

Abstract

Generic functions can specialize their behaviour depending on the types of their arguments, and can even recurse over the structure of the types of their arguments. Such functions can be implemented using type representations. Generic functions proposed in this way possess certain parametricity properties, which are interesting in the presence of higher-order polymorphism. In this paper, we give a rigorous roadmap through the proof of parametricity for a calculus with higher-order polymorphism and type representations. We then use parametricity to derive the correctness of type-safe cast.

Introduction

Generic programming refers to the ability to specialize the behaviour of functions based on the types of their arguments. There are many tools, libraries, and language extensions that support generic programming, particularly for the Haskell programming language (4; 6; 16; 8; 22; 35; 34). Although the theory underlying these mechanisms differs considerably, the common goal of these mechanisms is to eliminate boilerplate code. Examples of generic programs range from generic equality functions, traversers, reductions and maps, to application-specific traversers and queries (22), user interface generators (1), XML-inspired transformations (21), and compilers (5).

Type representations (10) are an attractive mechanism for generic programming. The key idea is simple: because the behaviour of parametrically polymorphic functions cannot be influenced by the types at which they are instantiated, generic functions can be dispatched on term arguments that *represent* types. Representation types were originally proposed in the context of type-preserving compilation, but they may be encoded in Haskell in several ways (6; 35; 34). The most natural implementation uses *generalized algebraic datatypes* (GADTs) (7; 29), a recent extension to the Glasgow Haskell Compiler (GHC). We give an example:

```
R a where
  Int  :: R Int
  Unit :: R ()
  Prod :: R a -> R b -> R (a,b)
  Sum  :: R a -> R b -> R (Either a b)
```

Right notice will appear here once 'preprint' option is removed.]

```
cast :: R a -> R b -> Maybe (a -> b)
cast Rint Rint  = Just (\x -> x)
cast Runit Runit = Just (\x -> x)
cast (Rprod (ra0 :: R a0) (rb0 :: R b0))
    (Rprod (ra0' :: R a0') (rb0' :: R b0'))
  = do g :: ra0 -> ra0'
      g <- cast ra0 ra0'
      h :: rb0 -> rb0'
      h <- cast rb0 rb0'
      Just (\(a,b) -> (g a, h b))
cast (Rsum ra0 rb0) (Rsum ra0' rb0') =
  do g <- cast ra0 ra0'
      h <- cast rb0 rb0'
      Just (\x -> case x of
                    Left a  -> Left (g a)
                    Right b -> Right (h b))
cast _ _ = Nothing
```

Figure 1: cast

The datatype `R` includes four data constructors: The constructor `Rint` provides a representation for type `Int`, hence its type is `R Int`. Likewise `Runit` represents `()` and has type `R ()`. The constructors `Rprod` and `Rsum` represent products and sums (called `Either` in Haskell). They take as inputs a representation for `a`, a representation for `b`, and return representations for `(a,b)` and `Either a b` respectively. The important property of datatype `R t` is that the type parameter `t` is determined by the data constructor. In contrast, in an ordinary datatype, all data constructors must return the same type.

In this paper, we focus on generic *type-safe* cast, which compares two different type representations and, if they match, produces a coercion function from one type to the other. Previously, Weirich (33) defined two different versions of type-safe cast, `cast` and `gcast`, shown in Figures 1 and 2. Our implementations differ slightly from Weirich's—namely they use Haskell's `Maybe` type to account for potential failure, instead of an `error` primitive—but the essential structure is the same.

The first version, `cast`, works by comparing the two representations and then producing a coercion function that takes its argument apart, coerces the subcomponents individually, and then puts it back together. In the first clause, both representations are `Rint`, so the type checker knows that `a=b=Int`, and so the identity function may be returned. Similar reasoning holds for `Runit`. In the case for products and sums, Haskell's monadic syntax for `Maybe` ensures that `cast` returns `Nothing` when one of the recursive calls returns `Nothing`; otherwise `g` and `h` are bound to coercions of the subcomponents. To show how this works, the case for products has been decorated with type annotations.

Alternatively, `gcast` produces a coercion function that never needs to decompose (or even evaluate) its argument. The key ingredient is the use of the higher-kinded type argument `c`, that allows `gcast` to return a coercion from `c a` to `c b`. As Baars and Swierstra (4), and Cheney and Hinze (6) point out, `gcast` corresponds to *Leibniz equality*. From an implementation point of view,

```

type CL f c a d = CL (c (f d a))
(CL e) = e
type CR f c a d = CR (c (f a d))
(CR e) = e

c :: forall a b c.
  R a -> R b -> Maybe (c a -> c b)
Rint Rint = Just (\x -> x)
Runit Runit = Just (\x -> x)
(Rprod (ra0 :: R a0) (rb0 :: R b0))
  (Rprod (ra0' :: R a0') (rb0' :: R b0'))
  g <- gcast ra0 ra0'
  h <- gcast rb0 rb0'
  let g' :: c (a0, b0) -> c (a0', b0)
      g' = unCL . g . CL
      h' :: c (a0', b0) -> c (a0', b0')
      h' = unCR . h . CR
  Just (h' . g')
(Rsum ra0 rb0) (Rsum ra0' rb0')
  g <- gcast ra0 ra0'
  h <- gcast rb0 rb0'
  Just (unCR . h . CR . unCL . g . CL)
_ _ = Nothing

```

Figure 2: gcast

the constructor `c` allows the recursive calls to `gcast` to create a coercion that changes the type of a *part* of its argument. In a recursive call, the instantiation of `c` hides the parts of the type that remain unchanged. The case for sums is operationally identical, we omit the intermediate type annotations and compose all the intermediate functions directly.

An important difference between the two versions has to do with correctness. When the type comparison succeeds, type-safe coercions should behave like an identity function. Informal inspection suggests that both implementations do so. However in the case of `gcast`, it is possible to mess up. In particular, it is type sound to omit the clause for `Rint` with:

```
Rint Rint = Just (\x -> 21)
```

The type of `gcast` more strongly constrains its implementation. We could not replace the first clause with

```
Rint Rint = Just (\x -> 21)
```

because the type of the returned coercion must be `c Int -> c Int` rather than `Int -> Int`. Informally, we can argue that the only coercion function that could be returned *must* be an identity function (since `gcast` is abstract. The only way to produce a result of type `c Int` without running divergence) is to use exactly the one that was supplied.

Contributions. In this paper, we make the above arguments precise and rigorous. In particular, we show using a *free theorem* (31) that if `gcast` returns a coercion function then that function must be an identity function. In fact, because we use a free theorem, the coercion function with the type of `gcast` must behave in this manner. So, we start with a formalization of the λ -calculus with representation types and higher-order polymorphism, called R_ω (10) (Section 2). We then extend Reynolds’s abstraction theorem (28) to the R_ω language (Section 2). Reynolds’s abstraction theorem, also known as the “parametricity theorem” (31), asserts that every typed expression of the second-order polymorphic λ -calculus (in F) (13) satisfies a particular property directly derivable from its type. After proving a version of the abstraction theorem for R_ω , we show how to apply it to the type of `gcast` to get the desired results (Section 3).

Our broader goal is not just to show the correctness of `gcast`—there are certainly simpler ways to do so, and there are some limitations in our approach, as we describe in Section 4. Instead, our intention is to demonstrate that it is possible to use parametricity and free theorems to reason about generic functions written with representation types. In previous work (30), which was limited to the case of second-order polymorphism, we had difficulty finding free theorems for generic functions that were not trivial. This paper demonstrates a fruitful example of such reasoning when higher-order polymorphism is present, and encourages the use of variations of this method to reason about other generic functions.

A second goal of this work is to explore free theorems for higher-order polymorphism. Our use of these theorems exhibits an intriguing behaviour. Free theorems for types with second-order polymorphism quantify over arbitrary relations but are often used with relations that happen to be expressible as functions in the polymorphic λ -calculus. In contrast, we must instantiate free theorems with *non-parametric* functions to get the desired result.

Finally, although the ideas that we use to define parametricity for F_ω are folklore, they appear in few sources in the literature. Therefore, an additional contribution of this work is an accessible roadmap to the proof of parametricity for higher-order polymorphism using the technique of syntactic logical relations. Our development is most closely related to the proof of strong normalization of F_ω by Jean Gallier (12), but we are more explicit about the requirements from the meta-logic and the well-formedness of our definitions. Therefore, we expect our development to be particularly well-suited for mechanical verification in proof assistants, such as Coq (<http://coq.inria.fr>).

2. Parametricity for R_ω

The R_ω calculus. We begin with a formal description of the R_ω calculus, an extension of Curry-style F_ω (13). The syntax of this language appears in Figure 3, but for space reasons, the semantics appears in Appendix B. Kinds κ include the base kind, \star , which classifies the types of expressions, and constructor kinds, $\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2$. The type syntax, σ , includes type variables, type constants, type-level applications, and type functions. Although type-level λ -abstractions complicate the formal development, they simplify programming—for example, in Figure 2 we had to introduce the constructors `CL` and `CR` only because Haskell does not include type-level λ -abstractions.

Type constructor constants, \mathcal{K} , include standard operators, plus representation types R . In the following, we write \rightarrow , \times , and $+$ using infix notation and associate applications of \rightarrow to the right. We treat impredicative polymorphism with an infinite family of universal type constructors \forall_κ indexed by kinds. We write $\forall(a_1:\kappa_1) \dots (a_n:\kappa_n) . \sigma$ to abbreviate $\forall_{\kappa_1}(\lambda a_1:\kappa_1 . \dots \forall_{\kappa_n}(\lambda a_n:\kappa_n . \sigma) \dots)$.

