolyR**, however, due to the presence of functional record extension and row capture, the compiler must also be able to generate code for constructing new records whose shape is not fully known at compile time. This is expressed by the "scatter-gather" feature of tuple construction in LRec, where the values for fields may be given as slices of other tuples. The compiler attempts a number of optimizations on slices. In particular, if—after constant propagation and similar transformations—the endpoints of a slice become known to be constants, the slice is replaced with a sequence of individual values. Still, in the general case there will be slices that cannot be optimized away. In this case the instruction selection phase will emit code for copying slices. Using the features of the PowerPC and the memory allocation architecture used by the **MLPolyR** runtime system, the inner loop in such code is quite compact and consists of only three instructions.

**Unit type:** The empty record type is known as the singleton type denoted ().[9] The compiler normally represents the only value of this type by the scalar constant 0. However, with row capture it is possible that at runtime an empty record is created without statically knowing this to be the case. In this situation the program will actually allocate an empty record on the heap, which is supported by our garbage collector. The representation of the empty record does not matter since by soundness of the type system no program will attempt to access any field within such a value. There can be slices taken from the empty record, but those slices will be empty themselves, so no actual runtime access will take place.

**Record length:** In section 3.5, the LRec language came with a primitive $\mathbf{len}(\cdot)$ for obtaining the number of fields in a tuple. While length information is indeed present in the GC header of each tuple, getting access to it is potentially expensive since it incurs memory traffic. In the actual implementation, length information is passed as an additional index to a "virtual" *end-of-tuple* field. For this purpose, the type system implemented in the compiler uses slightly more complicated kinds: instead of plain sets of labels, a kind is a label set together with a boolean flag. The flag indicates whether or not length information is required for a given row variable.

One disadvantage of this approach is that the boolean flag truly becomes part of the user-visible type. This might not be seen as a big problem, since in our compiler all types are fully inferred anyway. Still, even in our very small language the flag does show up in

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[9] In Standard ML this type is known as **unit**.

type error messages, which are often complicated enough already. A more complete language that allows for type annotations and comes with an ML-style module system, the programmer would have to worry about this detail when writing types and module signatures. A possible workaround would be to "clamp" the value of the flag to true, implying that we always pass length information, whether it is needed it or not. Of course, this trick does have some runtime cost.

**Record expressions and record patterns:** In its concrete syntax, **MLPolyR** establishes a high degree of symmetry between record expressions and record patterns. In particular, *row capture* patterns generalize Standard ML's ellipsis notation. For example, one can define a function f as follows:

```
fun f { name, age, ... = other } = e
```

Any argument to f must be a record containing at least fields labeled name and age, but potentially more. Within the body $e$, the variables name and age are bound to the values of these fields, and other will be bound to a record value that contains all *other* fields except name and age that were present in the argument value. In essence, this notation combines selection and functional removal of fields.

Conversely, functional record extension is written using a record expression involving an ellipsis:

```
val fred = { name = "Fred", age = 29,
             ... = fred's_other_info }
```

Functional record *update*, i.e., the replacement of existing fields with new fields, can be synthesized from row capture and record extension. The **MLPolyR** language provides special syntax for record update, but its meaning can be explained as a derived form.

### 4.5 Implementation of sums

Section 3.3 shows how sums and first-class cases are completely eliminated and represented by corresponding record constructs using the well-known dual construction:

- Cases become records of functions.
- Sum values (aka "variants") $lv$ become functions that take cases $c$ (in form of function records) as arguments, select the function $c.l$ corresponding to label $l$, and invoke it with the constructor's argument $v$.

This encoding is elegant and has the advantage of not needing any new runtime machinery; everything is handled by the mechanisms that implement polymorphic extensible records. However, the encoding is also inefficient, both in space consumption and in performance. The variant $lv$ becomes $\mathbf{fun}\ \_\ c = c.i_l v$ where $i_l$ is the index corresponding to label $l$. Such a function value would normally be represented by a closure consisting of a code pointer and a record of the free variables, here $i_l$ and $v$, in other words, at least three distinct values. Two possible ways of implementing this closure can be depicted as follows:
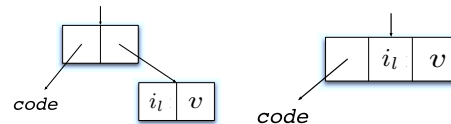


We obtain a less space-consuming and faster representation by observing that the code is the same for *every* element of *every* sum type! Since the compiler also knows precisely where this code is invoked, namely at call sites generated by translating **match**

expressions where it can easily be inlined, the code pointer does not need to be represented at all. This leaves us with a representation of the variant as a pair consisting just of $i_l$ and $v$:



But that is precisely the "traditional" representation of tagged unions, $i_l$ playing the role of the tag. Space is saved by the elimination of the code pointer and possibly the second indirection. The time savings are due to the inlining of the code, since general function call overhead, the memory access for obtaining the entry address, and the need for an indirect jump dominate the cost of the naive implementation.

