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The Genericity Theorem and the Notion of Parametricity in the Polymorphic λ -calculus

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Giuseppe Longo
Kathleen Milsted
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For further information, please contact Giuseppe Longo at LIENS(CNRS)-DMI, Ecole Normale Supérieure, 45 rue d'Ulm, 75005 Paris, France. E-mail: longo@dmi.ens.fr

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Abstract

In the polymorphic λ -calculus, one may explicitly define functions that take a type as input and return a term as output. This work focuses on how such functions depend on their input types. Indeed, these functions are generally understood to have an essentially constant meaning on input types. We show how the proof theory of the polymorphic λ -calculus suggests a clear syntactic description of this phenomenon. Namely, under a reasonable condition, we show that if two polymorphic functions agree on an input type, then they are, in fact, the same function. Equivalently, types are *generic* inputs to polymorphic functions.

Résumé

Dans le λ -calcul polymorphe, on peut explicitement définir des fonctions qui prennent un type comme argument et qui renvoient un terme comme résultat. Le but de ce travail est de mieux comprendre la dépendance de ces fonctions vis-à-vis de leurs arguments types. En effet, ces fonctions sont généralement considérées comme étant essentiellement constantes par rapport aux arguments types. Nous montrons que la théorie syntaxique du λ -calcul polymorphe suggère une description claire de ce phénomène : sous une condition raisonnable, si deux fonctions polymorphes s'accordent sur un seul type, elles sont identiques. Autrement dit, les types sont des arguments *génériques* aux fonctions polymorphes.

Keywords

Type theory; second-order lambda calculus; system F; parametric polymorphism; parametricity; genericity.

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1 Introduction

The use of types as explicit parameters, or variable types, is at the core of polymorphic (functional) languages, and was introduced, in Logic, by Girard [Gir71] and, in Computer Science, by Reynolds [Rey74]. The idea is that one may define formal functions that explicitly depend on input types. In λ -calculus notation, where capital X, Y, \dots stand for type variables, one may construct terms such as $\lambda X.M$ which may be fed a type as input and give a term as output (in Logic jargon, $\lambda X.M$ is a second-order term in impredicative Type Theory).

Originating with remarks by Strachey [Str67], a distinction was introduced on how these explicitly polymorphic functions should behave. Indeed, in computing, programs may depend on types. Overloaded functions, for example, may call different code according to the input type (or to the type of the input): $+$ uses different code according to whether the addition is performed on (the type of) reals or integers, say. This sort of dependency of terms on types, known as *ad hoc* polymorphism, is an expressive feature of some programming languages, in particular when handled at run-time, and may suggest interesting and general formal systems (see [CGL92], say).

According to Strachey (and Reynolds) then, “proper” polymorphism, as opposed to the *ad hoc* variety, is the property that second-order terms have a *uniform* dependency on input types, or that their output terms do not “essentially” depend on input types. Note, though, that the output terms of, say, $\lambda X.M$ applied to types σ and τ , i.e., $(\lambda X.M)\sigma$ and $(\lambda X.M)\tau$, need not live in the same type. The point then is to understand how core systems, such as Girard-Reynolds system F [Gir71, Rey74] (also known as second-order λ -calculus), realize this uniform dependency property, known as *parametricity*, and compare terms possibly living in different types; more generally, to understand the functional behavior of formal functions such as $\lambda X.M$.

A semantic criterion for parametricity was proposed by Reynolds [Rey83, MR91] as an invariance property under relations between type values. In short, if a relation is given on type parameters σ and τ , then (the interpretation of) $\lambda X.M$, applied to (the meaning of) σ and τ , should send related elements of σ and τ to related elements in the types of the outputs. This is known as *relational parametricity*, and a syntactic treatment of it is given in [ACC93] and in [PA93].

Another approach to parametricity was proposed by Bainbridge et al. [BFSS90]. Consider $\lambda x : X.N$. Is it the case that $\lambda x : X.N$ depends naturally on X , in the sense of natural transformations of Category Theory? Indeed, natural transformations are the core means of expressing uniformity on objects (as interpretation of types) in categories. Unfortunately, natural transformations act on functors, whereas, in general categories, variable types are not functors. The counterexample is straightforward: the map from X to $X \rightarrow X$ (the arrow type) should be at once a covariant and contravariant functor. A partial solution, in the context of the typed λ -calculus, may be given by considering categories where maps are only retractions (as in [Sco72, SP82, Gir86]) or isomorphisms (as in [DL89]). This is fine for specific purposes, as in those papers, but does not describe the situation in the full generality

of a model theoretic approach. On the other hand, this issue of contra/covariant functors was partly at the origin of relevant generalizations of the notion of functor in mathematics, for example [EK66]; see also [Mac71]. In this line of work, Bainbridge et al. propose to interpret terms as dinatural transformations, yet another elegant categorical notion derived from tensor algebra and algebraic topology. The rub is that, in general, dinatural transformations do not compose, while terms do; however, the interpretation works well (i.e., it is compositional) on relevant models (see [BFSS90, FGSS88, GSS]), in particular on models of relational parametricity as formalized in [PA93]. On essentially similar lines, Freyd suggested a novel notion of structor in order to understand, categorically, the notion of uniformity inherent in second-order λ -terms.

These attempts suggested brand new constructions and relevant mathematics, but seem still insufficient to fill the essential gap between the parametricity of second-order λ -calculus and the uniformity with respect to objects (and functors) as expressed by natural transformations in Category Theory. This is probably one of the few mismatches (together with subtyping versus subobjects) out of many deep connections between types and objects, terms and morphisms, as summarized, say, in [AL91] and [LS86]. A survey and a classification of the various forms of parametricity is proposed in [Lon93].

In this paper, we consider a weak extension of system F, suggested by the following simple result of Girard in [Gir71]: given a type σ , if one takes a term J_σ such that, for any type τ , $J_\sigma\tau$ reduces to 1 if $\sigma = \tau$, and reduces to 0 if $\sigma \neq \tau$, then $F+J_\sigma$ does not normalize. Since system F normalizes, J_σ is not definable in F. The point here is that the polymorphic term J_σ gives essentially different output terms, which live in the same type, according to the (values of the) input types. Then, a first point in our understanding of parametricity is that a polymorphic term that gives outputs in the same type for all input types, must be constant. This is expressed by the following equational scheme:

$$\text{(Axiom C)} \quad M\tau = M\tau' \quad \text{for } \Gamma \vdash M : \forall X.\sigma \text{ and } X \notin FV(\sigma)$$

That is, if the outputs of a polymorphic term M , applied to any type, all live in the same type, then these outputs are simply equal. Axiom C is not provable in F, but it is compatible with F, that is, system F may be consistently extended with it. Indeed, a generalization of Axiom C appears in the system $F_{<}$: [CMMS91] which extends system F with subtyping; see rule *Eq appl2*. In our view, the compatibility of Axiom C with system F is one thing to be noted in order to understand parametricity. Moreover, all models that yield the dinatural interpretation of terms in [BFSS90] realize Axiom C, as do PER models in realizability topoi and Girard's models over dI-domains and stable maps. From [ACC93] and [Has93], it also turns out that Axiom C is realized by all models that satisfy Reynolds's relational parametricity condition [MR91]. A categorical characterization of models realizing Axiom C will be outlined in Section 10.

Consider now F_c , the extension of system F with Axiom C. The main result of this paper is the following theorem:

(Genericity Theorem) *Assume M and N live in the same type $\forall X.\sigma$. If $M\tau =_{Fc} N\tau$ for some type τ , then $M =_{Fc} N$*

The reader should notice where intended parentheses and existential quantification are located, and also, that there is no restriction on σ . The Genericity Theorem states the rather strong fact that, in F_c , if two second-order terms coincide on an input type, then they are, in fact, the same function. Or, equivalently, that each input type acts as a *generic* input, as a variable. It also says, in a sense, that there are “very few” polymorphic functions. Note that the Genericity Theorem does not hold in F . Take, for example, $x : \forall X.\sigma$ with $X \notin FV(\sigma)$, and consider $M \equiv \lambda X.x\tau$ and $N \equiv \lambda X.xX$, both of type $\forall X.\sigma$. Then, $M\tau =_F N\tau$ but M and N are not F -equal. Indeed, as pointed out by Furio Honsell and one of the referees, it is easy to show that F_c is the least equational extension of F which yields the Genericity Theorem.

Observe finally that, although all models of relational parametricity realize Axiom C, it may be shown that no such model realizes Genericity as an implication. This is a delicate issue, hinted at in Section 10 and discussed extensively in [Lon93]. In the following sections, we recall system F and introduce our syntactic conventions, describe system F_c , and prove the Genericity Theorem.

2 System F

The language of system F consists of *types* and *terms*. A type is either a type variable, a function type, or a polymorphic type, while a term is either a variable, an abstraction, an application, a type abstraction, or a type application. Types and terms have the following syntax:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Types} & \sigma ::= X \mid \sigma \rightarrow \tau \mid \forall X.\sigma \\ \text{Terms} & M ::= x \mid \lambda x:\sigma.M \mid MN \mid \lambda X.M \mid M\tau \end{array}$$

We will use $\sigma, \tau, \rho, \mu, \nu$ for types and M, N for terms, while for variables, we will use X, Y, Z for type variables and x, y, z for term variables. Following the usual conventions for minimizing parentheses, applications associate to the left, \rightarrow associates to the right, and the scope of \forall and λ extends as far to the right as possible. For any type or term P , the set of its free (type and term) variables is defined as usual, and written $FV(P)$. Capture-avoiding type substitution and term substitution is also defined as usual on types and terms, and written $[\tau/X]P$ and $[M/x]P$, respectively.

Assignment of types to terms takes place relative to a set of *variable declarations*, where each declaration assigns a unique type to a term variable. We will use Γ for a set of declarations, and we write $\Gamma, x : \sigma$ to extend Γ with a new declaration $x : \sigma$, where x must not occur in Γ . The substitution of a type in a set of declarations, $[\tau/X]\Gamma$, is defined component-wise as substitution into the type of each declaration in Γ .