R_ω expressions e include abstractions, products, sums, integers and unit. For simplicity, type abstractions and type applications are implicit. R_ω includes type representations R_{int} , $R_{\text{()}}$, R_\times and R_+ , which must be fully applied to their arguments. We do not include representations for function or polymorphic types in R_ω as neither are that useful for generic programming. The former can be added in a straightforward manner, but the latter significantly changes the semantics of the language, as we discuss in Section 4. The language is terminating, but includes a term `typerec` that can perform primitive recursion on type representations, and includes branches for each possible representation. For completeness, we give the R_ω implementations of `cast` and `gcast` in Appendix A.

$$\begin{aligned}
\kappa &::= \star \mid \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2 \\
\sigma, \tau &::= a \mid \mathcal{K} \mid \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \mid \lambda a : \kappa. \sigma \\
\mathcal{K} &::= R \mid () \mid \text{int} \mid \rightarrow \mid \times \mid + \mid \forall_\kappa \\
e &::= R_{\text{int}} \mid R_{()} \mid R_\times e_1 e_2 \mid R_+ e_1 e_2 \\
&\quad \mid \text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} ; e_\times ; e_+\} \\
&\quad \mid \text{fst } e \mid \text{snd } e \mid (e_1, e_2) \mid \text{inl } e \mid \text{inr } e \\
&\quad \mid \text{case } e \text{ of } \{x.e_l ; x.e_r\} \\
&\quad \mid () \mid i \mid x \mid \lambda x. e \mid e_1 e_2 \\
\Gamma &::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, a : \kappa \mid \Gamma, x : \tau
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 3: Syntax of System R_ω

The operational semantics of the language is standard, so we present the rules for `typerec` in Figure 8 (Appendix B). Initially `typerec` performs a fold over its type representation. We use a big-step, call-by-name formalization. We use v for R_ω values, the syntax of which is also given in Appendix B.

The static semantics of R_ω contains judgments for kinding, equivalence, and typing. Each of these judgements uses a universe, Γ , containing bindings for type variables ($a : \kappa$) and term variables ($x : \tau$). We use \cdot for the empty environment and $a \# \Gamma$ to mean that a does not appear anywhere in Γ . The typing judgement $\Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa$ (in Figure 9, Appendix B) states that τ is a well-formed type of kind κ and ensures that all the free type variables of the type τ appear in the environment Γ with correct

We refer to arbitrary *closed* types of a particular kind with the following predicate:

Definition [Closed types]: We write $\tau \in \text{ty}(\kappa)$ iff $\cdot \vdash \tau : \kappa$.

The typing judgement has the form $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ and Figure 11, Appendix B. The interesting typing rules are the introduction and elimination forms for type representations. The rest of this relation is standard. Notably, our typing relation includes a standard conversion rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \star}{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_2} \text{ T-EQ}$$

The judgement $\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \kappa$ defines type equivalence as a congruence relation that includes β -conversion for types. We state its definition in Figure 10, Appendix B. The presence of the T-EQ rule is important for R_ω because it allows expressions typed with any member of an equivalence class of types. This behavior fits our intuition, but complicates the formalization of parametricity; a significant part of this paper is devoted to the complications introduced by type equivalence.

Abstraction theorem. Deriving free theorems requires first finding an appropriate interpretation of types as binary relations between terms and showing that these relations are reflexive. This is the core of Reynolds’s abstraction theorem:

$$\text{If } \cdot \vdash e : \tau \text{ then } (e, e) \in \mathcal{C}[\cdot \vdash \tau : \star].$$

Free theorems result from unfolding the definition of the interpretation of types (which appears in Figure 5, using Definition 2.6). However, before we can present that interpretation, we must first find a number of auxiliary concepts.

First, we must define a (meta-logical) type, GRel^κ , to describe the interpretation of types of arbitrary kind. Only types of kind \star are interpreted as term relations—types of higher kind are interpreted as sets of morphisms. (To distinguish between R_ω and meta-logical functions, we use the term *morphism* for the latter.)

$$\begin{aligned}
r \in \text{VRel}(\tau_1, \tau_2) &\triangleq \forall (e_1, e_2) \in r, \\
&\quad e_1 \text{ and } e_2 \text{ are values} \wedge \\
&\quad (\cdot \vdash e_1 : \tau_1) \wedge (\cdot \vdash e_2 : \tau_2) \\
(\tau_1, \tau_2, r) \in \text{wfgRel}^\star &\triangleq r \in \text{VRel}(\tau_1, \tau_2) \\
(\tau_1, \tau_2, r) \in \text{wfgRel}^{\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2} &\triangleq \\
&\quad \text{for all } \rho \in \text{wfgRel}^{\kappa_1}, (\tau_1 \rho^1, \tau_2 \rho^2, r \rho) \in \text{wfgRel}^{\kappa_2} \wedge \\
&\quad \text{for all } \pi \in \text{wfgRel}^{\kappa_1}, \rho \equiv \pi \implies r \rho \equiv_{\kappa_2} r \pi \\
r \equiv_\star s &\triangleq \text{for all } e_1 e_2, (e_1, e_2) \in r \iff (e_1, e_2) \in s \\
r \equiv_{\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2} s &\triangleq \text{for all } \rho \in \text{wfgRel}^{\kappa_1}, (r \rho) \equiv_{\kappa_2} (s \rho) \\
\rho \equiv \pi &\triangleq (\cdot \vdash \rho^1 \equiv \pi^1 : \kappa) \wedge (\cdot \vdash \rho^2 \equiv \pi^2 : \kappa) \wedge \hat{\rho} \equiv_\kappa \hat{\pi}
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 4: Well-formed generalized relations and equality

For example, the interpretation of a type of kind $\star \rightarrow \star$ is the set of morphisms that take term relations to appropriate term relations.

2.2 Definition [(Typed-)Generalized Relations]:

$$\begin{aligned}
r, s \in \text{GRel}^\star &\triangleq \mathcal{P}(\text{term} \times \text{term}) \\
\text{GRel}^{\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2} &\triangleq \text{TyGRel}^{\kappa_1} \supset \text{GRel}^{\kappa_2} \\
\rho, \pi \in \text{TyGRel}^\kappa &\triangleq \text{ty}(\kappa) \times \text{ty}(\kappa) \times \text{GRel}^\kappa
\end{aligned}$$

The notation $\mathcal{P}(\text{term} \times \text{term})$ stands for the space of binary relations on terms of R_ω . We use \supset for the function space constructor of our meta-logic, to avoid confusion with the \rightarrow constructor of R_ω .

Generalized relations are mutually defined with Typed-Generalized Relations, TyGRel^κ , which are triples of generalized relations and types of the appropriate kind. Elements of $\text{GRel}^{\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2}$ accept one of these triples. These extra $\text{ty}(\kappa_1)$ arguments allow the morphisms to dispatch control depending on types as well as relational arguments. This flexibility is important for the free theorems about F_ω programs, as we demonstrate in Example 2.13.

At first glance, Definition 2.2 seems strange because it returns the term relation space at kind \star , while at higher kinds it returns a particular function space of the meta-logic. These two do not necessarily “type check” with a common type. However, in an expressive enough meta-logic, such as CIC (26) or ZF set theory, such a definition is indeed well-formed, as there exists a type containing both spaces (for example Type in CIC¹, or pure ZF sets in ZF set theory). In contrast, in HOL it is not clear how to build a common type “hosting” the interpretations at all kinds.

Unfortunately, not all objects of GRel^κ are suitable for the interpretation of types. In Figure 4 we define *well-formed generalized relations*, wfgRel^κ , a predicate on objects in TyGRel^κ . We define this predicate mutually with extensional equality on generalized relations (\equiv_κ) and on typed-generalized relations (\equiv). Because our wfgRel^κ conditions depend on equality for type GRel^κ , we cannot include those conditions in the definition of GRel^κ itself.

At kind \star , $(\tau_1, \tau_2, r) \in \text{wfgRel}^\star$ checks that r is not just any relation between terms, but a relation between values of types τ_1 and τ_2 . (We use \implies and \wedge for meta-logical implication and conjunction, respectively.) At kind $\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2$ we require two conditions. First, if r is applied to a well-formed TyGRel^{κ_1} , then the

¹ One can find a Coq definition of GRel and other relevant definitions in Appendix C.

$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket$	$\in \text{Subst}_\Gamma \supset \text{GRel}^\kappa$
$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash a : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta$	$\triangleq \hat{\delta}(a)$
$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{K} : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta$	$\triangleq \llbracket \mathcal{K} \rrbracket$
$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \tau_2 : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta$	\triangleq
$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa \rrbracket_\delta$	$(\delta^1 \tau_2, \delta^2 \tau_2, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa_1 \rrbracket_\delta)$
when $\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa$ and $\Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa_1$	
$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \lambda a : \kappa_1 . \tau : \kappa_2 \rrbracket_\delta$	\triangleq
$\lambda \rho \in \text{TyGRel}^{\kappa_1} \mapsto \llbracket \Gamma, a : \kappa_1 \vdash \tau : \kappa_2 \rrbracket_{\delta, a \mapsto \rho}$	
where $a \# \Gamma$	

Figure 5: Relational interpretation of R_ω

must also be well-formed. (We project the three components with the notations ρ^1, ρ^2 and $\hat{\rho}$ respectively.) Second, for any two equivalent triples, ρ and π , the results $r \rho$ and $r \pi$ must be equal. This condition asserts that morphisms that satisfy wfGRel^κ respect the type equivalence classes of their type arguments. Equality on generalized relations is also indexed by kinds; for any two $r, s \in \text{GRel}^\kappa$, the proposition $r \equiv_\kappa s$ asserts that the two generalized relations are extensionally equal. Extensional equality on generalized relations asserts that at kind \star the two relations denote the same set, whereas at higher kinds it asserts the relation arguments return equal results, when given the argument ρ which must satisfy the wfGRel^{κ_1} predicate. The requirement that ρ be well-formed is not possible, as we discuss in the proof of Coherence, Theorem 2.11. Equality for typed-generalized relations, $\rho \equiv \psi$, is defined pointwise. Importantly, the wfGRel^κ predicate respects this equivalence.