This optimization is implemented quite conveniently as part of our translation phase. The fact that, as has been noted above, we skip System F has practical benefits here. Normally, when generating plain System F code, we would lose information on which of the closures correspond to sum values, and which applications correspond to **match**. This information would either have to be recovered by some flow analysis or preserved using ad-hoc annotation on System F terms.

### 4.6 Coherence

Incoherence manifests itself in the translation phase as a non-generalized and uninstantiated type variable. Since the transformation discards ordinary type variables, the lack of coherence only matters when it involves row types. Here is a concrete example for how this might happen:

```
fun loop() = loop()
val x = (loop()).a
```

The type of `loop` is inferred to be $\forall \alpha.() \rightarrow \alpha$. The typing rule for field selection can pick an arbitrary instantiation for $\alpha$ as long as it is a record containing a field `a`. But the underspecified shape of the instantiation determines the index for accessing `a`! Notice, however, that `loop()` does not produce a record value. In fact, it will never return at all, so the index for `a` does not matter at runtime. In the elaboration/translation algorithm, this situation manifests itself as an uninstantiated (unification-) row type variable.

The phenomenon of coherence (or rather: the lack thereof) is well-known and has been studied in the context of the translation of ML into an explicitly typed calculus (a variant of System F) by Ohori [23]. It was later rediscovered in the context of Haskell's type class mechanism [14]. Like in SML#, we can take advantage of what amounts to a parametricity result for ML, namely that *closed* programs are, in fact, coherent.[10] Intuitively, whenever incoherence occurs, the actual choice of type will not matter at runtime because the code in question will never get executed. Our compiler (like Ohori's) picks arbitrary index values for labels that belong to uninstantiated (unification-) row type variables.

### 4.7 Runtime system

The runtime system, written in C, implements a simple two-space copying garbage collector [13] and provides basic facilities for input and output.
**Data representation and memory management:** For the tracing garbage collector to be able to reliably distinguish between pointers and integers, we employ the usual tagging trick. Integers are 31-bit 2's-complement numbers. An integer value $i$ is represented internally as a 2's-complement 32-bit quantity of value $2i$. This makes all integers even, with their least significant bits cleared.

Heap pointers, on the other hand, are represented as odd 32-bit values. In effect, instead of pointing to the beginning of a word-aligned heap object, they point to the object's second byte. Generated load- and store-instructions account for this skew by using an accordingly adjusted displacement value. With this representation trick, the most common arithmetic operations (addition and subtraction) can be implemented as single instructions as usual; they do not need to manipulate tag bits. The same is true for most loads and stores.

Allocation- and limit pointers are stored in registers, and taking advantage of the PowerPC's `stwu` instruction we can allocate one memory word in a single instruction.[11] As mentioned before, the code for copying a slice out of an existing record into a newly allocated one uses an inner loop of only three instructions (`lwzu`, `stwu`, `bdnz`), but there is also a four-instruction preamble (`addi`, `srwi.`, `mtctr`, `beq`) that loads the *count register* and bypasses the loop when the count is initially zero.
**The `String` module:** Our language does not yet have a module system, but as long as only values but no types are involved, one can use records as a poor-man's substitute. The runtime system exports a special record bound to the global variable `String` which contains routines for manipulating string values, for converting from and to strings, and for performing very basic input-output operations. This record is allocated using C code and does not reside within the **MLPolyR** heap.

### 4.8 Mutable record fields

Our type system supports mutable fields in records. Type reconstruction still works since corresponding operations on mutable and immutable fields are syntactically distinguishable. Records with mutable fields have identity, and allocation of such records is a side-effecting operation.

In hindsight it appears that it would have been better to instead distinguish between two kinds of records: those that are guaranteed to be immutable, and those that *may* contain mutable fields. Mutability interacts in some undesirable ways with row polymorphism. For example, we cannot say that the right-hand side in the following **let**-binding is a syntactic value and, therefore, its type cannot be generalized:

```
let val r = { a = foo, ... = bar }
```

Whether or not the allocation of this record expands the store depends on the type of `bar`. Ignoring the problem with the value restriction, in the general case the compiler is unable to perform certain optimizations such as, e.g., common subexpression elimination for code like this:

```
let val r1 = { a = foo, ... = bar }
    val r2 = { a = foo, ... = bar }
```

Therefore, with our current design, the mere existence of the mutable fields feature in the language incurs certain penalties, both in terms of the static semantics and in terms of runtime efficiency, even if that feature is never used.