A *type assignment* is a meta-expression of the form $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma$, which asserts that term M has, or lives in, type σ , relative to the declarations in Γ . The following rules define valid type assignments.

Type Assignment Rules

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{(declaration)} \quad \Gamma, x : \sigma \vdash x : \sigma \\
 \\
 \text{(\(\rightarrow\)-intro)} \quad \frac{\Gamma, x : \sigma \vdash M : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : \sigma. M : \sigma \rightarrow \tau} \qquad \text{(\(\rightarrow\)-elim)} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash N : \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash MN : \tau} \\
 \\
 \text{*(\(\forall\)-intro)} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda X. M : \forall X. \sigma} \qquad \text{(\(\forall\)-elim)} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \forall X. \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash M\tau : [\tau/X]\sigma} \\
 \text{* for } X \text{ not free in the type of} \\
 \text{any free term variable in } M
 \end{array}$$

Note the restriction on the \forall -intro rule: without it, it would be possible to prove inconsistencies such as $x : Y \vdash x : Z$. This restriction will show up frequently later.

Equality of terms is defined by the following schemes and rules:

Equational Schemes and Rules

$$\begin{array}{l}
 (\beta_1) \quad (\lambda x : \sigma. M)N = [N/x]M \qquad (\beta_2) \quad (\lambda X. M)\tau = [\tau/X]M \\
 (\eta_1) \quad \lambda x : \sigma. Mx = M \text{ for } x \notin FV(M) \qquad (\eta_2) \quad \lambda X. MX = M \text{ for } X \notin FV(M) \\
 (\xi_1) \quad \frac{M = N}{\lambda x : \sigma. M = \lambda x : \sigma. N} \qquad (\xi_2) \quad \frac{M = N}{\lambda X. M = \lambda X. N} \\
 (\text{app}_1) \quad \frac{M_1 = M_2 \quad N_1 = N_2}{M_1 N_1 = M_2 N_2} \qquad (\text{app}_2) \quad \frac{M = N}{M\tau = N\tau} \\
 (\text{refl}) \quad M = M \qquad (\text{sym}) \quad \frac{M_1 = M_2}{M_2 = M_1} \qquad (\text{trans}) \quad \frac{M_1 = M_2 \quad M_2 = M_3}{M_1 = M_3}
 \end{array}$$

We will use the symbol \equiv for syntactic identity. For types, $\sigma = \tau$ is the same as $\sigma \equiv \tau$ while, for terms, $M \equiv N$ implies $M = N$ but not vice-versa.

Reduction of terms is defined as usual by the closure of the following rules:

$$\begin{array}{l}
 (\beta_1) \quad (\lambda x : \sigma. M)N \longrightarrow_{\beta_1} [N/x]M \qquad (\beta_2) \quad (\lambda X. M)\tau \longrightarrow_{\beta_2} [\tau/X]M \\
 (\eta_1) \quad \lambda x : \sigma. Mx \longrightarrow_{\eta_1} M \text{ for } x \notin FV(M) \qquad (\eta_2) \quad \lambda X. MX \longrightarrow_{\eta_2} M \text{ for } X \notin FV(M)
 \end{array}$$

We will write \longrightarrow_F for the union of these reductions.

The following important properties hold for system F.

Unique Typing

A well-typed term lives in a unique type: if $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma$ and $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$ then $\sigma = \tau$.

Strong Normalization

There are no infinite reduction sequences from well-typed terms.

Church-Rosser

If $M \longrightarrow_F M_1$ and $M \longrightarrow_F M_2$ then there exists an M_0 such that $M_1 \longrightarrow_F M_0$ and $M_2 \longrightarrow_F M_0$.

Equational Church-Rosser

If $M_1 = M_2$ then there exists an M_0 such that $M_1 \longrightarrow_F M_0$ and $M_2 \longrightarrow_F M_0$.

3 System Fc

System Fc is formed by adding the following equational scheme to system F:

$$\text{(Axiom C)} \quad M\tau = M\tau' \quad \text{for } \Gamma \vdash M : \forall X.\sigma \text{ and } X \notin FV(\sigma)$$

That is, if the outputs of polymorphic function M live in a type σ that does not depend on M 's input type, then the outputs are equal, regardless of the input type. Or, equivalently, M is constant.

Axiom C equates more terms than in system F. We will write $M =_F N$ for F-equations, and $M =_{Fc} N$ for Fc-equations. Clearly, Axiom C is not provable in system F. Take $x : \forall X.\sigma$ with $X \notin FV(\sigma)$, and apply Axiom C to x . This gives

$$x\tau =_{Fc} x\rho$$

These two terms would be equated in system F only if $\tau = \rho$.

Since system Fc adds no new terms, types, typing rules, or reductions, it enjoys the same *non-equational* properties as system F, such as unique typing of terms, as well as strong normalization and the Church-Rosser property (relative to \longrightarrow_F). However, a number of *equational* properties fail for Fc, in particular, the equational Church-Rosser property: for example, even though $x\tau =_{Fc} x\rho$ above, there is no common term to which both $x\tau$ and $x\rho$ reduce.

In the proof of the Genericity Theorem, it will generally be more convenient to use a term with a type substitution structure such as $[\tau/X]M$ instead of a polymorphic application $M\tau$. Thus, we may use the following formulation of Axiom C:

$$\text{(Axiom C}^*) \quad [\tau/X]M = [\tau'/X]M \quad \text{for } \Gamma \vdash M : \sigma \text{ and } X \notin FV(\Gamma) \cup FV(\sigma)$$

It is simple to prove that Axiom C and Axiom C* are equivalent. We give the proof to stress the extra side-condition $X \notin FV(\Gamma)$ on Axiom C* and its relation to the side-condition on

\forall -introduction. These conditions will appear frequently in the later proofs. We will write $M =_c N$ and $M =_{c^*} N$ if M and N are equal by only applications of Axiom C and Axiom C* respectively.

Remark: *Axiom C* is equivalent to Axiom C.*

Axiom C implies Axiom C:*

Assume that $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma$ and $X \notin FV(\Gamma) \cup FV(\sigma)$.

Since $X \notin FV(\Gamma)$, then X is not free in the type of any free term variable in M .

So, by \forall -intro, $\Gamma \vdash \lambda X.M : \forall X.\sigma$. Also, $X \notin FV(\sigma)$.

Thus, by Axiom C and β_2 , $[\tau/X]M =_{\beta_2} (\lambda X.M)\tau =_c (\lambda X.M)\tau' =_{\beta_2} [\tau'/X]M$.

Axiom C implies Axiom C:*

Assume that $\Gamma \vdash M : \forall X.\sigma$ and $X \notin FV(\sigma)$.

Let Z be a fresh variable. Then, $\Gamma \vdash MZ : \sigma$ and Z is not free in any of Γ, M, σ .

Thus, by Axiom C*, $M\tau \equiv [\tau/Z](MZ) =_{c^*} [\tau'/Z](MZ) \equiv M\tau'$. ■

4 Roadmap to the Proof of Genericity

In this section, we outline the route to the proof of the Genericity Theorem:

*Assume M and N live in the same type $\forall X.\sigma$
If $M\tau =_{Fc} N\tau$ for some type τ , then $M =_{Fc} N$*

The hard part is to prove the following Main Lemma, which is a substitution formulation of the Theorem:

*Assume M and N live in the same type σ
If $[\tau/X]M =_{Fc} [\tau/X]N$ for some type τ , then $M =_{Fc} N$*

The first remark to be made about the proof is that it is not an induction. The point is that corresponding subterms of Fc-equal terms do not need to live in the same type. The following example illustrates why.

Example: Assume $x : \forall Y.Y$ and $z : \forall Y_1.\forall Y_2.Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$.

Let X and Z be fresh type variables.

Then, Axiom C* can be applied to the term $zZX(xZ) : X$ to obtain

$$z\tau X(x\tau) =_{Fc} z\rho X(x\rho)$$

Note that subterms $z\tau X$ and $z\rho X$ live in different types.

However, this example also provides a hint to the proof of Genericity. Observe that the Fc-equality $z\tau X(x\tau) =_{Fc} z\rho X(x\rho)$ is obtained via the intermediate term $zZX(xZ)$ to

which Axiom C^* is applied. Furthermore, $z\tau X(x\tau)$ and $z\rho X(x\rho)$ are both instances of this term, using type substitutions $[\tau/Z]$ and $[\rho/Z]$ respectively. Approximately then, the hint is this: given two Fc-equal terms, construct a common term that can be instantiated to the two terms by type substitutions, and to which Axiom C^* can be applied.

The proof thus begins in Section 5 by developing the notion of a *generalizer* for second-order terms. This is a novel idea for the polymorphic λ -calculus, although it is, of course, related to generalizers and anti-unifiers of first-order calculi. Given two second-order terms that are identified by type substitutions, we construct a common term that can be instantiated, by type substitutions, to the original terms. Similarly, we can construct a common type that can be instantiated, by type substitutions, to two given types. Furthermore, if the two terms live in two different types, then the generalizer of the terms lives in the generalizer of the types. Note that this notion of generalizer uses *type* substitutions, not term substitutions (as is usual for first-order terms).

In Section 6, we use generalizers to prove the following *Weak Genericity* theorem:

Assume M and N live in the same type σ
If $[\tau/X]M =_F [\tau/X]N$ for some type τ , then $M =_{Fc} N$

The weakness arises because an F-equality is used in the premise instead of an Fc-equality. This theorem is used in the final result, and it marks an important halfway-point in the overall proof.