Lemma: For all $\rho \equiv \pi$, if $\rho \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa$ then $\pi \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa$.

We turn now to the key to the abstraction theorem, the interpretation of R_ω types as relations between closed terms. This interpretation makes use of a *substitution* δ from type variables to generalized relations. We write $\text{dom}(\delta)$ for the domain of substitution, that is, the subset of all type variables on which δ is not the identity. We use \cdot for the identity-everywhere substitution, and write $\delta, a \mapsto \rho$ for the extension of δ that maps a to ρ and require that $a \notin \text{dom}(\delta)$. If $\delta(a) = (\tau_1, \tau_2, r)$, we define the components $\delta^1(a) = \tau_1$, $\delta^2(a) = \tau_2$, and $\hat{\delta}(a) = r$. We also define the extension $\delta^2 \tau$ to be the extension of δ^1 and δ^2 to types τ .

Definition [Substitution kind checks in environment]: We say that a substitution δ *kind checks in an environment* Γ , and write Subst_Γ , when $\text{dom}(\delta) = \text{dom}(\Gamma)$ and for every $(a : \kappa) \in \Gamma$, we have $\delta(a) \in \text{TyGRel}^\kappa$.

The interpretation of R_ω types is shown in Figure 5 and is defined inductively over kinding derivations for types. The interpretation function $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ accepts a derivation $\Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa$, and a substitution $\delta \in \text{Subst}_\Gamma$ and returns a generalized relation at kind κ , in the meta-logical type, $\text{Subst}_\Gamma \supset \text{GRel}^\kappa$. We write the definition as a subscript to $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket$.

When τ is a type variable a we project the relation component of $\delta(a)$. In the case where τ is a constructor \mathcal{K} , we call the auxiliary function $\llbracket \mathcal{K} \rrbracket$, shown in Figure 6. For an application, we apply the interpretation of τ_1 to appropriate type arguments and the interpretation of τ_2 . Type-level λ -abstractions are treated as abstractions in the meta-logic. We use λ and \mapsto for

$\llbracket \mathcal{K} \rrbracket$	$\in \text{GRel}^{\text{kind}(\mathcal{K})}$
$\llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket$	$\triangleq \{(i, i) \mid \text{for all } i\}$
$\llbracket () \rrbracket$	$\triangleq \{(\cdot, \cdot)\}$
$\llbracket \rightarrow \rrbracket$	$\triangleq \lambda \rho, \pi \in \text{TyGRel}^* \mapsto$ $\{(v_1, v_2) \mid (\cdot \vdash v_1 : \rho^1 \rightarrow \pi^1) \wedge$ $(\cdot \vdash v_2 : \rho^2 \rightarrow \pi^2) \wedge$ $\text{for all } (e'_1, e'_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\rho}),$ $(v_1 e'_1, v_2 e'_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\pi}) \}$
$\llbracket \times \rrbracket$	$\triangleq \lambda \rho, \pi \in \text{TyGRel}^* \mapsto$ $\{(v_1, v_2) \mid (\text{fst } v_1, \text{fst } v_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\rho})\} \cap$ $\{(v_1, v_2) \mid (\text{snd } v_1, \text{snd } v_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\pi})\}$
$\llbracket + \rrbracket$	$\triangleq \lambda \rho, \pi \in \text{TyGRel}^* \mapsto$ $\{(\text{inl } e_1, \text{inl } e_2) \mid (e_1, e_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\rho})\} \cup$ $\{(\text{inr } e_1, \text{inr } e_2) \mid (e_1, e_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\pi})\}$
$\llbracket \forall \kappa \rrbracket$	$\triangleq \lambda \rho \in \text{TyGRel}^{\kappa \rightarrow \star} \mapsto$ $\{(v_1, v_2) \mid (\cdot \vdash v_1 : \forall_\kappa \rho^1) \wedge (\cdot \vdash v_2 : \forall_\kappa \rho^2) \wedge$ $\text{for all } \pi \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa, (v_1, v_2) \in (\hat{\rho} \pi)\}$
$\llbracket \mathcal{R} \rrbracket$	$\triangleq \mathcal{R}$
\mathcal{R}	$\triangleq \lambda(\tau, \sigma, r) \in \text{TyGRel}^* \mapsto$ $\{(\mathcal{R}_{\text{int}}, \mathcal{R}_{\text{int}}) \mid (\tau, \sigma, r) \equiv (\text{int}, \text{int}, \llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket)\}$ $\cup \{(\mathcal{R}_(), \mathcal{R}_()) \mid (\tau, \sigma, r) \equiv (\cdot, \cdot, \llbracket () \rrbracket)\}$ $\cup \{(\mathcal{R}_\times, e_a^1 e_b^1, \mathcal{R}_\times, e_a^2 e_b^2) \mid$ $\exists \rho_a, \rho_b \in \text{wfGRel}^* \wedge$ $\cdot \vdash \tau \equiv \rho_a^1 \times \rho_b^1 : \star \wedge \cdot \vdash \sigma \equiv \rho_a^2 \times \rho_b^2 : \star \wedge$ $r \equiv_\star \llbracket \times \rrbracket \rho_a \rho_b \wedge$ $(e_a^1, e_b^2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \rho_a) \wedge (e_b^1, e_b^2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \rho_b)\}$ $\cup \{(\mathcal{R}_+, e_a^1 e_b^1, \mathcal{R}_+, e_a^2 e_b^2) \mid$ $\exists \rho_a, \rho_b \in \text{wfGRel}^* \wedge$ $\cdot \vdash \tau \equiv \rho_a^1 + \rho_b^1 : \star \wedge \cdot \vdash \sigma \equiv \rho_a^2 + \rho_b^2 : \star$ $\wedge r \equiv_\star \llbracket + \rrbracket \rho_a \rho_b \wedge$ $(e_a^1, e_a^2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \rho_a) \wedge (e_b^1, e_b^2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \rho_b)\}$

Figure 6: Operations of type constructors on relations

meta-logic abstractions. Confirming that $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta \in \text{GRel}^\kappa$ is straightforward using the fact that $\delta \in \text{Subst}_\Gamma$.

Furthermore, the interpretation of types gives equivalent results when given equal substitutions. We define equivalence for substitutions, $\delta_1 \equiv \delta_2$, pointwise.

2.5 Lemma: If $\Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa$ and $\delta_1 \models \Gamma$, $\delta_2 \models \Gamma$ and $\delta_1 \equiv \delta_2$, it is the case that $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket_{\delta_1} \equiv_\kappa \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket_{\delta_2}$.

The interpretation $\llbracket \mathcal{K} \rrbracket$ gives the relation that corresponds to constructor \mathcal{K} . This relation depends on the following definition, which extends a value relation to a relation between arbitrary well-typed terms.

2.6 Definition [Computational lifting]: The *computational lifting* of a relation $r \in \text{VRel}(\tau_1, \tau_2)$, written as $\mathcal{C}(r)$, is the set of all (e_1, e_2) such that $\cdot \vdash e_1 : \tau_1$, $\cdot \vdash e_2 : \tau_2$ and $e_1 \Downarrow v_1$, $e_2 \Downarrow v_2$, and $(v_1, v_2) \in r$.

For integer and unit types, $\llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket$ and $\llbracket () \rrbracket$ give the identity value relations respectively on int and $()$. The operation $\llbracket \rightarrow \rrbracket$ lifts ρ and π to a new relation between functions that send related arguments in $\hat{\rho}$ to related results in $\hat{\pi}$. The operation $\llbracket \times \rrbracket$ lifts ρ and π to a relation between products such that the first components of the products belong in $\hat{\rho}$, and the second in $\hat{\pi}$. The operation $\llbracket + \rrbracket$ on ρ and π consists of all the pairs of left injections between elements of $\hat{\rho}$ and right injections between elements of $\hat{\pi}$. Because

and products are call-by-name, their subcomponents must be from the computational lifting of the value relations. For the constructor, since its kind is $(\kappa \rightarrow \star) \rightarrow \star$ we define $\llbracket \forall_\kappa \rrbracket$ a morphism that, given a $\text{TyGRel}^{\kappa \rightarrow \star}$ argument ρ , returns the intersection over all well-formed π of the applications of $\hat{\rho}$. The requirement that $\pi \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa$ is necessary to show the interpretation of the \forall_κ constructor is itself well-formed (Lemma 2.7).

In the case of representation types \mathbb{R} , the definition relies on auxiliary morphism \mathcal{R} , defined by induction on the size of the normal form of its type arguments. The interesting property of this definition is that it imposes requirements on the relation r in every case of the definition. For example, in the first clause of the definition of $\mathcal{R}(\tau, \sigma, r)$, the case for integer representations, r is required to be equal to $\llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket$. In the case of representations, r is required to be equal to $\llbracket () \rrbracket$. In the case of products, r is required to be some product of relations, and in the case for sums, r is required to be some sum of relations. Importantly, the interpretation of any constructor \mathcal{K} , including \forall_κ , is well-formed.

Lemma [Constructor interpretation is well-formed]: For $(\mathcal{K}, \llbracket \mathcal{K} \rrbracket) \in \text{wfGRel}^{\text{kind}(\mathcal{K})}$.

The proof of this lemma appears in Appendix D.

Using Lemma 2.7, we wish to show that the interpretation of type is well-formed. This result only holds for substitutions that map type variables to *well-formed* generalized relations.

Definition [Environment respecting substitution]: We write $\delta \in \text{Subst}_\Gamma$ and for every $a \in \text{dom}(\delta)$, it is the case $\llbracket a \rrbracket \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa$.

Lemma [Type interpretation is well-formed]: Assume that $\Gamma : \kappa$ and $\delta \models \Gamma$. Then $\delta^2 \tau, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa$.