Since we prefer a pay-as-you go scheme where features incur penalties only when they are actually being used, we plan to go back to immutable general records in the style of Standard ML and support mutable fields separately.

## 5. Related work

Record calculi and the study of record polymorphism have a long history [31, 32, 26, 5, 25]. Ohori shows that polymorphic records

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[10] The same argument does not work for Haskell, because due to type classes Haskell's polymorphism is not parametric.

[11] The cost of the heap limit check is amortized over multiple allocations within a basic block.

can be compiled very efficiently, using an index-passing transformation based on a kinded type system for records [25]. He also points out the duality between records and sums and suggests that the same index-passing techniques can be adopted to implement polymorphic sums. Rémy gives a more general type system capable of expressing linearly *extensible* polymorphic records. Rémy's calculus employs row polymorphism and has an efficient type reconstruction algorithm that infers principal types [26]. Jones and Peyton Jones describe an implementation of extensible records based on the same ideas for Haskell [15].

Gaster and Jones attempt a direct encoding of the dual construction for sum types within Haskell's type system [12]. The encoding requires type system features absent from most languages, in particular higher-order polymorphism and a type constructor which roughly corresponds to the row arrow $\rightarrowtail$ in our System F. Type inference in such a system seems difficult, and, indeed, Gaster and Jones report that they had to impose an ad-hoc restriction to obtain most general unifiers. Their restriction is to disallow empty rows, meaning that they could not type our **nocases** construct.

Garrigue implements a version of polymorphic sum types in OCaml. His approach does not take advantage of the duality between sums and records but instead provides a form of extensibility based on so-called *variant dispatching* [10, 11]. As Zenger and Odersky point out [33], variant dispatching requires writing additional functions to forward control to existing code. This is a consequence of the fact that in Garrigue's system, extensions need to know what they are extending. As a result, extensions cannot be composed directly.

It should be noted that a suitably modified typing rule for a **match** expression with a default case could actually be used to give Garrigue's implementation the same power of extensibility that we provide in **MLPolyR**. Consider the following example:

```
fun g y = ...
fun f x = match x with
              ‘A () ⇒ print "A"
            | y ⇒ g y
```

Here the types of $x$ and $y$ should be related sums that share a common row, the only difference being the presence of the ‘A constructor in $x$'s type and its absence in $y$'s type. The typing rule for this could be:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \langle l : \tau_l, \rho \rangle \quad \Gamma, x : \tau_l \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma, y : \langle \rho \rangle \vdash e_3 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{match}\ e_1\ \mathbf{with}\ lx \Rightarrow e_2 \mid y \Rightarrow e_3 : \tau}$$

This approach does not require the alternative function arrow $\hookrightarrow$ for cases but uses the ordinary function arrow in its place. The main advantage of having the case arrow $\hookrightarrow$ in the type system and statically distinguishing cases from other functions lies in the fact that this makes it very easy to use different runtime representations for the two. In particular, we can represent **MLPolyR** cases as records of functions. These records represent jump tables. In Garrigue's implementation, however, case analysis for polymorphic variants proceeds by direct comparisons of constructor names (significantly sped up via hashing). Thus, his implementation technique essentially corresponds to our semantics of PolyR. In this setting, extending functions by extra cases can be implemented by simple chaining of conditionals.

## 6. Conclusions

We have presented **MLPolyR**, a language with row polymorphism for both records and sums. **MLPolyR** explicitly exposes the duality between sums and products by providing a type of first-class *cases*. Values of case type (like records, their dual counterpart) can be functionally extended to handle larger sums.

This setup rests firmly on the well-understood theory of row types. It allows for efficient type reconstruction and should yield few surprises for programmers. On the other hand, we find that it enables a very flexible style of programming where the treatment of individual variants of a sum can be coded separately and combined later with minimal notational overhead. In combination with explicitly coded open recursion (which requires equi-recursive types), it provides an elegant approach to solving the *expression problem*, i.e., the problem of adding new constructors to a datatype and being able to re-use existing code. Since we are striving for simplicity, we consciously left out features such as subtyping or inference of intersections.

We implemented our language using a technique based on Ohori's index-passing scheme for polymorphic records and the exploitation of the sum-product duality for first-class cases. In this paper we explain this technique in terms of a 2-stage translation, first into an explicitly-typed polymorphic lambda calculus (System F) where sums and cases are eliminated using duality with records, then into an untyped $\lambda$-calculus LRec where records are represented as vectors with numeric indices.

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## A. Dynamic Semantics for PolyR

Figure 14 shows the dynamic semantics for the PolyR language.



**Figure 14.** The dynamic semantics for PolyR.

## B. Reordering rules

Figure 15 shows the reordering judgment $\approx$ which expresses the relationship between two types where they are considered equal up to permutation of their fields.



**Figure 15.** The reordering judgment $\approx$.