The proof proceeds next with a property of C^* -equality that we call *Quasi-Genericity*: if a term has a type substitution structure (is of the form $[\tau/X]M$) and Axiom C^* is applied to it, then that exact type substitution structure is preserved, that is, the result is of the form $[\tau/X]N$, and, moreover, $M =_{c^*} N$. The proof of this also uses generalizers and is given in Section 7, where we also give a counter-example to show that F-equality does **not** satisfy this property. Using Quasi-Genericity, we are able to prove another weak version of Genericity, this time with C^* -equality in the premise instead of Fc-equality:

Assume M and N live in the same type σ
If $[\tau/X]M =_{c^} [\tau/X]N$ for some type τ , then $M =_{Fc} N$*

Finally, in Section 9, we draw all the pieces together to prove the Main Lemma. This involves examining the chain of F and C^* -equalities $[\tau/X]M =_{Fc} [\tau/X]N$. Unfortunately, F-equality and C^* -equality do not commute, but, in Section 8, we show that forward $\beta_1\beta_2\eta_1$ reduction (but not η_2 reduction) commutes with C^* -equality. Using this fact, the Church-Rosser property for F-reductions, and Quasi-Genericity of C^* -equality, we “push” the $[\tau/X]$ substitution structure from $[\tau/X]M$ through the chain so that each node in the chain has the form $[\tau/X]M_i$ for some M_i with $M =_{Fc} M_i$. Finally, we use Weak Genericity of F and C^* -equality to show that the final node $[\tau/X]N$ in the chain is such that $M =_{Fc} N$. This gives the Genericity result.

5 Type and Term Generalizers

In this section, we construct a notion of *generalizer* for types and terms. In short, a generalizer of two types (terms) may be instantiated, using type substitutions, to the two types (terms), under suitable conditions. Generalizers are used in later sections, where we show that, in the case of term generalizers, the typing of the generalizer permits Axiom C^* to be applied to it, resulting in Fc-equality of the two terms.

As motivation, consider two terms M_1 and M_2 such that $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$. Then, approximately, a generalizer of M_1 and M_2 , with respect to a fresh type variable Z , is a term M_0 such that, for suitable types μ_1, μ_2 :

$$\begin{aligned} [\mu_1/Z]M_0 &\equiv M_1 \\ [\mu_2/Z]M_0 &\equiv M_2 \end{aligned}$$

In other words, if two terms can be unified as above, then we construct a common “term schema” which can be instantiated, by type substitutions, to both of them. This is an abstract notion of a generalizer though, and the generalizers that we construct here require more details, including an analysis of occurrences of τ in ρ or ρ in τ .

Definition: in_k

If there are $k \geq 0$ occurrences of type τ in type ρ , we will write $\tau in_k \rho$.

Definition: Context

Let τ, ρ, ρ' be types and let X be a type variable. We say that ρ' is an X -**context** for τ in ρ if $[\tau/X]\rho' = \rho$.

If $\tau in_k \rho$ with $k \geq 0$, then, given fresh X , there are 2^k different X -contexts for τ in ρ . We will assume given an enumeration of these contexts, which we will write as $\rho_1^X, \dots, \rho_h^X$ where $h = 2^k$. By convention, we take ρ_1^X to be ρ . For example, if $\tau = \rho$, then there are two X -contexts for τ in ρ : $\rho_1^X = \rho$ and $\rho_2^X = X$.

Substitution Convention

Let P_1, P_2 be either two terms, or two types, or two sets of variable declarations.

If $[\tau/X]P_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]P_2$ for some types τ and ρ , then we will assume, with no loss of generality, that, by variable renaming, X and Y are not free in τ and ρ .

Definition: Generalizer

Let P_1, P_2 be either two terms, or two types, or two sets of variable declarations, such that $[\tau/X]P_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]P_2$ for some types τ and ρ .

- Case: $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$.

Let $h = 2^k$. Given fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h , we say that P_0 is a Z_0, \dots, Z_h -**generalizer** of P_1 and P_2 iff X and Y are not free in P_0 and

$$\begin{aligned} [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] P_0 &\equiv P_1 \\ [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] P_0 &\equiv P_2 \end{aligned}$$

where $\rho_1^X, \dots, \rho_h^X$ are the X -contexts for τ in ρ .

- Case: $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and the previous case does not apply.

Let $h = 2^k$. Given fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h , we say that P_0 is a Z_0, \dots, Z_h -**generalizer** of P_1 and P_2 iff X and Y are not free in P_0 and

$$\begin{aligned} [\rho/Z_0, X/Z_1, \dots, X/Z_h] P_0 &\equiv P_1 \\ [Y/Z_0, \tau_1^Y/Z_1, \dots, \tau_h^Y/Z_h] P_0 &\equiv P_2 \end{aligned}$$

where $\tau_1^Y, \dots, \tau_h^Y$ are the Y -contexts for ρ in τ .

Observe that, if $\tau = \rho$, then the first case of the definition applies, by $\tau \text{ in}_1 \rho$, giving

$$\begin{aligned} [X/Z_0, \rho/Z_1, X/Z_2] P_0 &\equiv P_1 \\ [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, Y/Z_2] P_0 &\equiv P_2 \end{aligned}$$

If τ and ρ are unrelated (i.e., they do not occur in each other), then the second case applies, by $\rho \text{ in}_0 \tau$:

$$\begin{aligned} [\rho/Z_0, X/Z_1] P_0 &\equiv P_1 \\ [Y/Z_0, \tau/Z_1] P_0 &\equiv P_2 \end{aligned}$$

Indeed, no matter how τ and ρ are related, only one case of the definition applies: for example, one cannot have both $\tau \text{ in}_0 \rho$ and $\rho \text{ in}_0 \tau$, nor both $\rho \text{ in}_0 \tau$ and $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$.

Lemma 5.1 (Type Generalization)

Let σ_1, σ_2 be two types such that $[\tau/X]\sigma_1 = [\rho/Y]\sigma_2$ for some types τ and ρ . Assume that k is given either by $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$, or $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and not the previous case. Let $h = 2^k$. Given fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h , there exists a type σ_0 that is a Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizer of σ_1 and σ_2 .

Proof: Let $\sigma = [\tau/X]\sigma_1 = [\rho/Y]\sigma_2$ and perform the following markings:

- Mark in σ those occurrences of τ that derive from σ_1 by a $[\tau/X]$ substitution.
- Mark in σ those occurrences of ρ that derive from σ_2 by a $[\rho/Y]$ substitution.

Consider first the case where $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$.

Observe that some of the marked τ s may appear in a marked ρ .

Construct then σ_0 from σ by the following procedure:

1. Replace by Z_0 all marked τ s that do not occur in a marked ρ .
2. Consider now a marked ρ , possibly containing marked τ s.
 Let ρ_i^X be the corresponding X -context in ρ for the marked τ s. (If there are no marked τ s, this will be $\rho_1^X \equiv \rho$). Replace the marked ρ by Z_i .
 In the alternative case, $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and not the previous case, observe that some of the marked ρ s may appear in a marked τ . Then, apply the dual construction procedure, where the roles of ρ and τ in steps 1 and 2 are interchanged, and τ_i^Y , the Y -contexts for ρ in τ , are used instead of ρ_i^X , the X -contexts for τ in ρ . ■

In the following lemma, we show that, once fresh variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h are fixed, then the generalizer of two types is unique. This lemma makes explicit use of the substitution convention, i.e., that $X, Y \notin FV(\tau) \cup FV(\rho)$, without which it would fail.

Lemma 5.2 (Uniqueness of Type Generalizer)

Let σ_1, σ_2 be two types such that $[\tau/X]\sigma_1 = [\rho/Y]\sigma_2$ for some types τ and ρ . Assume that k is given either by $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$, or $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and not the previous case. Let $h = 2^k$. Given fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h , the Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizer of σ_1 and σ_2 is unique.

Proof: Assume first that $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$.

Let σ_0 and σ'_0 be two Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizers of σ_1, σ_2 . Then, by definition,

$$[X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] \sigma_0 = \sigma_1 = [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \quad (1)$$

$$[\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma_0 = \sigma_2 = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \quad (2)$$

with X and Y not free in σ_0 or σ'_0 . We will show that $\sigma_0 = \sigma'_0$ by induction on σ_0 .

Subcase: Assume that $\sigma_0 \equiv Z_0$. Then, (1) and (2) become

$$X = \sigma_1 = [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] \sigma'_0$$

$$\tau = \sigma_2 = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma'_0$$

We now consider the possible choices for σ'_0 . Clearly, σ'_0 cannot be X since $X \notin FV(\sigma'_0)$. Nor can σ'_0 be τ since then, (1) becomes $X = \sigma_1 = \tau$ but, by the substitution convention, $X \notin FV(\tau)$. Further, σ'_0 cannot be Z_i for some $i = 1 \dots h$, because then (2) becomes $\tau = \sigma_2 = Y$ but, by the substitution convention again, $Y \notin FV(\tau)$. The only choice is $\sigma'_0 \equiv Z_0 = \sigma_0$.

Subcase: Assume that $\sigma_0 \equiv Z_i$ for some $i = 1 \dots h$. Then, (1) and (2) become

$$\rho_i^X = \sigma_1 = [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] \sigma'_0$$

$$Y = \sigma_2 = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma'_0$$

First, σ'_0 cannot be Y since $Y \notin FV(\sigma'_0)$. Furthermore, σ'_0 cannot be ρ_i^X since, for $i = 1$, (2) becomes $Y = \sigma_2 = \rho_1^X = \rho$ but, by the substitution convention, $Y \notin FV(\rho)$, and, for $i = 2 \dots h$, $X \in FV(\rho_i^X)$ but $X \notin FV(\sigma'_0)$. Also, σ'_0 cannot be Z_0 since then, (2) becomes $Y = \sigma_2 = \tau$ but, by the substitution convention again, $Y \notin FV(\tau)$. Similarly, σ'_0 cannot be Z_j for some $j = 1 \dots h$ and $j \neq i$ since then, (1) becomes $\rho_i^X = \sigma_1 = \rho_j^X$ but $\rho_i^X \neq \rho_j^X$ for $i \neq j$. The only choice is $\sigma'_0 \equiv Z_i = \sigma_0$.

Subcase: Assume that $\sigma_0 \equiv Z \neq Z_i$ for $i = 0 \dots h$. Then, (1) and (2) become

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \sigma_1 = [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \\ Z &= \sigma_2 = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \end{aligned}$$

Since X and Y are not free in σ_0 , then $Z \neq X$ and $Z \neq Y$ and, moreover, σ'_0 cannot be Z_i for any $i = 0 \dots h$. The only choice is $\sigma'_0 \equiv Z = \sigma_0$.