Proof: Straightforward induction over the type well-formedness conditions, appealing to Lemma 2.7. The only interesting case is the case for type abstractions, which follows from Lemma 2.5 and Lemma 2.3. \square

Furthermore, the interpretation of types is compositional, in the sense that the interpretation of a type depends on the interpretation of its sub-terms. The proof of this lemma depends on the fact that the interpretations are well-formed.

Lemma [Compositionality]: If $\delta \models \Gamma, \Gamma, a : \kappa_a \vdash \tau : \kappa$, $r_a : \kappa_a$, and $r_a = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_a : \kappa_a \rrbracket_\delta$ then $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket_{\delta, a \mapsto (\delta^1 \tau_a, \delta^2 \tau_a, r_a)} \equiv_\kappa \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau\{\tau_a/a\} : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta$

Finally, we show that the interpretation of types respects the equivalence classes of types. The proof of this theorem appears in Appendix D.

Theorem [Coherence]: If $\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa, \delta \models \Gamma$, and $\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2$, then $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta \equiv_\kappa \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta$

With the above definitions and properties, we may now state the abstraction theorem.

Theorem [Abstraction theorem for \mathbb{R}_ω]: Assume $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$. Then $(e, e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \cdot \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket$.

To count for open terms, the theorem must be generalized in the standard manner. The proof then proceeds by induction on the typification, with an inner induction for the case of `typerec` expressions. It crucially relies on Coherence (Theorem 2.11) for

the case of type-EQ. The generalization of the theorem and a proof sketch can be found in Appendix D.

Incidentally, this statement of the abstraction theorem shows that all well-typed expressions of \mathbb{R}_ω terminate. All such expressions belong in computation relations, which include only terms that reduce to values. Moreover, since these values are well-typed, the abstraction theorem also proves type soundness.

As a warm-up exercise, we next show how we can use the abstraction theorem to reason about programs using their types. The following is a free theorem about an F_ω type.

2.13 Example [Theorem for $\forall c : \star \rightarrow \star. c () \rightarrow c ()$]: Any e with type $\forall c : \star \rightarrow \star. c () \rightarrow c ()$ may only be inhabited by the identity function. In other words, for every $\tau_c \in \text{ty}(\star \rightarrow \star)$ and value u with $\cdot \vdash u : \tau_c$, $e u \Downarrow u$.

Proof: Assume that $\cdot \vdash e : \forall c : \star \rightarrow \star. c () \rightarrow c ()$. Then by Theorem 2.12 we have: $(e, e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \cdot \vdash \forall c : \star \rightarrow \star. c () \rightarrow c () : \star \rrbracket$. By expanding definition of the interpretation, for any $\rho_c \in \text{wfGRel}^{\star \rightarrow \star}$, and $(e_1, e_2) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket c : \star \rightarrow \star \vdash c () : \star \rrbracket_{c \mapsto \rho_c}$, it is the case that:

$$(e e_1, e e_2) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket c : \star \rightarrow \star \vdash c () : \star \rrbracket_{c \mapsto \rho_c} \quad (1)$$

We can now pick $\rho_c = (\tau_c, \tau_c, f_c)$ where:

$$f_c(\tau, \sigma, -) \triangleq \begin{cases} \text{if } (\cdot \vdash \tau \equiv () : \star \wedge \cdot \vdash \sigma \equiv () : \star) \\ \text{then } \{(v, u) \mid \cdot \vdash v : \tau_c()\} \text{ else } \emptyset \end{cases}$$

Intuitively, the morphism f_c returns the graph of a constant function that always returns u when called with type arguments equivalent to $()$, and the empty relation otherwise. It is straightforward to see that $(\tau_c, \tau_c, f_c) \in \text{wfGRel}^{\star \rightarrow \star}$. Therefore

$$\llbracket c : \star \rightarrow \star \vdash c () : \star \rrbracket_{c \mapsto (\tau_c, \tau_c, f_c)} = \{(v, u) \mid \cdot \vdash v : \tau_c()\}$$

Because (u, u) is in this set, we can pick e_1 and e_2 both to be u and use (1) to show that $e e_2 \Downarrow u$, hence $e u \Downarrow u$ as required. \square

We observe that to derive our result we had to instantiate a generalized relation to be a morphism that is itself not representable in F_ω . In particular, this morphism is not parametric: it behaves differently at type $()$ than at other types. Hence, despite the fact that we are discussing about a theorem for an F_ω type, we needed morphisms at higher kinds to accept *both types and morphisms* as arguments. This same idea will be used with a free theorem for the *gcast* function in the next section.

3. Free theorem for generic cast

We are now ready to move on to showing the correctness of generic cast. The \mathbb{R}_ω type for generic cast is:

$$\text{gcast} : \forall (a, b, c : \star). \mathbb{R} a \rightarrow \mathbb{R} b \rightarrow ((\cdot) + (c a \rightarrow c b))$$

The abstraction theorem for this type follows. Assume that, $\rho_a \in \text{wfGRel}^*$, $\rho_b \in \text{wfGRel}^*$, and $\rho_c \in \text{wfGRel}^{\star \rightarrow \star}$. Moreover, assume that:

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma &= (a : \star), (b : \star), (c : \star \rightarrow \star) \\ \delta &= a \mapsto \rho_a, b \mapsto \rho_b, c \mapsto \rho_c \\ (e_{ra}^1, e_{ra}^2) &\in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \mathbb{R} a : \star \rrbracket_\delta \\ (e_{rb}^1, e_{rb}^2) &\in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \mathbb{R} b : \star \rrbracket_\delta \end{aligned}$$

Then, either the cast fails and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gcast } e_{ra}^1 e_{rb}^1 &\Downarrow \text{inl } e_1' \wedge \\ \text{gcast } e_{ra}^2 e_{rb}^2 &\Downarrow \text{inl } e_2' \wedge e_1' \Downarrow () \wedge e_2' \Downarrow () \end{aligned}$$

cast succeeds and

$$\text{gcast } e_{ra}^1 e_{rb}^1 \Downarrow \text{inr } e'_1 \wedge \text{gcast } e_{ra}^2 e_{rb}^2 \Downarrow \text{inr } e'_2 \wedge \\ \text{for all } (e_1, e_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\rho}_c \rho_a), (e'_1 e_1, e'_2 e_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\hat{\rho}_c \rho_b)$$

we can use this theorem to derive properties about *any* implementation of *gcast*. The first property that we can show (which is auxiliary to the proof of the main theorem about *gcast*) is that *gcast* returns positively then the two types must be equivalent.

Lemma: If $\cdot \vdash e_{ra} : R \tau_a, \cdot \vdash e_{rb} : R \tau_b$, and $\text{gcast } e_{ra} e_{rb} \Downarrow$ then it follows that $\cdot \vdash \tau_a \equiv \tau_b : \star$.

Proof: From the assumptions we get that for any $\tau_c \in \text{ty}(\star \rightarrow \star)$, the case that $\cdot \vdash \text{gcast } e_{ra} e_{rb} : () + (\tau_c \tau_a \rightarrow \tau_c \tau_b)$. Assume by contradiction now that $\cdot \not\vdash \tau_a \equiv \tau_b : \star$. Then we instantiate the abstraction theorem with $e_{ra}^1 = e_{ra}^2 = e_{ra}, e_{rb}^1 = e_{rb}^2 = e_{rb} = (\tau_a, \tau_a, \llbracket \cdot \vdash \tau_a : \star \rrbracket), \rho_b = (\tau_b, \tau_b, \llbracket \cdot \vdash \tau_b : \star \rrbracket)$ and $(\lambda a : \star. (), \lambda a : \star. (), r_c)$ where

$$r_c(\tau, \sigma, r) = \text{if } (\cdot \vdash \tau \equiv \tau_a : \star \wedge \cdot \vdash \sigma \equiv \tau_a : \star) \\ \text{then } \llbracket \cdot \vdash (\lambda a : \star. ()) \tau_a : \star \rrbracket. \text{ else } \emptyset$$

we can confirm that $\rho_c \in \text{wfGRel}^{\star \rightarrow \star}$. Moreover $(e_{ra}, e_{ra}) \in \rho_a$ by the abstraction theorem, and similarly $(e_{rb}, e_{rb}) \in \rho_b$. Then by the free theorem for *gcast* above we know since $(((), ())) \in \mathcal{C}(f_c \rho_a)$, we have $(e(), e()) \in \mathcal{C}(f_c \rho_b)$ if $e() = (\tau_a, \tau_a, \llbracket \cdot \vdash \tau_a : \star \rrbracket)$ and e'_2 in the theorem for *gcast*. But, if $\tau_a \equiv \tau_b$ then $\mathcal{C}(f_c \rho_b) = \emptyset$, a contradiction. \square

we can now show our important result about *gcast*: if *gcast* succeeds and returns a conversion function, then that function must be as the identity. Note that if the type representations agree, we cannot conclude that *gcast* will succeed—it may well return a failed implementation of *gcast* may always fail for any pair of types and still be well typed.

Lemma [Correctness of *gcast*]: If $\cdot \vdash e_{ra} : R \tau_a, \cdot \vdash e_{rb} : R \tau_b$, and $\text{gcast } e_{ra} e_{rb} \Downarrow \text{inr } e$, and e_a is such that $\cdot \vdash e_a : \tau_c \tau_a$, then $e e_a \Downarrow w$.

Proof: First, by Lemma 3.1 we get that $\cdot \vdash \tau_a \equiv \tau_b : \star$. We then instantiate the free theorem for the type of *gcast* as in Lemma 3.1. and pick the same instantiation for types and relations for the instantiation of c . We choose c to be instantiated as $f_c = (\tau_c, \tau_c, f_c)$ where f_c is:

$$f_c(\tau, \sigma, r) = \text{if } (\cdot \vdash \tau \equiv \tau_a : \star \wedge \cdot \vdash \sigma \equiv \tau_a : \star) \\ \text{then } \{(v, w) \mid \cdot \vdash v : \tau_c \tau_a\} \text{ else } \emptyset$$

c can be any type in $\text{ty}(\star \rightarrow \star)$. It is easy to see that $f_c \in \text{wfGRel}^{\star \rightarrow \star}(\tau_c, \tau_c, f_c)$. Then, using the abstraction theorem we get:

$$\text{gcast } e_{ra} e_{rb} \Downarrow \text{inr } e_1 \quad (2)$$

$$\text{gcast } e_{ra} e_{rb} \Downarrow \text{inr } e_2 \quad (3)$$

$$\forall (e'_1, e'_2) \in \mathcal{C}(f_c \rho_a), (e_1 e'_1, e_2 e'_2) \in \mathcal{C}(f_c \rho_b) \quad (4)$$

use of the particular choice for f_c we know that $(e_a, e_a) \in \rho_a$. From determinacy of evaluation and equations (2) and (3) we get that $e_1 = e_2 = e$. Then, from (4) we get that $(e e_a) \in \mathcal{C}(f_c \rho_b)$, hence $e e_a \Downarrow w$ as required. \square

Remark: A similar theorem as the above would be true for a term of type $\forall(a:\star)(b:\star)(c:\star \rightarrow \star). () + (c a \rightarrow c b)$, where a term could be constructed that would return a right conversion. What is important in R_ω is that the extra $R a$ and typerec make the programming of such conversions possible! While the theorem is true in F_ω , we cannot

really use it because of that type that can return right injections.

4. Discussion

Parametricity, representations, and non-termination. R_ω does not include representations of all types for a good reason. Some type representations complicate the relational interpretation of types and even change the fundamental properties of the language.

To demonstrate these complications, consider what would happen if we added the representation R_{id} of type $R Rid$ to R_ω , and extended typerec and *gcast* accordingly, where *Rid* abbreviates the type $(\forall(a:\star). R a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a)$. Then we could encode an infinite loop in R_ω , based on an example by Harper and Mitchell (14). This example begins by using *gcast* to enable a self-application term with a concise type.

$$\text{delta} :: \forall a : \star. R a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a \\ \text{delta } ra = \text{case } (\text{gcast } R_{id} ra) \text{ of } \{\text{inr } y.y (\lambda x.x R_{id} x); \\ \text{inl } z.(\lambda x.x) \}$$

Above, if the cast succeeds, then y has type $\forall c:\star \rightarrow \star. c Rid \rightarrow c a$, and we can instantiate y to $(Rid \rightarrow Rid) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow a)$. We can now add another self-application to get an infinite loop:

$$\text{delta } R_{id} \text{ delta} \cong (\lambda x.x R_{id} x) \text{ delta} \cong \text{delta } R_{id} \text{ delta}$$

This example demonstrates that we cannot extend the relational interpretation to R_{id} and the proof of the abstraction theorem in a straightforward manner as our proof implies termination. That does not mean that we cannot give any relational interpretation to R_{id} , only that our proof would have to change significantly.

Our current proof breaks in the definition of the morphism \mathcal{R} in Figure ?? The application $\mathcal{R}(\tau, \sigma, r)$ depends on whether r can be constructed as an application of morphisms $\llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket, \llbracket () \rrbracket, \llbracket \times \rrbracket$, and $\llbracket + \rrbracket$. If we are to add a new representation constructor R_{id} , we must restrict r in a similar way. To do so, it is tempting to add:

$$\mathcal{R} = \dots \text{ as before } \dots \\ \cup \{ (R_{id}, R_{id}) \mid \cdot \vdash \tau \equiv Rid : \star \wedge \cdot \vdash \sigma \equiv Rid : \star \wedge \\ r \equiv_\star \llbracket \cdot \vdash Rid : \star \rrbracket \}$$

However, this definition is not well-founded. In particular, \mathcal{R} recursively calls the main interpretation function on the type *Rid* which includes the type R .

A different question is what class of polymorphic types *can* we represent with our current methodology (i.e. without breaking strong normalization)? The answer is that we can represent polymorphic types as long as those types contain only representations of *closed* types. For example, the problematic behaviour above was caused because the type $\forall a. R a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$ includes $R a$, the representation of a quantified type. Such behaviour cannot happen when we only include representations of types such as $R(R \text{int})$, $\forall a. a \rightarrow a$, $\forall a. a \rightarrow R \text{int} \rightarrow a$, or even $\forall a. a$. We can still give a definition of \mathcal{R} that calls recursively the main interpretation function, but the definition must be shown well-founded using a more elaborate metric on types.

Related work. Although the interpretation of higher-kinded types as morphisms in the meta-logic between syntactic term relations seems to be folklore in the programming languages theory (24), it can be found in few sources in the literature.

Kučan (20) interprets the higher-order polymorphic λ -calculus within a second-order logic in a way similar to ours. However, the type arguments (which are important for our examples) are missing from the higher-order interpretations, and it is not clear that the particular second-order logic that Kučan employs is expressive enough to host the large type of generalized relations. On the

and, Kučan’s motivation is different from the difference between free theorems obtained directly from algebraic type signatures and those derived from Church encodings.

Gallier gives a detailed formalization (12) closer to ours, although his motivation is a strong normalization proof for F_ω , on Girard’s reducibility candidates method, and not free-term reasoning about F_ω programs. Therefore the interpretation that he gives is a unary instead of binary relation. Our inductive definition of GRel^κ , corresponds to his definition of (general-candidate sets. The important requirement that the general-morphisms respect equivalence classes of types (wfGRel^κ) is present in this formalization (Definition 16.2, Condition (4)). Nonetheless there is no explicit account of what equality means, what assumptions are made about the meta-logic. In contrast, we explicitly define extensional equality for GRel^κ with the expectation that this must be given simultaneously with the definition of wfGRel^κ .

Plotkin logic for reasoning about parametricity, that extends the Plotkin logic (27) to the λ -cube has been proposed in a manuscript by Takeuti (18). Crole presents in his book (11) a categorical interpretation of higher-order polymorphic types, which presumably be instantiated to the concrete syntactic relationship used here.

Concerning the interpretation of representation types, this paper extends the ideas developed in previous work by the author (30) to a calculus with higher-order polymorphism.

A similar (but more general) approach of performing recursion over the type structure of the arguments for generic programming has been employed in Generic Haskell. Free theorems about generic functions written in Generic Haskell have been explored by Hinze (16). Hinze derives equations about generic functions by generalizing the usual equations for base kinds using an appropriate logical relation at the type level, assuming a cpo model, using the main property for the logical relation, and assuming a typical fixpoint induction scheme. Our approach relies on no assumptions, and our goal is slightly different: While Hinze aims to generalize behaviour of Generic Haskell functions from kind to higher kinds, we are more interested in investigating abstraction properties that higher-order types carry. Representation types simply make programming interesting generic functions possible.

Finally, Washburn and Weirich give a relational interpretation of a language with non-trivial type equivalence (32), but without abstraction over higher-kinded types. To deal with the complications of type equivalence that we explain in this paper, Washburn and Weirich use canonical forms of types (β -normal η -long forms (15)) as canonical representatives of equivalence classes. Although perhaps more complicated, our analysis (especially outlining the necessary wfGRel conditions) provides better insight on the role of type equivalence in the interpretation of higher-order polymorphism.

Future work. In order for the technique in this paper to evolve into a reasoning technique for Haskell, several limitations need to be addressed. If we wished to use these results to reason about all implementations of `gcast`, we must extend our model to include more—in particular, general recursion and recursive types (25; 19; 3; 2; 9). We believe that the techniques developed here are independent of those for advanced language features.

Another Haskell feature lacking from R_ω is support for generic types. In Haskell, these are newtypes and datatype definitions where each declaration creates a new type that is structurally isomorphic to existing types, but not equal. Dealing with these types in generic programming is tricky—the desired behaviour

is that generic functions should automatically extend to new type definitions based on its isomorphic structure, optionally allowing “after-the-fact” specialization for specific types (23; 17; 34). However, techniques that allow this behavior cannot define `gcast`. As a result, generic programming libraries that depend on `gcast` (22) implement it as a language extension, not directly in Haskell.

Conclusion. We have given a rigorous roadmap through the proof of the abstraction theorem for a language with higher-order polymorphism and representation types, by interpreting types of higher kind directly into the meta-logic. We have shown how parametricity can be used to derive the correctness of generic cast from its type. In conclusion, this paper demonstrates that parametric reasoning is possible in the representation-based approach to generic programming.

Acknowledgments. Thanks to Aaron Bohannon, Jeff Vaughan, Steve Zdancewicz, and the anonymous POPL 2008 referees for their comments. Janis Voigtländer brought Kučan’s dissertation to our attention.

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The R_ω definition of *cast* appears in Figure 7. Thanks to implicit types, the definition of *gcast* may be obtained from this one by replacing lines 11 and 21 with $\text{inr}(\lambda z. h_2(h_1 z))$.