Subcase: Assume that $\sigma_0 \equiv \sigma \rightarrow \mu$. Then, (1) and (2) become

$$\begin{aligned} [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] (\sigma \rightarrow \mu) &= \sigma_1 = [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \\ [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] (\sigma \rightarrow \mu) &= \sigma_2 = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \end{aligned}$$

Remark that σ'_0 cannot be Z_i for any $i = 0 \dots h$ since, then, a \rightarrow type would be on the left of (1) and (2) but a type variable would be on the right (X in (1) and Y in (2)). So, σ'_0 must be of the form $\sigma' \rightarrow \mu'$, with σ, σ' and μ, μ' satisfying equations similar to (1) and (2). By induction, $\sigma = \sigma'$ and $\mu = \mu'$. Hence, $\sigma'_0 \equiv \sigma' \rightarrow \mu' = \sigma \rightarrow \mu = \sigma_0$.

Subcase: Assume that $\sigma_0 \equiv \forall Z. \sigma$. Then, (1) and (2) become

$$\begin{aligned} [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] (\forall Z. \sigma') &= \sigma_1 = [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \\ [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] (\forall Z. \sigma') &= \sigma_2 = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma'_0 \end{aligned}$$

As with the previous case, σ'_0 cannot be Z_i for any $i = 0 \dots h$. So, σ'_0 must be of the form $\forall Z. \sigma'$. By induction, $\sigma = \sigma'$. Hence, $\sigma'_0 \equiv \forall Z. \sigma' = \forall Z. \sigma = \sigma_0$.

Treat dually $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and not the previous case. ■

Lemma 5.3

Let $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \mu_1, \mu_2$ be types such that $[\tau/X]\sigma_1 = [\rho/Y]\sigma_2$ and $[\tau/X]\mu_1 = [\rho/Y]\mu_2$. Assume that k is given either by $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$, or $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and not the previous case. Let $h = 2^k$. Given fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h , let σ_0 and μ_0 be the Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizers of σ_1, σ_2 and μ_1, μ_2 , respectively. Then, for any Z different from Z_0, \dots, Z_h , $[\mu_0/Z]\sigma_0$ is the Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizer of $[\mu_1/Z]\sigma_1$ and $[\mu_2/Z]\sigma_2$.

Proof: by expanding σ_1, σ_2 and μ_1, μ_2 in terms of their generalizers.

Lemma 5.4 (Generalization of Declarations)

Let Γ_1, Γ_2 be two sets of declarations such that $[\tau/X]\Gamma_1 = [\rho/Y]\Gamma_2$. Assume that k is given either by $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$, or $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and not the previous case. Let $h = 2^k$. Given fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h , there exists a set of declarations Γ_0 that is a unique Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizer of Γ_1 and Γ_2 .

Proof: Since $[\tau/X]\Gamma_1 = [\rho/Y]\Gamma_2$, then Γ_1 and Γ_2 must declare the same term variables.

Thus, we can assume that $\Gamma_1 \equiv \mathbf{x}_1 : \sigma_1^1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n : \sigma_n^1$ and $\Gamma_2 \equiv \mathbf{x}_1 : \sigma_1^2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n : \sigma_n^2$ with $[\tau/X]\sigma_i^1 = [\rho/Y]\sigma_i^2$ for $i = 1 \dots n$.

Furthermore, by assumption on $[\tau/X]\Gamma_1 = [\rho/Y]\Gamma_2$, the substitution convention applies to each $[\tau/X]\sigma_i^1 = [\rho/Y]\sigma_i^2$.

So, for $i = 1 \dots n$, construct the unique Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizer σ_i^0 of σ_i^1 and σ_i^2 .

Then, $\Gamma_0 \equiv \mathbf{x}_1 : \sigma_1^0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n : \sigma_n^0$ is the unique Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizer of Γ_1 and Γ_2 . ■

The next theorem is the main result of this section. It constructs a well-typed generalizer of two terms living in two *different* types. Uniqueness of type generalizers turns out to be essential in the proof (see the \rightarrow -elim case). The point to note is not just that we can construct a generalizer for M_1 and M_2 , but that we can construct one that is well-typed, and that lives in the type generalizer of the types of M_1 and M_2 .

Theorem 5.5 (Term Generalization)

Let $\Gamma_1 \vdash M_1 : \sigma_1$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash M_2 : \sigma_2$ be such that $[\tau/X]\Gamma_1 = [\rho/Y]\Gamma_2$ and $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$ for some types τ and ρ . Assume that k is given either by $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$, or $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and not the previous case. Let $h = 2^k$. Given fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h , there exist a set of declarations Γ_0 , a term M_0 , and a type σ_0 that are unique Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizers of $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2; M_1, M_2;$ and σ_1, σ_2 , respectively, and such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash M_0 : \sigma_0$.

Proof: Construct Γ_0, M_0, σ_0 by induction on the derivation of $\Gamma_1 \vdash M_1 : \sigma_1$.

Observe first that $[\tau/X]\sigma_1 = [\rho/Y]\sigma_2$ since $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$ must live in a unique type. Also, that by assumption on either $[\tau/X]\Gamma_1 = [\rho/Y]\Gamma_2$ or $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$, the substitution convention applies giving $X, Y \notin FV(\tau) \cup FV(\rho)$.

(In the proof, we will write just “generalizer” instead of “ Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizer”).

Case: Assume that $\Gamma_1 \vdash M_1 : \sigma_1$ by a variable declaration in Γ_1 .

Then, $M_1 \equiv x$ and $x : \sigma_1 \in \Gamma_1$.

From the assumption $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$, we obtain $M_2 \equiv x$.

Furthermore, because $\Gamma_2 \vdash M_2 : \sigma_2$, then $x : \sigma_2 \in \Gamma_2$.

Take now Γ_0 to be the unique generalizer of Γ_1, Γ_2 by Lemma 5.4,

and σ_0 to be the unique generalizer of σ_1, σ_2 by Type Generalization (Lemma 5.1).

Observe that, by construction, $x : \sigma_0 \in \Gamma_0$, from which $\Gamma_0 \vdash x : \sigma_0$.

Since x is clearly the only generalizer of $M_1 \equiv x$ and $M_2 \equiv x$, take $M_0 \equiv x$.

Case: Assume that $\Gamma_1 \vdash M_1 : \sigma_1$ is derived by \rightarrow -intro.

Then, $M_1 \equiv \lambda x : \mu_1. M'_1$ and $\sigma_1 \equiv \mu_1 \rightarrow \rho_1$ with $\Gamma_1, x : \mu_1 \vdash M'_1 : \rho_1$.

From $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$, we obtain $M_2 \equiv \lambda x : \mu_2. M'_2$

with $[\tau/X]\mu_1 = [\rho/Y]\mu_2$ and $[\tau/X]M'_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M'_2$.

Furthermore, because $\Gamma_2 \vdash M_2 : \sigma_2$, then $\sigma_2 \equiv \mu_2 \rightarrow \rho_2$ and $\Gamma_2, x : \mu_2 \vdash M'_2 : \rho_2$.

Consider now $\Gamma_1, x : \mu_1 \vdash M'_1 : \rho_1$ and $\Gamma_2, x : \mu_2 \vdash M'_2 : \rho_2$.

By induction, there exist unique generalizers: Γ'_0 of $(\Gamma_1, x : \mu_1), (\Gamma_2, x : \mu_2)$; M'_0 of M'_1, M'_2 ; and ρ_0 of ρ_1, ρ_2 , such that $\Gamma'_0 \vdash M'_0 : \rho_0$.

But, since generalizers of types and sets of declarations are unique, then Γ'_0 must be $\Gamma_0, x : \mu_0$ where Γ_0 and μ_0 are unique generalizers of Γ_1, Γ_2 and μ_1, μ_2 , respectively.

So, in fact, $\Gamma_0, x : \mu_0 \vdash M'_0 : \rho_0$, from which, by \rightarrow -intro, $\Gamma_0 \vdash \lambda x : \mu_0. M'_0 : \mu_0 \rightarrow \rho_0$.

Clearly, $\lambda x : \mu_0. M'_0$ and $\mu_0 \rightarrow \rho_0$ are generalizers of M_1, M_2 and σ_1, σ_2 .

Moreover, $\mu_0 \rightarrow \rho_0$ is unique by the uniqueness of type generalizers, and $\lambda x : \mu_0. M'_0$ is unique because any other generalizer of M_1, M_2 would be of the form $\lambda x : \mu'_0. M''_0$ giving further generalizers, μ'_0 and M''_0 , of μ_1, μ_2 and M'_1, M'_2 , which is impossible.

Hence, take $M_0 \equiv \lambda x : \mu_0. M'_0$ and $\sigma_0 \equiv \mu_0 \rightarrow \rho_0$.

Case: Assume that $\Gamma_1 \vdash M_1 : \sigma_1$ is derived by \rightarrow -elim.

Then, $M_1 \equiv M'_1 N'_1$ with $\Gamma_1 \vdash M'_1 : \rho_1 \rightarrow \sigma_1$ and $\Gamma_1 \vdash N'_1 : \rho_1$.

From $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$, we obtain $M_2 \equiv M'_2 N'_2$
with $[\tau/X]M'_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M'_2$ and $[\tau/X]N'_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N'_2$.

Furthermore, because $\Gamma_2 \vdash M_2 : \sigma_2$, then $\Gamma_2 \vdash M'_2 : \rho_2 \rightarrow \sigma_2$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash N'_2 : \rho_2$.

Consider now $\Gamma_1 \vdash N'_1 : \rho_1$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash N'_2 : \rho_2$.

By induction, there exist unique generalizers: Γ_0 of Γ_1, Γ_2 ; N'_0 of N'_1, N'_2 ; and ρ_0 of ρ_1, ρ_2 , such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash N'_0 : \rho_0$.