Additional semantics of R_ω

<p>Values $v, w, u ::= R_{\text{int}} \mid R_{()} \mid R_{\times} e_1 e_2 \mid R_{+} e_1 e_2$ $\mid (e_1, e_2) \mid \text{inl } e \mid \text{inr } e$ $\mid () \mid i \mid \lambda x. e$</p>
$\frac{e \Downarrow R_{\text{int}} \quad e_{\text{int}} \Downarrow v}{\text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\} \Downarrow v}$
$\frac{e \Downarrow R_{()} \quad e_{()} \Downarrow v}{\text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\} \Downarrow v}$
$\frac{e \Downarrow R_{\times} e_1 e_2 \quad e_{\times} e_1 (\text{typerec } e_1 \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\}) \quad e_2 (\text{typerec } e_2 \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\}) \Downarrow v}{\text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\} \Downarrow v}$
$\frac{e \Downarrow R_{+} e_1 e_2 \quad e_{+} e_1 (\text{typerec } e_1 \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\}) \quad e_2 (\text{typerec } e_2 \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\}) \Downarrow v}{\text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{()} \mid e_{\times}; e_{+}\} \Downarrow v}$

Figure 8: Operational rules for type recursion

$\frac{(a:\kappa) \in \Gamma \quad \text{kind}(\mathcal{K}) = \kappa}{\Gamma \vdash a : \kappa} \quad \frac{a \# \Gamma \quad \Gamma, a:\kappa_1 \vdash \tau : \kappa_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda a:\kappa_1. \tau : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2}$
$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa_1}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \tau_2 : \kappa} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa_1}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \tau_2 : \kappa}$
$\begin{aligned} \text{kind}(\rightarrow) &= \star \rightarrow \star \rightarrow \star & \text{kind}(\text{int}) &= \star \\ \text{kind}(\times) &= \star \rightarrow \star \rightarrow \star & \text{kind}(\text{inl}) &= \star \\ \text{kind}(+) &= \star \rightarrow \star \rightarrow \star & \text{kind}(\text{R}) &= \star \rightarrow \star \\ \text{kind}(\forall_\kappa) &= (\kappa \rightarrow \star) \rightarrow \star \end{aligned}$

Figure 9: Well-formed types

Generalized relations, in Coq

Coq definition of GRel , wfGRel , and $\text{eqGRel}(\equiv_\kappa)$, follow in Figure 12.

We assume datatypes that encode R_ω syntax, such as kind , type , and env . Moreover we assume constants such as

$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \kappa} \text{ REFL} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_2 \equiv \tau_1 : \kappa}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \kappa} \text{ SYM}$
$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \kappa \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 \equiv \tau_3 : \kappa}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_3 : \kappa} \text{ TRANS}$
$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_3 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 \equiv \tau_4 : \kappa_1}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \tau_2 \equiv \tau_3 \tau_4 : \kappa_2} \text{ APP}$
$\frac{\Gamma, a:\kappa_1 \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda a:\kappa_1. \tau_1) \tau_2 \equiv \tau_1 \{ \tau_2 / a \} : \kappa_2} \text{ BETA}$
$\frac{\Gamma, a:\kappa_1 \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 \quad a \# \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda a:\kappa_1. \tau_1 \equiv \lambda a:\kappa_1. \tau_2 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2} \text{ ABS}$

Figure 10: Type equivalence

TyApp (for type applications) and empty (for empty environments). Term relations are represented with the datatype rel , for which we give an equality predicate eq_rel . rel contains functions that return objects of type Prop . Prop is Coq's universe for propositions, therefore rel itself lives in Coq's Type universe. Then the definitions of wfGRel and eqGRel follow the paper definitions. Importantly, since rel lives in Type, the whole definition of GRel is a well-typed inhabitant of Type.

D. Proof details

Proof of Lemma 2.7:

For all $\mathcal{K}, (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{K}, \llbracket \mathcal{K} \rrbracket) \in \text{wfGRel}^{\text{kind}(\mathcal{K})}$.

Proof: The only interesting case is the one for \forall_κ , which we show below. We need to show that

$$(\forall_\kappa, \forall_\kappa, \llbracket \forall_\kappa \rrbracket) \in \text{wfGRel}^{(\kappa \rightarrow \star) \rightarrow \star}$$

Let us fix $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in \text{ty}(\kappa \rightarrow \star)$, and a generalized relation $g_\tau \in \text{GRel}^{\kappa \rightarrow \star}$, with $(\tau_1, \tau_2, g_\tau) \in \text{wfGRel}^{\kappa \rightarrow \star}$. Then we know that:

$$\llbracket \forall_\kappa \rrbracket (\tau_1, \tau_2, g_\tau) = \{ (v_1, v_2) \mid \begin{aligned} &\cdot \vdash v_1 : \forall_\kappa \tau_1 \wedge \cdot \vdash v_2 : \forall_\kappa \tau_2 \wedge \\ &\text{for all } \rho \in \text{TyGRel}^\kappa \\ &\rho \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa \implies (v_1, v_2) \in (g_\tau \rho) \end{aligned} \}$$

which belongs in wfGRel^* since it is a relation between values of the correct types. Additionally, we need to show that \forall_κ can only distinguish between equivalence classes of its type arguments. For this fix $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \text{ty}(\kappa \rightarrow \star)$, and $g_\sigma \in \text{GRel}^{\kappa \rightarrow \star}$, with $(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, g_\sigma) \in \text{wfGRel}^{\kappa \rightarrow \star}$. Assume that $\cdot \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \sigma_1 : \kappa \rightarrow \star$, $\cdot \vdash \tau_2 \equiv \sigma_2 : \kappa \rightarrow \star$, and $g_\tau \equiv_{\kappa \rightarrow \star} g_\sigma$. Then we know that:

$$\llbracket \forall_\kappa \rrbracket (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, g_\sigma) = \{ (v_1, v_2) \mid \begin{aligned} &\cdot \vdash v_1 : \forall_\kappa \sigma_1 \wedge \cdot \vdash v_2 : \forall_\kappa \sigma_2 \wedge \\ &\text{for all } \rho \in \text{TyGRel}^\kappa, \\ &\rho \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa \implies (v_1, v_2) \in (g_\sigma \rho) \end{aligned} \}$$

We need to show that

$$\llbracket \forall_\kappa \rrbracket (\tau_1, \tau_2, g_\tau) \equiv_\star \llbracket \forall_\kappa \rrbracket (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, g_\sigma)$$

To finish the case, using rule T-EQ to take care of the typing requirements, it is enough to show that, for any $\rho \in \text{TyGRel}^\kappa$,

```

1  cast :: ∀a : *. ∀b : *. R a → R b → () + (a → b)
2  cast = λx. typerec x of {
3    λy. typerec y of {inr λz.z ; inl () ; inl () ; inl ()};
4    λy. typerec y of {inl () ; inr λz.z ; inl () ; inl ()};
5    λra1. λf1. λra2. λf2. λy. typerec y of {
6      inl ();
7      inl ();
8      λrb1. λg1. λrb2. λg2.
9        case f1 rb1 of {h.inl () ; h1.
10         case f2 rb2 of {h.inl () ; h2.
11         inr λz. (h1 (fst z), h2 (snd z))
12         }};
13      λrb1. λg1. λrb2. λg2. inl ()}
14    λra1. λf1. λra2. λf2. λy. typerec y of {
15      inl ();
16      inl ();
17      λrb1. λg1. λrb2. λg2. inl ();
18      λrb1. λg1. λrb2. λg2.
19        case f1 rb1 of {h.inl () ; h1.
20        case f2 rb2 of {h.inl () ; h2.
21        inr (λz. case z of {z1.h1 z1 ; z2.h2 z2})
22        }}}}}

```

Figure 7: Definition of *cast* in R_ω

$$\begin{array}{c}
\boxed{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau} \\
\\
\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash i : \text{int}} \text{INT} \quad \frac{(x:\tau) \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau} \text{VAR} \quad \frac{\Gamma, (x:\tau_1) \vdash e : \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \star}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \text{ABS} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \sigma \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau} \text{APP} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \star}{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_2} \text{T-EQ} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \kappa \sigma \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa}{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma \tau} \text{INST} \quad \frac{\Gamma, (a:\kappa) \vdash e : \sigma a \quad a \# \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \kappa \sigma} \text{GEN} \\
\\
\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash R_{\text{int}} : R \text{ int}} \text{RINT} \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash R_{()} : R ()} \text{RUNIT} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : R \sigma_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : R \sigma_2}{\Gamma \vdash R_{\times} e_1 e_2 : R (\sigma_1, \sigma_2)} \text{RPROD} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : R \sigma_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : R \sigma_2}{\Gamma \vdash R_{+} e_1 e_2 : R (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)} \text{RSUM} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \quad \Gamma \vdash e : R \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{int}} : \sigma \text{ int} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{()} : \sigma () \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{\times} : \forall (a:\star)(b:\star). R a \rightarrow \sigma a \rightarrow R b \rightarrow \sigma b \rightarrow \sigma (a \times b) \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{+} : \forall (a:\star)(b:\star). R a \rightarrow \sigma a \rightarrow R b \rightarrow \sigma b \rightarrow \sigma (a + b)}{\Gamma \vdash \text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}} ; e_{()} ; e_{\times} ; e_{+}\} : \sigma \tau} \text{TREC}
\end{array}$$

Figure 11: Typing relation for R_ω

$\rho \in \text{wfGRel}^\kappa$, we have $g_\tau \rho \equiv_\star g_\sigma \rho$. But this follows from reflexivity of \equiv_κ , and the fact that g_τ and g_σ are well-formed. \square

of Theorem 2.11:

$\tau_1 : \kappa, \delta \models \Gamma$, and $\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \kappa$, then

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta \equiv_\kappa \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa \rrbracket_\delta$$

Proof: The proof can proceed by induction on derivations of $\tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \kappa$. The case for rule BETA follows by appealing to Lemma 2.10, and the cases for rules APP and ABS we give below. The rest of the cases are straightforward.

Case APP. In this case we have that $\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \tau_2 \equiv \tau_3 \tau_4 : \kappa_2$. Even that $\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_3 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2$ and $\Gamma \vdash \tau_2 \equiv \tau_4 : \kappa_1$. It is easy to show as well that $\Gamma \vdash \tau_{1,3} : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2$ and

$\Gamma \vdash \tau_{2,4} : \kappa_1$. We need to show that

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \tau_3 : \kappa_2 \rrbracket_\delta \equiv_{\kappa_2} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 \tau_4 : \kappa_2 \rrbracket_\delta$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned}
r_1 &= \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2 \rrbracket_\delta \\
r_2 &= \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa_1 \rrbracket_\delta \\
r_3 &= \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_3 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2 \rrbracket_\delta \\
r_4 &= \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_4 : \kappa_1 \rrbracket_\delta
\end{aligned}$$

We know by induction hypothesis that $r_1 \equiv_{\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2} r_3$ and $r_2 \equiv_{\kappa_1} r_4$. By Lemma 2.9, we have that:

$$\begin{aligned}
(\delta^1 \tau_1, \delta^2 \tau_1, r_1) &\in \text{wfGRel}^{\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2} \\
(\delta^1 \tau_2, \delta^2 \tau_2, r_2) &\in \text{wfGRel}^{\kappa_1} \\
(\delta^1 \tau_3, \delta^2 \tau_3, r_3) &\in \text{wfGRel}^{\kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2} \\
(\delta^1 \tau_4, \delta^2 \tau_4, r_4) &\in \text{wfGRel}^{\kappa_1}
\end{aligned}$$

```

Implicit Arguments.

Inductive kind : Set :=
| KStar : kind
| KFun : kind -> kind -> kind.

Types and a constant for type applications *)
Parameter ty : kind -> Set.
Parameter TyApp : forall k1 k2, ty (KFun k1 k2) -> ty k1 -> ty k2.

Parameter term : Set.

Environments and constant for empty envs *)
Parameter env : Set.
Parameter empty : env.

Parameter teq : forall k, env ->
  ty k -> ty k -> Prop.

Definition rel : Type := term -> term -> Prop.
Definition eq_rel (r1 : rel) (r2 : rel) :=
  forall e1 e2, r1 e1 e2 <=> r2 e1 e2.

Value relations as a predicate on relations *)
Parameter vrel : (ty KStar * ty KStar * rel) -> Prop.

Definition GRel (k : kind) : Type :=
  forall k with
    KStar => rel
  KFun k1 k2 => (ty k1 * ty k1 * GRel k1) -> GRel k2
  d.

Definition "'TyGRel' k" := (ty k * ty k * GRel k)%type (at level 67).
Definition "x ^1" := (fst (fst x)) (at level 2).
Definition "x ^2" := (snd (fst x)) (at level 2).
Definition "x ^3 " := (snd x) (at level 2).

Typed grels *)
Definition wfGRel (k:kind) : TyGRel k -> Prop :=
  forall k as k' return TyGRel k' -> Prop with
    KStar => vrel
    KFun k1 k2 => fun (c : TyGRel (KFun k1 k2)) =>
      (forall (a : TyGRel k1),
        wfGRel a ->
        (wfGRel (TyApp c^1 a^1, TyApp c^2 a^2, c^3 a)) /\
        (forall b, wfGRel b ->
          teq empty a^1 b^1 ->
          teq empty a^2 b^2 -> eqGRel k1 a^3 b^3 ->
          eqGRel k2 (c^3 a) (c^3 b)))
  d.

Definition eqGRel (k:kind) : GRel k -> GRel k -> Prop :=
  forall k as k' return GRel k' -> GRel k' -> Prop with
    KStar => eq_rel
    KFun k1 k2 => fun r1 r2 =>
      (forall a, wfGRel a -> eqGRel k2 (r1 a) (r2 a))
  d.

```

Figure 12: Coq definitions

that it is not hard to see that $\cdot \vdash \delta^1 \tau_2 \equiv \delta^1 \tau_4 : \kappa_1$ and $\delta^2 \tau_2 \equiv \delta^2 \tau_4 : \kappa_1$. Hence, by the properties of well-formed environments, and our definition of equivalence, we can show that

$$r_1 (\delta^1 \tau_2, \delta^2 \tau_2, r_2) \equiv_{\kappa_2} r_3 (\delta^1 \tau_4, \delta^2 \tau_4, r_4)$$

which finishes the case.

Case ABS. Here we have that

$$\Gamma \vdash \lambda a : \kappa_1 . \tau_1 \equiv \lambda a : \kappa_1 . \tau_2 : \kappa_1 \rightarrow \kappa_2$$

even that $\Gamma, a : \kappa_1 \vdash \tau_1 \equiv \tau_2 : \kappa_2$. To show the required result let us pick $\rho \in \mathbf{TyGRel}^{\kappa_1}$ with $\rho \in \mathbf{wfGRel}^{\kappa_1}$. Then $\Gamma \vdash \delta_a = \delta, a \mapsto \rho$, we have $\delta_a \models \Gamma, (a : \kappa_1)$, and hence by induction hypothesis we get:

$$\llbracket \Gamma, a : \kappa_1 \vdash \tau_1 : \kappa_2 \rrbracket_{\delta_a} \equiv_{\kappa_2} \llbracket \Gamma, a : \kappa_1 \vdash \tau_2 : \kappa_2 \rrbracket_{\delta_a}$$

and the case is finished. As a side note, the important condition that $\rho \in \mathbf{wfGRel}^{\kappa_1}$ allows us to show that $\delta_a \models \Gamma, (a : \kappa_1)$ and therefore enables the use of the induction hypothesis. If $\rho \in \mathbf{TyGRel}^{\kappa_1}$ tested against *any possible* $\rho \in \mathbf{TyGRel}^{\kappa_1}$ that would no longer be true, and hence the case could not be proved. \square

We first give all the rules of the main typing relation in Fig. 1. It is then easy to verify the following lemma.

Lemma [Regularity]: If $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ then $\Gamma \vdash \tau : \star$.

Moreover, we assume a type and term substitution lemma—which can be proved by straightforward inductions. We extend our definition of substitutions to include also mappings of term variables to pairs of closed expressions.

$$\gamma, \delta := \cdot \mid \delta, (\tau \mapsto (\tau_1, \tau_2, r)) \mid \delta, (x \mapsto (e_1, e_2))$$

The definition of Subst_T remains the same, but we add one more rule to $\gamma \models \Gamma$: for all x such that $\gamma(x) = (e_1, e_2)$, it is the case that $(e_1, e_2) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$ where $(x : \tau) \in \Gamma$. We write $\gamma^1, \gamma^2(x)$ for the left and right projections of $\gamma(x)$, and extend this notation to arbitrary terms. A well-formed environment is one whose domain of term and type variables, and where for all $(x : \tau) \in \Gamma$, $\Gamma \vdash \tau : \star$, so the above definition makes sense for well-formed environments.

We give a detailed sketch below of the proof of the abstraction theorem.

Proof of the Abstraction Theorem:

Let $\gamma \models \Gamma$ be well-formed, and $\gamma \models \Gamma$ and $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ then $(\gamma^1 e, \gamma^2 e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$.

Proof: We proceed by induction on the typing derivation $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$. The case analysis on the last rule used.

Case INT. Straightforward.

Case VAR. The result follows immediately from the fact that the environment is well-formed and the definition of $\gamma \models \Gamma$.

Case ABS. In this case we have that $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x . e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ given that $\Gamma, (x : \tau_1) \vdash e : \tau_2$, and where we assume w.l.o.g. that $\tau_1 \neq \star$. It suffices to show that $(\lambda x . \gamma^1 e, \lambda x . \gamma^2 e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$. To show this, let us pick $(e_1, e_2) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_1 : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$, it is then enough to show that

$$((\lambda x . \gamma^1 e) e_1, (\lambda x . \gamma^2 e) e_2) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \star \rrbracket_\gamma \quad (5)$$

and we can take $\gamma_0 = \gamma, (x \mapsto (e_1, e_2))$, which certainly satisfies $\gamma_0 \models \Gamma, (x : \tau_1)$ and by induction hypothesis: $(\gamma_0^1 e, \gamma_0^2 e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma, (x : \tau_1) \vdash e : \tau_2 \rrbracket_{\gamma_0}$. By an easy weakening lemma for term variables in the type interpretation we have

that $(\gamma_0^1 e, \gamma_0^2 e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau_2 : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$, and by the definitions, equation (5) follows.

- Case APP. In this case we have that $\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau$ given that $\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \sigma \rightarrow \tau$ and $\Gamma \vdash e_2 : \sigma$. By induction hypothesis,

$$(\gamma^1 e_1, \gamma^2 e_1) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma \rightarrow \tau : \star \rrbracket_\gamma \quad (6)$$

$$(\gamma^1 e_2, \gamma^2 e_2) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rrbracket_\gamma \quad (7)$$

From (6) we get that $\gamma^1 e_1 \Downarrow w_1$ and $\gamma^2 e_1 \Downarrow w_2$ such that $(w_1 (\gamma^1 e_2), w_2 (\gamma^2 e_2)) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$, where we made use of equation (7) and unfolded definitions. Hence, by the operational semantics for applications, we also have that: $((\gamma^1 e_1) (\gamma^1 e_2), (\gamma^2 e_1) (\gamma^2 e_2)) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$, as required.

- Case T-EQ. The case follows directly from appealing to the Coherence theorem 2.11.
- Case INST. In this case we have that $\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma \tau$, given that $\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \kappa \sigma$ and $\Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa$. By induction hypothesis we get that $(\gamma^1 e, \gamma^2 e) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \forall \kappa \rrbracket_\gamma (\gamma^1 \sigma, \gamma^2 \sigma, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \kappa \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_\gamma))$; hence by the definition of $\llbracket \forall \kappa \rrbracket_\gamma$ and by making use of the fact that $(\gamma^1 \tau, \gamma^2 \tau, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket_\gamma) \in \mathbf{wfGRel}^\kappa$ (by Lemma 2.9), we get that $\gamma^1 e \Downarrow v_1$ and $\gamma^2 e \Downarrow v_2$ such that

$$(v_1, v_2) \in \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \kappa \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_\gamma (\gamma^1 \tau, \gamma^2 \tau, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \kappa \rrbracket_\gamma)$$

hence, $(v_1, v_2) \in \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma \tau : \star \rrbracket_\gamma$ as required.