Consider also $\Gamma_1 \vdash M'_1 : \rho_1 \rightarrow \sigma_1$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash M'_2 : \rho_2 \rightarrow \sigma_2$.

By induction, there exist unique generalizers: M'_0 of M'_1, M'_2 and ρ' of $\rho_1 \rightarrow \sigma_1, \rho_2 \rightarrow \sigma_2$, such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 : \rho'$.

But by the uniqueness of type generalizers, ρ' must be $\rho_0 \rightarrow \sigma_0$, where ρ_0 and σ_0 are unique generalizers of ρ_1, ρ_2 and σ_1, σ_2 , respectively.

Thus, we have $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 : \rho_0 \rightarrow \sigma_0$ and $\Gamma_0 \vdash N'_0 : \rho_0$. So, by \rightarrow -elim, $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 N'_0 : \sigma_0$.

Since $M'_0 N'_0$ is clearly a generalizer of M_1, M_2 , with uniqueness proven as in the previous case, take $M_0 \equiv M'_0 N'_0$.

Case: Assume that $\Gamma_1 \vdash M_1 : \sigma_1$ is derived by \forall -intro.

Then, $M_1 \equiv \lambda Z. M'_1$ and $\sigma_1 \equiv \forall Z. \mu_1$ with $\Gamma_1 \vdash M'_1 : \mu_1$, and Z not free in the type of any free term variable in M'_1 (by the side-condition on \forall -intro).

From $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$, we obtain $M_2 \equiv \lambda Z. M'_2$ with $[\tau/X]M'_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M'_2$.

Furthermore, because $\Gamma_2 \vdash M_2 : \sigma_2$, then $\sigma_2 \equiv \forall Z. \mu_2$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash M'_2 : \mu_2$
with Z not free in the type of any free term variable in M'_2 .

Consider now $\Gamma_1 \vdash M'_1 : \mu_1$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash M'_2 : \mu_2$.

By induction, there exist unique generalizers: Γ_0 of Γ_1, Γ_2 ; M'_0 of M'_1, M'_2 ; and μ_0 of μ_1, μ_2 , such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 : \mu_0$.

Observe now that Z is not free in the type of any free term variable in M'_0 , since, by the definition of generalizer, M'_0 contains exactly the free term variables of M'_1, M'_2 .

Thus, we can apply \forall -intro to $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 : \mu_0$ to obtain $\Gamma_0 \vdash \lambda Z. M'_0 : \forall Z. \mu_0$.

Clearly, $\lambda Z. M'_0$ and $\forall Z. \mu_0$ are generalizers of M_1, M_2 and σ_1, σ_2 , respectively. Their uniqueness follows as before. Hence, take $M_0 \equiv \lambda Z. M'_0$ and $\sigma_0 \equiv \forall Z. \mu_0$.

Case: Assume that $\Gamma_1 \vdash M_1 : \sigma_1$ is derived by \forall -elim.

Then, $M_1 \equiv M'_1 \mu_1$ and $\sigma_1 \equiv [\mu_1/Z] \rho_1$ with $\Gamma_1 \vdash M'_1 : \forall Z. \rho_1$.

From $[\tau/X]M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M_2$, we obtain $M_2 \equiv M'_2 \mu_2$

with $[\tau/X]M'_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]M'_2$ and $[\tau/X]\mu_1 = [\rho/Y]\mu_2$.

Furthermore, since $\Gamma_2 \vdash M_2 : \sigma_2$, then $\Gamma_2 \vdash M'_2 : \forall Z. \rho_2$ and $\sigma_2 \equiv [\mu_2/Z] \rho_2$.

Consider now $\Gamma_1 \vdash M'_1 : \forall Z. \rho_1$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash M'_2 : \forall Z. \rho_2$.

By induction, there exist unique generalizers: Γ_0 of Γ_1, Γ_2 ; M'_0 of M'_1, M'_2 ; and ρ' of $\forall Z. \rho_1, \forall Z. \rho_2$, such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 : \rho'$.

By unicity of type generalizers, $\rho' \equiv \forall Z. \rho_0$, where ρ_0 is the generalizer of ρ_1, ρ_2 .

Thus, we have $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 : \forall Z. \rho_0$, from which, by \forall -elim, $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 \mu_0 : [\mu_0/Z] \rho_0$
where μ_0 is the unique generalizer of μ_1, μ_2 by Type Generalization (Lemma 5.1).

Clearly, $M'_0 \mu_0$ is a generalizer of M_1, M_2 , with uniqueness proven as before.

Furthermore, by Lemma 5.3, $[\mu_0/Z] \rho_0$ is the unique generalizer of $\sigma_1 \equiv [\mu_1/Z] \rho_1$,

$\sigma_2 \equiv [\mu_2/Z] \rho_2$. Hence, take $M_0 \equiv M'_0 \mu_0$ and $\sigma_0 \equiv [\mu_0/Z] \rho_0$. ■

6 Weak Genericity of F-equality

In this section, we prove a weak form of Genericity that will be used in the final proof. The weakness or asymmetry arises because $=_F$ is used in the premise instead of $=_{Fc}$. Generalizers are a key tool in the proof. We first need the following lemma about simultaneous substitutions.

Lemma 6.1

Given type σ , if $[\tau_1/X_1, \dots, \tau_n/X_n]\sigma = [\rho_1/X_1, \dots, \rho_n/X_n]\sigma$ and $\tau_i \neq \rho_i$ for some $1 \leq i \leq n$, then X_i is not free in σ .

Proof: by induction on the structure of σ . Note that the substitution convention is used to assume that X_1, \dots, X_n are not free in $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n, \rho_1, \dots, \rho_n$. ■

Theorem 6.2 (Weak Genericity of F-equality)

Let $\Gamma \vdash M_1, M_2 : \sigma$. If $[\tau/X]M_1 =_F [\tau/X]M_2$ for some type τ , then $M_1 =_{Fc} M_2$.

Proof: Let M'_1 and M'_2 be the normal forms of M_1 and M_2 .

Then, $\Gamma \vdash M'_1, M'_2 : \sigma$ since normalization preserves typing.

Further, since reduction is type-substitutive¹, and since type substitution preserves normal forms, then, from $[\tau/X]M_1 =_F [\tau/X]M_2$, we obtain $[\tau/X]M'_1 \equiv [\tau/X]M'_2$.

We now apply Term Generalization to

$$[\tau/X]M'_1 \equiv [\tau/X]M'_2 \quad (3)$$

We are in the situation $\tau = \rho$ so the first case of the definition of generalizer applies, i.e. $h = 1$. Thus, choose fresh type variables Z_0, Z_1, Z_2 .

By Term Generalization (Theorem 5.5), there exist unique Z_0, Z_1, Z_2 -generalizers: Γ_0 of Γ, Γ ; M'_0 of M'_1, M'_2 ; and σ_0 of σ, σ , such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash M'_0 : \sigma_0$.

By the definition of generalizer, we have

$$[X/Z_0, \tau/Z_1, X/Z_2]\Gamma_0 = \Gamma = [\tau/Z_0, X/Z_1, X/Z_2]\Gamma_0$$

$$[X/Z_0, \tau/Z_1, X/Z_2]\sigma_0 = \sigma = [\tau/Z_0, X/Z_1, X/Z_2]\sigma_0$$

Now, by the substitution convention applied to (3), $X \notin FV(\tau)$.

So, certainly, $\tau \neq X$. We can thus apply Lemma 6.1 to the above two equations to obtain Z_0 and Z_1 not free in Γ_0 and σ_0 .

Hence, we can apply Axiom C* to M'_0 for Z_0, Z_1 in the following:

$$\begin{aligned} M_1 &=_{Fc} M'_1 && M'_1 \text{ is the normal form of } M_1 \\ &\equiv [X/Z_0, \tau/Z_1, X/Z_2] M'_0 && M'_0 \text{ is the generalizer of } M'_1, M'_2 \\ &=_{Fc} [\tau/Z_0, X/Z_1, X/Z_2] M'_0 && \text{by Axiom C*} \\ &\equiv M'_2 && M'_0 \text{ is the generalizer of } M'_1, M'_2 \\ &=_{Fc} M_2 && M'_2 \text{ is the normal form of } M_2 \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

¹If M reduces to M' then $[\tau/X]M$ reduces to $[\tau/X]M'$ (cf. [Bar84, page 55]).

7 Quasi-Genericity of C^* -equality

This section shows that applications of Axiom C^* preserve the type substitution structure of terms. That is, if Axiom C^* is applied to a term of the form $[\tau/X]M$, then the result is a term of the form $[\tau/X]N$ with $M =_{c^*} N$. We call this property *Quasi-Genericity* of C^* -equality (since it resembles genericity), and the proof of this uses generalizers.

We will write $M \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N$ if M and N are made equal by one application of Axiom C^* only, and $M =_{c^*} N$ if Axiom C^* is applied zero or more times. Clearly, if $M \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N$, then the single application of Axiom C^* may have been made either to a proper subterm of M , or to the entire term M . Note, however, that an application of Axiom C^* to a term cannot always be split into applications to subterms, as the example of Section 4 shows.

Theorem 7.1 (Quasi-Genericity of C^* -equality)

If $[\tau/X]M =_{c^*} N'$ then there exists a term N such that $M =_{c^*} N$ and $[\tau/X]N \equiv N'$.

Proof: Construct N by induction on the number of C^* -applications in $[\tau/X]M =_{c^*} N'$.

Clearly, if there are 0 applications, i.e., $[\tau/X]M \equiv N'$, then take $N \equiv M$.

We consider here only the case, $[\tau/X]M \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N'$, as the inductive case is obvious by transitivity.

Assume thus that $[\tau/X]M \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N'$. Then, as remarked above, Axiom C^* is applied either to a proper subterm of $[\tau/X]M$, or to $[\tau/X]M$ itself.

If Axiom C^* is applied to a proper subterm of $[\tau/X]M$, the theorem is proven by straightforward induction on the structure of M .

Consider then the case when Axiom C^* is applied to $[\tau/X]M$ itself.