- Case GEN. We have that $\Gamma \vdash e : \forall \kappa \sigma$, given that $\Gamma, (a : \kappa) \vdash e : \sigma a$ where $a \# \Gamma$, and we assume w.l.o.g. that $a \# \text{ftv}(\gamma)$ as well. We need to show that $(\gamma^1 e, \gamma^2 e) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \forall \kappa \rrbracket_\gamma (\gamma^1 \sigma, \gamma^2 \sigma, \llbracket \sigma \rrbracket_\gamma))$. Hence we can fix $\rho \in \mathbf{TyGRel}^\kappa$ such that $\rho \in \mathbf{wfGRel}^\kappa$. We can form the substitution $\gamma_0 = \gamma, (a \mapsto \rho)$, for which it is easy to show that $\gamma_0 \models \Gamma, (a : \kappa)$. Then, by induction hypothesis $(\gamma_0^1 e, \gamma_0^2 e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma, (a : \kappa) \vdash \sigma a : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma_0}$ which means $(\gamma_0^1 e, \gamma_0^2 e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma, (a : \kappa) \vdash \sigma : \kappa \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_{\gamma_0} \rho$. By an easy weakening lemma this implies $(\gamma_0^1 e, \gamma_0^2 e) \in \mathcal{C} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \kappa \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_\gamma \rho$ and moreover since terms do not contain types $\gamma_0^i e = \gamma^i e$ and the case is finished.
- Case RINT. We have that $\Gamma \vdash \text{Rint} : \text{Rint}$, hence $(\text{Rint}, \text{Rint}) \in \mathcal{R}(\text{int}, \text{int}, \llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket)$ by unfolding definitions.
- Case RUNIT. Similar to the case for RINT.
- Case RPROD. We have that $\Gamma \vdash \text{R}_\times e_1 e_2 : \text{R}(\sigma_1 \times \sigma_2)$, given that $\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{R} \sigma_1$ and $\Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{R} \sigma_2$. It suffices to show that $(\text{R}_\times \gamma^1 e_1 \gamma^1 e_2, \text{R}_\times \gamma^2 e_1 \gamma^2 e_2) \in \mathcal{R}(\gamma^1(\sigma_1 \times \sigma_2), \gamma^2(\sigma_1 \times \sigma_2), \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma_1 \times \sigma_2 : \star \rrbracket_\gamma)$. The result follows by taking as $\rho_a = (\gamma^1 \sigma_1, \gamma^2 \sigma_1, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma_1 : \star \rrbracket_\gamma)$, $\rho_b = (\gamma^1 \sigma_2, \gamma^2 \sigma_2, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma_2 : \star \rrbracket_\gamma)$. By Lemma 2.9, regularity and inversion on the kinding relation, one can show that ρ_a and ρ_b are well-formed and hence to finish the case we only need to show that $(\gamma^1 e_1, \gamma^2 e_1) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \rho_a)$ and $(\gamma^1 e_2, \gamma^2 e_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \rho_b)$, which follow by induction hypotheses for the typing of e_1 and e_2 .
- Case RSUM. Similar to the case for RPROD.
- Case TREC. This is really the only interesting case. After we decompose the premises and get the induction hypotheses, we proceed with an inner induction on the type of the scrutinee. In this case we have that:

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{\text{()}}; e_{\text{x}}; e_{\text{+}}\} : \sigma \tau$$

Let us introduce some abbreviations:

$$\begin{aligned} u[e] &= \text{typerec } e \text{ of } \{e_{\text{int}}; e_{\text{()}}; e_{\text{x}}; e_{\text{+}}\} \\ \sigma_{\text{x}} &= \forall (a : \star)(b : \star). \text{R } a \rightarrow \sigma a \rightarrow \\ &\quad \text{R } b \rightarrow \sigma b \rightarrow \sigma (a \times b) \end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma_+ = \forall(a:\star)(b:\star). \mathbf{R} \ a \rightarrow \sigma \ a \rightarrow \mathbf{R} \ b \rightarrow \sigma \ b \rightarrow \sigma \ (a + b)$$

the premises of the rule we have:

$$\Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \quad (8)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{R} \ \tau \quad (9)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e_{\text{int}} : \sigma \ \text{int} \quad (10)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e_{()} : \sigma \ () \quad (11)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e_{\times} : \sigma_{\times} \quad (12)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e_{+} : \sigma_{+} \quad (13)$$

We also know the corresponding induction hypotheses for (10), (11), (12), (13). We now show that:

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall e_1 \ e_2 \ \rho \in \mathbf{TyGRel}^*, \tau_1 \in \mathbf{ty}(\star) \ \tau_2 \in \mathbf{ty}(\star) \ r, \\ & \rho \in \mathbf{wfGRel}^* \wedge (e_1, e_2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \ \rho) \\ & \implies (\gamma^1 u[e_1], \gamma^2 u[e_2]) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} \ \rho) \end{aligned}$$

introducing our assumptions, and performing inner induction on the size of the normal form of τ_1 . Let us call this property for fixed e_1, e_2, ρ , $INNER(e_1, e_2, \rho)$. We have that $(\gamma^1 u[e_1], \gamma^2 u[e_2]) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \ \rho)$ and hence we know that $e_1 \Downarrow w_1$ and $e_2 \Downarrow w_2$, such that:

$$(w_1, w_2) \in \mathcal{R} \ \rho$$

We then have the following cases to consider by the definition \mathcal{R} :

$w_1 = w_2 = \mathbf{R}_{\text{int}}$ and $\rho \equiv (\text{int}, \text{int}, \llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket)$. In this case, $\gamma^1 u \Downarrow w_1$ such that $\gamma^1 e_{\text{int}} \Downarrow w_1$ and similarly $\gamma^2 u \Downarrow w_2$ such that $\gamma^2 e_{\text{int}} \Downarrow w_2$, and hence it is enough to show that: $(\gamma^1 e_{\text{int}}, \gamma^2 e_{\text{int}}) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} \ \rho)$. From the outer induction hypothesis for (10) we get that: $(\gamma^1 e_{\text{int}}, \gamma^2 e_{\text{int}}) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma \ \text{int} : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma})$. And we have that:

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma \ \text{int} : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} = \\ & \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} \ (\text{int}, \text{int}, \llbracket \text{int} \rrbracket) \equiv_{\star} \\ & \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} \ \rho \end{aligned}$$

where we have made use of the properties of well-formed generalized relations to substitute equivalent types and relations in the middle step.

$w_1 = w_2 = ()$ and $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} \equiv_{\star} \llbracket () \rrbracket$. The case is similar to the previous case.

$w_1 = \mathbf{R}_{\times} \ e_a^1 \ e_a^2$ and $w_2 = \mathbf{R}_{\times} \ e_b^1 \ e_b^2$, such that there exist ρ_a^1 and ρ_a^2 , well-formed, such that

$$\rho \equiv_{\star} ((\rho_a^1 \times \rho_b^1), (\rho_a^2 \times \rho_b^2), \llbracket \times \rrbracket \ \rho_a \ \rho_b) \quad (14)$$

$$(e_a^1, e_a^2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \ \rho_a) \quad (15)$$

$$(e_b^1, e_b^2) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \ \rho_b) \quad (16)$$

In this case we know that $\gamma^1 u[e_1] \Downarrow w_1$ and $\gamma^2 u[e_2] \Downarrow w_2$ where

$$(\gamma^1 e_{\times}) \ e_a^1 \ (\gamma^1 u[e_a^1]) \ e_b^1 \ (\gamma^1 u[e_b^1]) \Downarrow w_1$$

$$(\gamma^2 e_{\times}) \ e_a^2 \ (\gamma^2 u[e_a^2]) \ e_b^2 \ (\gamma^2 u[e_b^2]) \Downarrow w_2$$

By the outer induction hypothesis for (12) we will be done, as before, if we instantiate with relations r_a and r_b for the quantified variables a and b , respectively. But we need to show that, for $\gamma_0 = \gamma, (a \mapsto \rho_a), (b \mapsto \rho_b)$, $\Gamma_0 = \Gamma, (a:\star), (b:\star)$, we have:

$$(\gamma^1 u[e_a^1], \gamma^2 u[e_a^2]) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \Gamma_0 \vdash \sigma \ a : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma_0}) \quad (17)$$

$$(\gamma^1 u[e_b^1], \gamma^2 u[e_b^2]) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \Gamma_0 \vdash \sigma \ b : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma_0}) \quad (18)$$

But notice that the size of the normal form of τ_a^1 must be less than the size of the normal form of τ_1 , and similarly for τ_b^1 and τ_b , and hence we can apply the (inner) induction hypothesis for (15) and (16). From these, compositionality, and an easy weakening lemma, we have that (17) and (18) follow. By the outer induction hypothesis for (12) we then finally have that:

$$(w_1, w_2) \in \llbracket \Gamma, (a:\star), (b:\star) \vdash \sigma \ (a \times b) : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma_0}$$

which gives us the desired $(w_1, w_2) \in \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} \ \rho$ by appealing to the properties of well-formed generalized relations.

We now have by the induction hypothesis for (9), that $(\gamma^1 e, \gamma^2 e) \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{R} \ (\gamma^1 \tau, \gamma^2 \tau, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma}))$, and hence we can get $INNER(\gamma^1 e, \gamma^2 e, (\gamma^1 \tau, \gamma^2 \tau, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma}))$, which gives us that: $(\gamma^1 u[e], \gamma^2 u[e]) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \star \rightarrow \star \rrbracket_{\gamma} \ (\gamma^1 \tau, \gamma^2 \tau, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \tau : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma}))$, or $(\gamma^1 u[e], \gamma^2 u[e]) \in \mathcal{C}(\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \sigma \ \tau : \star \rrbracket_{\gamma})$, as required. \square