We assume, with no loss of generality, that, by variable renaming, $X \notin FV(N')$.

Then, by the definition of Axiom C^* , there exists a term M' , types ρ, ρ' , and a type variable Y , such that

$$[\tau/X]M \equiv [\rho/Y]M' \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} [\rho'/Y]M' \equiv N' \quad (4)$$

where, for $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma$, we have $\Gamma \vdash M' : \sigma'$, and Y not free in Γ nor σ' .

Since Axiom C^* is actually applied, then $Y \in FV(M')$ and, thus, $X \notin FV(\rho')$, else X would be free in N' , against the assumption.

We now apply Term Generalization to $[\tau/X]M \equiv [\rho/Y]M'$.

Case: Assume that $\tau \text{ in}_k \rho$ for $k > 0$.

Choose fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h where $h = 2^k$.

By Term Generalization (Theorem 5.5), there exist unique Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizers: Γ_0 of $\Gamma, \Gamma; M_0$ of M, M' ; and σ_0 of σ, σ' , such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash M_0 : \sigma_0$.

Observe now that, by the definition of generalizer, we have

$$\Gamma = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \Gamma_0 \text{ and } \sigma' = [\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] \sigma_0$$

But since we also have Y not free in Γ or σ' , then Z_1, \dots, Z_h cannot be free in Γ_0 or σ_0 .

Hence, since $\Gamma_0 \vdash M_0 : \sigma_0$, we can apply Axiom C^* to M_0 for the variables Z_1, \dots, Z_h .

Thus, if we take

$$N \equiv [X/Z_0, \rho'/Z_1, \dots, \rho'/Z_h] M_0$$

we get the desired result, as

$$\begin{aligned} M &\equiv [X/Z_0, \rho_1^X/Z_1, \dots, \rho_h^X/Z_h] M_0 && M_0 \text{ is the generalizer of } M, M' \\ &=_{c^*} [X/Z_0, \rho'/Z_1, \dots, \rho'/Z_h] M_0 && \text{by Axiom } C^* \\ &\equiv N \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} [\tau/X] N &\equiv [\tau/Z_0, \rho'/Z_1, \dots, \rho'/Z_h] M_0 && \text{since } X \notin FV(\rho') \\ &\equiv [\rho'/Y][\tau/Z_0, Y/Z_1, \dots, Y/Z_h] M_0 && \text{by rearranging substitutions} \\ &\equiv [\rho'/Y] M' && M_0 \text{ is the generalizer of } M, M' \\ &\equiv N' && \text{by (4)} \end{aligned}$$

Case: Assume that $\rho \text{ in}_k \tau$ for $k \geq 0$ and the previous case does not apply.

Choose fresh type variables Z_0, \dots, Z_h where $h = 2^k$.

By Term Generalization (Theorem 5.5), there exist unique Z_0, \dots, Z_h -generalizers: Γ_0 of Γ, Γ ; M_0 of M, M' ; and σ_0 of σ, σ' , such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash M_0 : \sigma_0$.

Observe now that, by the definition of generalizer,

we have $\Gamma = [Y/Z_0, \tau/Z_1, \tau_2^Y/Z_2, \dots, \tau_h^Y/Z_h] \Gamma_0$

and $\sigma' = [Y/Z_0, \tau/Z_1, \tau_2^Y/Z_2, \dots, \tau_h^Y/Z_h] \sigma_0$.

But, we also have that Y is not free in Γ or σ' ,

so Z_0, Z_2, \dots, Z_h cannot be free in Γ_0 or σ_0 .

Hence, since $\Gamma_0 \vdash M_0 : \sigma_0$, we can apply Axiom C^* to M_0 for Z_0, Z_2, \dots, Z_h .

Let $\tau'_i \equiv [\rho'/Y] \tau_i^Y$. Then, if we take

$$N \equiv [\rho'/Z_0, X/Z_1, \tau'_2/Z_2, \dots, \tau'_h/Z_h] M_0$$

we get the desired result, as

$$\begin{aligned} M &\equiv [\rho/Z_0, X/Z_1, X/Z_2, \dots, X/Z_h] M_0 && M_0 \text{ is the generalizer of } M, M' \\ &=_{c^*} [\rho'/Z_0, X/Z_1, \tau'_2/Z_2, \dots, \tau'_h/Z_h] M_0 && \text{by Axiom } C^* \\ &\equiv N \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} [\tau/X] N &\equiv [\rho'/Z_0, \tau/Z_1, \tau'_2/Z_2, \dots, \tau'_h/Z_h] M_0 && \text{since } X \notin FV(\rho') \\ &\equiv [\rho'/Y][Y/Z_0, \tau/Z_1, \tau_2^Y/Z_2, \dots, \tau_h^Y/Z_h] M_0 && \\ & && \text{by rearranging substitutions} \\ &\equiv [\rho'/Y] M' && M_0 \text{ is the generalizer of } M, M' \\ &\equiv N' && \text{by (4)} \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

The next theorem is another weak form of Genericity, with C^* -equality in the premise instead of Fc-equality. Quasi-Genericity is used in the proof.

Theorem 7.2 (Weak-Genericity of C*-equality)

Let $\Gamma \vdash M_1, M_2 : \sigma$. If $[\tau/X]M_1 =_{c^*} [\tau/X]M_2$ for some type τ , then $M_1 =_{F_c} M_2$.

Proof: Apply Quasi-Genericity of C*-equality (Theorem 7.1) to $[\tau/X]M_1 =_{c^*} [\tau/X]M_2$.

Thus, there exists a term N such that $M_1 =_{F_c} N$ and $[\tau/X]N \equiv [\tau/X]M_2$.

Observe that, since $M_1 =_{F_c} N$, then N must live in σ , the type of M_1 and M_2 .

Apply now Weak Genericity of F-equality (Theorem 6.2) to $[\tau/X]N \equiv [\tau/X]M_2$.

Then, $N =_{F_c} M_2$. Hence, $M_1 =_{F_c} N =_{F_c} M_2$. ■

Note that the property of preserving type substitution structure does **not** hold for F-equality. Backward β_2 reduction causes problems as witnessed by the following counter-example. Assume x has type $\forall Y.Y$. Take $M \equiv xX$ with $\tau \equiv \sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2$ and $N' \equiv (\lambda Z.x(Z \rightarrow \sigma_2))\sigma_1$. Then,

$$[\tau/X]M \equiv x(\sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2) \quad \beta_2 \longleftarrow \quad (\lambda Z.x(Z \rightarrow \sigma_2))\sigma_1 \equiv N'$$

Now, since $\tau \equiv \sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2$ does not occur in N' , then any N such that $[\tau/X]N \equiv N'$ cannot contain X free. Thus, $N \equiv [\tau/X]N \equiv N'$, and N has type τ . But M has type X . Hence, $M = N$ is impossible since they live in different types.

However, all forward reductions preserve type substitution structure, as does backward η_2 reduction. Proofs of these are straightforward.

Fact 7.3

If $[\tau/X]M \longrightarrow_F N'$ then there exists a term N such that $M \longrightarrow_F N$ and $[\tau/X]N \equiv N'$.

Fact 7.4

If $[\tau/X]M \eta_2 \longleftarrow N'$ then there exists a term N such that $M \eta_2 \longleftarrow N$ and $[\tau/X]N \equiv N'$.

8 Commutativity of C*-equality with Reduction

This section describes the commutativity of C*-equality with reduction. It turns out that C*-equality commutes with β_1 , β_2 , and η_1 reductions but **not** with η_2 reduction. To see this last point, take M of type $\forall Z.\sigma$ with $Z \notin FV(\sigma)$, and X fresh. Then, because $\lambda X.M\tau$ does not η_2 -reduce to M , we cannot complete the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \lambda X.MX & =_c & \lambda X.M\tau \\ \downarrow \eta_2 & & \\ M & & \end{array}$$

We need the following lemma about the substitutivity of C^* -equality.

Lemma 8.1 (Substitutivity of C^* -equality)

If $M_1 =_{c^*} M_2$ and $N_1 =_{c^*} N_2$ then $[N_1/x]M_1 =_{c^*} [N_2/x]M_2$ and $[\tau/X]M_1 =_{c^*} [\tau/X]M_2$.

Proof: An easy induction on the structure of M_1 . ■

We now prove that C^* -equality commutes with $\beta_1\beta_2\eta_1$ reduction, first for the one-step case, then for the multi-step case. Note that, in the one-step case, a multi-step C^* -equality completes the commuting diagram.

Lemma 8.2 (One-Step Commutativity)

If $M \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N$ then there exists a term N' such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} & N \\ \beta_1\beta_2\eta_1 \downarrow 1 & & \downarrow 1 \\ M' & =_{c^*} & N' \end{array}$$

Proof: By case analysis of $M \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_1\beta_2\eta_1} M'$ and $M \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N$.

Since $\beta_1\beta_2\eta_1$ is substitutive, we can assume that the reduction is applied directly to M , ignoring the cases where it is applied to a subterm or superterm of M .

Case: $(\lambda x : \mu.M_1)M_2 \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_1} [M_2/x]M_1$.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C^* is applied to M_1 .

Then, $M_1 \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N_1$ and $(\lambda x : \mu.M_1)M_2 \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} (\lambda x : \mu.N_1)M_2$.

Clearly, $(\lambda x : \mu.N_1)M_2 \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_1} [M_2/x]N_1$.

And, by Lemma 8.1, $[M_2/x]M_1 =_{c^*} [M_2/x]N_1$.

Therefore, take $N' \equiv [M_2/x]N_1$.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C^* is applied to M_2 .

Then, $M_2 \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N_2$ and $(\lambda x : \mu.M_1)M_2 \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} (\lambda x : \mu.M_1)N_2$.

Clearly, $(\lambda x : \mu.M_1)N_2 \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_1} [N_2/x]M_1$.

And, by Lemma 8.1, $[M_2/x]M_1 =_{c^*} [N_2/x]M_1$.

Therefore, take $N' \equiv [N_2/x]M_1$.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C^* is applied to $\lambda x : \mu.M_1$.

Then, by the definition of Axiom C^* , there exist ν, N_1, ρ, ρ', Y such that

$\lambda x : \mu.M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y](\lambda x : \nu.N_1) \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} [\rho'/Y](\lambda x : \nu.N_1)$

with $\mu = [\rho/Y]\nu$ and $M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1$,

and $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : \nu.N_1 : \nu \rightarrow \sigma$, and Y not free in Γ or $\nu \rightarrow \sigma$.

Clearly, Y is also not free in ν . Hence, $\mu = [\rho/Y]\nu = \nu$.

Moreover, Y is not free in σ , the type of N_1 .

Therefore, Axiom C^* is applied to $M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1$, and that subcase applies.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C* is applied to $(\lambda x : \mu.M_1)M_2$.

Then, by the definition of Axiom C*, there exist $\nu, N_1, N_2, \rho, \rho', Y$ such that

$$(\lambda x : \mu.M_1)M_2 \equiv [\rho/Y]((\lambda x : \nu.N_1)N_2) \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} [\rho'/Y]((\lambda x : \nu.N_1)N_2)$$

with $\mu = [\rho/Y]\nu$, $M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1$, $M_2 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_2$,

and $\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x : \nu.N_1)N_2 : \sigma$, and Y not free in Γ or σ .

Since $\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x : \nu.N_1)N_2 : \sigma$, then $\Gamma \vdash [N_2/x]N_1 : \sigma$.

Axiom C* can thus be applied to $[N_2/x]N_1$.

Hence, take $N' \equiv [\rho'/Y][N_2/x]N_1$, for then

$$\begin{aligned} [M_2/x]M_1 &\equiv [\rho/Y][N_2/x]N_1 && \text{since } M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1 \text{ and } M_2 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_2 \\ &=_{c^*} [\rho'/Y][N_2/x]N_1 && \text{by Axiom C*} \end{aligned}$$

and $[\rho'/Y]((\lambda x : \nu.N_1)N_2) \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_1} [\rho'/Y][N_2/x]N_1$, since β_1 is substitutive.

Case: $(\lambda X.M_1)\mu \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_2} [\mu/X]M_1$.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C* is applied to M_1 .

Then, $M_1 \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N_1$ and $(\lambda X.M_1)\mu \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} (\lambda X.N_1)\mu$.

Clearly, $(\lambda X.N_1)\mu \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_2} [\mu/X]N_1$.

And, by Lemma 8.1, $[\mu/X]M_1 =_{c^*} [\mu/X]N_1$.

Therefore, take $N' \equiv [\mu/X]N_1$.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C* is applied to $\lambda X.M_1$.

Then, by the definition of Axiom C*, there exist N_1, ρ, ρ', Y such that

$$\lambda X.M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y](\lambda X.N_1) \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} [\rho'/Y](\lambda X.N_1)$$

with $M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1$, and $\Gamma \vdash \lambda X.N_1 : \forall X.\sigma$, and Y not free in Γ or $\forall X.\sigma$.

Clearly, Y is not free in σ , the type of N_1 .

Axiom C* is therefore applied to $M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1$ and that subcase applies.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C* is applied to $(\lambda X.M_1)\mu$.

Then, by the definition of Axiom C*, there exist N_1, ν, ρ, ρ', Y such that

$$(\lambda X.M_1)\mu \equiv [\rho/Y]((\lambda X.N_1)\nu) \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} [\rho'/Y]((\lambda X.N_1)\nu)$$

with $M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1$ and $\mu = [\rho/Y]\nu$,

and $\Gamma \vdash (\lambda X.N_1)\nu : \sigma$, and Y not free in Γ or σ .

Since $\Gamma \vdash (\lambda X.N_1)\nu : \sigma$, then $\Gamma \vdash [\nu/X]N_1 : \sigma$.

Axiom C* can thus be applied to $[\nu/X]N_1$.

Hence, take $N' \equiv [\rho'/Y][\nu/X]N_1$, for then

$$\begin{aligned} [\mu/X]M_1 &\equiv [\rho/Y][\nu/X]N_1 && \text{since } \mu \equiv [\rho/Y]\nu \text{ and } M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1 \\ &=_{c^*} [\rho'/Y][\nu/X]N_1 && \text{by Axiom C*} \end{aligned}$$

and $[\rho'/Y]((\lambda X.N_1)\nu) \xrightarrow{1}_{\beta_2} [\rho'/Y][\nu/X]N_1$, since β_2 is substitutive.

Case: $\lambda x : \mu.M_1x \xrightarrow{1}_{\eta_1} M_1$ with x not free in M_1 .

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C* is applied to M_1 .

Then, $M_1 \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N_1$ and $\lambda x : \mu.M_1x \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} \lambda x : \mu.N_1x$.

Now, since x is not free in M_1 and since Axiom C* does not affect term variables,

then x is also not free in N_1 . Thus, $\lambda x : \mu.N_1x \xrightarrow{1}_{\eta_1} N_1$.

Therefore, take $N' \equiv N_1$.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C^* is applied to M_1x .

Then, by the definition of Axiom C^* , there exist N_1, ρ, ρ', Y such that

$$M_1x \equiv [\rho/Y](N_1x) \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} [\rho'/Y](N_1x)$$

with $M_1 = [\rho/Y]N_1$, and $\Gamma, x : \mu \vdash N_1x : \sigma$, and Y not free in $\Gamma, x : \mu$ or σ .

Clearly, Y is also not free in $\mu \rightarrow \sigma$, the type of N_1 .

Axiom C^* is therefore applied to $M_1 \equiv [\rho/Y]N_1$ and that subcase applies.

Subcase: Assume that Axiom C^* is applied to $\lambda x : \mu. M_1x$.

Then, by the definition of Axiom C^* , there exist ν, N_1, ρ, ρ', Y such that

$$\lambda x : \mu. M_1x \equiv [\rho/Y](\lambda x : \nu. N_1x) \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} [\rho'/Y](\lambda x : \nu. N_1x)$$

with $\mu = [\rho/Y]\nu$ and $M_1 = [\rho/Y]N_1$,

and $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : \nu. N_1x : \nu \rightarrow \sigma$, and Y not free in Γ or $\nu \rightarrow \sigma$.

Y is therefore not free in ν , so, $\mu = [\rho/Y]\nu = \nu$.

Also, Y is not free in σ , the type of N_1x .

Axiom C^* is thus applied to $M_1x \equiv [\rho/Y](N_1x)$, and that subcase applies. ■

Theorem 8.3 (Commutativity)

$$\text{If } \begin{array}{c} M \\ \beta_1\beta_2\eta_1 \downarrow \\ M' \end{array} \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N \quad \text{then there exists a term } N' \text{ such that } \begin{array}{c} M \\ \beta_1\beta_2\eta_1 \downarrow \\ M' \end{array} \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} \begin{array}{c} N \\ \beta_1\beta_2\eta_1 \downarrow \\ N' \end{array}$$

Proof: By decomposing the multi-step C^* -equalities and $\beta_1\beta_2\eta_1$ -reductions into single steps, and using One-Step Commutativity (Lemma 8.2) to complete the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} M & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} & N_1 & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} & \dots & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} & N \\ \beta_1\beta_2\eta_1 \downarrow & & \downarrow & & & & \downarrow \\ M'_1 & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} & N_{11} & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} \dots \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} & N_{1i} & \dots & \\ \beta_1\beta_2\eta_1 \downarrow & & \downarrow & & & & \vdots \\ M'_2 & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} \dots \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} & N_{2j} & \dots & & & \\ \vdots & & & & & & \vdots \\ \beta_1\beta_2\eta_1 \downarrow & & & & & & \downarrow \\ M' \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} \dots & & \dots & & \dots & & \stackrel{1}{=}_{c^*} N' \end{array}$$

■

9 The Genericity Theorem

Finally, in this section, we prove the Main Lemma that leads to the Genericity Theorem. We first need the following lemma:

Lemma 9.1 (η_2 -postponement)

If $M \rightarrow_F M'$ then there exists a term M'' such that $M \rightarrow_{\beta_1\beta_2\eta_1} M'' \rightarrow_{\eta_2} M'$.

Proof: Easy; see [BS93]. ■

Lemma 9.2 (Main)

Let $\Gamma \vdash M, N : \sigma$. If $[\tau/X]M =_{Fc} [\tau/X]N$ for some type τ , then $M =_{Fc} N$.

Proof: Observe first that the chain of Fc-equalities from $[\tau/X]M$ to $[\tau/X]N$ can be written:

$$[\tau/X]M =_F M''_1 =_{c^*} M''_2 =_F M''_3 =_{c^*} \dots =_F M''_{n-1} =_{c^*} M''_n =_F [\tau/X]N$$

that is, as alternations of F-equalities and C^* -equalities with the initial and final equalities being F-equalities. These initial or final F-equalities may be just trivial syntactic identities if, in fact, a C^* -equality starts or ends the chain.

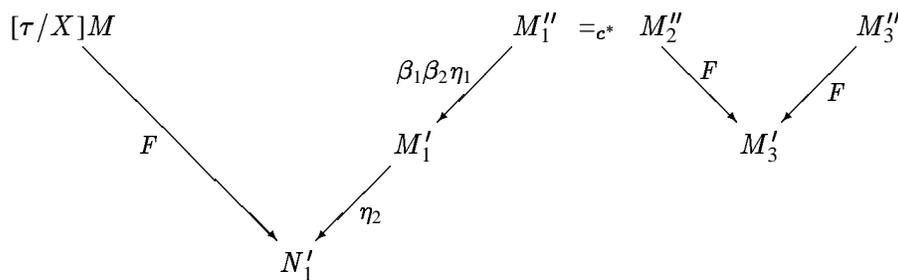
Case: The chain consists entirely of F-equalities, i.e., $[\tau/X]M =_F [\tau/X]N$. Then, by Weak Genericity of F-equality (Theorem 6.2), we have the result $M =_{Fc} N$.

Case: The chain consists entirely of C^* -equalities, i.e., $[\tau/X]M =_{c^*} [\tau/X]N$. Then, by Weak Genericity of C^* -equality (Theorem 7.2), $M =_{Fc} N$.

Case: There is at least one (non-trivial) C^* -equality and one (non-trivial) F-equality. We proceed with a series of transformations on the chain, starting with the first three links:

$$[\tau/X]M =_F M''_1 =_{c^*} M''_2 =_F M''_3$$

First, as a consequence of the equational Church-Rosser property for F, transform the F-equalities into reductions. Then, apply η_2 -postponement (Lemma 9.1) to the reduction sequence from M''_1 . Thus, there exist terms M'_1, M'_3, N'_1 such that:



From here on, we work with the transformed chain. Consider now the start of it:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} [\tau/X]M & & M'_1 =_{c^*} M'_2 \\ & \searrow F & \swarrow \eta_2 \\ & N'_1 & \end{array}$$

- By Fact 7.3, there exists N_1 such that $N'_1 \equiv [\tau/X]N_1$ and $M \dashrightarrow_F N_1$.
- By Fact 7.4, there exists M_1 such that $M'_1 \equiv [\tau/X]M_1$ and $N_1 \dashrightarrow_{\eta_2} M_1$.
- By Quasi-Genericity of C^* -equality (Theorem 7.1), there exists M_2 such that $M'_2 \equiv [\tau/X]M_2$ and $M_1 =_{c^*} M_2$.

Thus, we have

$$\begin{array}{ccc} [\tau/X]M & & [\tau/X]M_1 \equiv M'_1 =_{c^*} M'_2 \equiv [\tau/X]M_2 \\ & \searrow F & \swarrow \eta_2 \\ & N'_1 \equiv [\tau/X]N_1 & \end{array}$$

with $M \dashrightarrow_F N_1 \dashrightarrow_{\eta_2} M_1 =_{c^*} M_2$. Hence, $M =_{F_c} M_2$.

Now, iterate this process along the chain from $M'_2 \equiv [\tau/X]M_2$.

We thus “push” the type substitution $[\tau/X]$ along the chain so that, eventually, for M'_n , the penultimate term of the chain, there exists a term M_n such that $M'_n \equiv [\tau/X]M_n$ and $M =_{F_c} M_n$. Apply then Weak Genericity of F-equality (Theorem 6.2) to the last link $[\tau/X]M_n \equiv M'_n =_F [\tau/X]N$. This gives $M_n =_{F_c} N$.

Since $M =_{F_c} M_n$, then $M =_{F_c} N$ as required. ■

Theorem 9.3 (Genericity)

Let $\Gamma \vdash M, N : \forall X.\sigma$. If $M\tau =_{F_c} N\tau$ for some type τ , then $M =_{F_c} N$.

Proof: Choose a fresh type variable Z .

Then, $\Gamma \vdash MZ, NZ : [Z/X]\sigma$ and $[\tau/Z](MZ) \equiv M\tau =_{F_c} N\tau \equiv [\tau/Z](NZ)$

Hence, applying the Main Lemma (Lemma 9.2), $MZ =_{F_c} NZ$.

Observe that Z fresh means Z not free in the type of any free term variable in MZ or NZ .

So, by \forall -intro, $\lambda Z.MZ$ and $\lambda Z.NZ$ are well-typed terms (of type $\forall Z.[Z/X]\sigma$).

Hence, by ξ_2 , $\lambda Z.MZ =_{F_c} \lambda Z.NZ$, and, by η_2 , $M =_{F_c} N$. ■

10 Models

In this section, we outline the validity of Axiom C in some relevant models. Details and further references about the model theory of system F may be found in [AL91] or [Hyl]. The reader may also see [LM91] for an introductory presentation of PER models and [GLT89]

or [CGW88] for models based on coherent spaces or dI-domains. These constructions provide the main concrete paradigms for the general semantics of impredicative Type Theory and, by this, they allow a more explicit understanding of the semantic problems we will mention at the very end.

In short, in PER models, types are interpreted as partial equivalence relations (p.e.r.) on an arbitrary (partial) combinatory algebra (D, \cdot) , that is, on a model of (partial) Combinatory Logic. In other words, a type is a quotient of a subset of D modulo an equivalence relation. The terms of system F are interpreted as equivalence classes in these quotient sets. Given $d \in D$, call $[d]_A$ the equivalence class of d in the p.e.r. A . Now, (D, \cdot) yields a model of the type free λ -calculus $(D, \cdot, \llbracket - \rrbracket)$, see [Bar84]. Set then $er(M)$ for the term of system F with all types erased (e.g., $er(\lambda x : \tau. M \rho) = \lambda x. er(M)$) and consider $\llbracket er(M) \rrbracket_\xi$, i.e., the interpretation in D , under term environment ξ , of the type-free term $er(M)$. A result in [Mit86] (see also [CL91]) shows that the meaning in the PER model of a term M of system F is given by the equivalence class of the meaning of its erasure in the p.e.r. that interprets its type. More formally, if environment ξ' is obtained from ξ by forgetting type information,

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash M : \sigma \rrbracket_\xi = \llbracket \llbracket er(M) \rrbracket_{\xi'} \rrbracket_{\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket}$$

It is then clear that PER models realize Axiom C: if $M\tau$ and $M\tau'$ live in the same type σ , then their meanings are identical as $er(M\tau) = er(M\tau')$.

As for dI-based models, we recall here only that these may be constructed over the category of coherent spaces and stable maps, as in [Gir86], or over proper dI-domains as in [CGW88], which we follow. Types then are dI-domains or, more precisely, in view of possibly free type variables, they are maps over dI-domains. Indeed, they may be understood as functors if one considers the subcategory DI^L of dI-domains and just rigid embeddings as maps, as in [CGW88]. (The impossibility of viewing types as functors, in general, was discussed in the introduction, in view of the (contra-) and (co-)variance of the \rightarrow functor.) In short, let $F : DI^L \rightarrow DI^L$ be a functor. Then ΠF , the product functor meant to interpret impredicative second-order types, is simply the collection of uniform families (t_X) , where X ranges over dI-domains, such that $t_X \in F(X)$ and $t_X = F(f)^R t_Y$ for any dI-domain Y and any morphism f from X to Y . Assume now that $\forall X. \sigma$ is such that X is not free in σ . This means that σ is interpreted by a constant functor F , with respect to X . Then $F(f)^R = F(f) = id$ always. In particular, take Y as the universal domain, i.e., any other may be rigidly embedded in it. Then, for any uniform family (t_X) and any X , one has $t_X = t_Y$ in $F(X)$. This is exactly the validity of Axiom C in these models.

There are several ways to describe the general (categorical) semantics of system F. In order to give a general meaning to Axiom C, we follow the presentation by internal categories given in [AL91]. First, though, the naïve, set-theoretic approach may guide our intuition. Let $T\mathcal{p}$ be the collection of semantic types. A variable type is then a function $F : T\mathcal{p} \rightarrow T\mathcal{p}$. As usual, a product indexed over $T\mathcal{p}$ is given by the set

$$\Pi F = \{f : T\mathcal{p} \rightarrow \cup F \mid \forall X \in T\mathcal{p} \ f(X) \in F(X)\}$$

Then Axiom C corresponds to

$$\text{if } f \in \Pi F \text{ and } \exists A \forall B F(B) = A, \text{ then } \exists a \in A \forall B f(B) = a$$

Or, also, ΠF and A are set-theoretically isomorphic, when F is constantly equal to A . We know though that classical Set Theory does not yield models of impredicative Type Theory. However, models may be found as categories which are internal not to the category of sets and functions, but to more “constructive” ones, which enjoy the fundamental adjunction (Adj) below. Following [AL91], let $c = (c_0, c_1)$ be a category internal to a Cartesian Closed Category (ccc) E with all finite limits. Let c^{c_0} be the category of internal functors. Then (E, c) yields a model of system F if c is an internal ccc and the (internal) product functor $\Pi : c^{c_0} \rightarrow c$ exists as the right adjoint of the (internal) diagonal functor $K : c \rightarrow c^{c_0}$, i.e., the functor that to each A associates the functor $K A$, which is constant A . In other words,

$$\text{(Adj)} \quad c^{c_0}[K _, _] \cong c[_, \Pi _]$$

We claim that, among these models, exactly those which realize the following natural isomorphism

$$\text{(Const)} \quad c^{c_0}[K _, K _] \cong c[_, _]$$

are models of Axiom C. Indeed, by (Adj), (Const) implies, naturally in A, B ,

$$c[B, \Pi(K A)] \cong c^{c_0}[K B, K A] \cong c[B, A]$$

This is equivalent, in these models, to the isomorphism $\Pi(K A) \cong A$, i.e., to the intuitive set-theoretic meaning of Axiom C. A final remark: both the term model of system F, of course, and the retraction models (see [AL91]) do not realize Axiom C.

The semantics of the Genericity Theorem raises some interesting issues. Observe that

$$\text{(GEN)} \quad \exists \tau M\tau = N\tau \Rightarrow M = N$$

is not an equation, but an implication between equations. Thus, a model \mathcal{M} of Fc does not need to realize (GEN), in the sense that $\exists \tau M\tau = N\tau$ may be true in the model but $M = N$ is false. For example, PER models and dI-domains do not realize (GEN). Consider $0, K : \forall X.X \rightarrow (X \rightarrow X)$. Take then a type τ which has at most one element, for instance $\forall X.X$ or $\forall X.X \rightarrow X$. Then, in both classes of models, $K\tau = 0\tau$, but, of course, $K \neq 0$. By generalizing this argument (see [Lon93]), models of relational parametricity also do not realize (GEN). This lack (so far) of models of (GEN) is in spite of the many models of Fc and the provability of the implication. Note that an understanding of the semantics is relevant, not only for model-theoretic reasons, but also for the extensions of system F which are relevant in practice. That is, actual polymorphic functional languages may be based on core calculi, plus possibly more equation schemes. Thus, the investigation of which equational theories realize (GEN), as an important property of polymorphic functions, is a further challenge.

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