

The Combination of Dynamic and Static Typing from a Categorical Perspective

Harley Eades III
Computer Science
Augusta University
Augusta, GA, USA
harley.eades@gmail.com

Michael Townsend Computer Science Augusta University Augusta, GA, USA mitownsend@augusta.edu

Abstract

In this paper we introduce a new categorical model based on retracts that combines static and dynamic typing. This model is initially based on the seminal work of Scott who showed that the untyped λ -calculus can be considered as typed using retracts. Following this we define a new simple type system which combines static and dynamic typing called Grady that corresponds to our model. Then we develop a gradually typed surface language for Grady, and show that it can be translated into Grady such that the gradual guarantee holds. Finally, to illustrate how this system can be extended with new features we extend both the surface and the core languages with bounded quantification such that the gradual guarantee is preserved.

CCS Concepts •Software and its engineering \rightarrow General programming languages; •Social and professional topics \rightarrow History of programming languages;

Keywords static typing, dynamic typing, gradual typing, categorical semantics, retract,typed lambda-calculus, untyped lambda-calculus, functional programming, bounded quantification

ACM Reference format:

Harley Eades III and Michael Townsend. 2016. The Combination of Dynamic and Static Typing from a Categorical Perspective. In *Proceedings of ACM Conference, Washington, DC, USA, July 2017 (Conference'17),* 8 pages.

DOI: 10.1145/nnnnnnnnnnnnnnn

1 Introduction

2 The Categorical Model

One strength and main motivation for giving a categorical model to a programming language is that it can expose the fundamental structure of the language. This arises because a lot of the language features that often cloud the picture go away, for example, syntactic notions like variables disappear. This can often simplify things and expose the underlying structure. For example, when giving the simply typed λ -calculus a categorical model we see that it is a cartesian closed category, but we also know that intuitionistic logic has the same model due to Lambek [8]; on the syntactic side these two theories

Both authors where supported by the National Science Foundation CRII CISE Research Initiation grant, "CRII:SHF: A New Foundation for Attack Trees Based on Monoidal Categories", under Grant No. 1565557.

Conference'17, Washington, DC, USA 2016. 978-x-xxxx-xxxx-x/YY/MM...\$15.00

DOI: 10.1145/nnnnnnn.nnnnnnn

are equivalent as well due to Howard [7]; this is known as the Curry-Howard-Lambek correspondence.

The previous point highlights one of the most powerful features of category theory: its ability to relate seemingly unrelated theories. It is quite surprising that the typed λ -calculus and intuitionistic logic share the same model. Thus, defining a categorical model for a particular programming language may reveal new and interesting relationships with existing work. In fact, one of the contributions of this paper is the new connection between Scott and Lambek's work to the new area of gradual typing and combing static and dynamic typing.

However, that motivation places defining a categorical model as an after thought. The Grady languages developed here were designed from the other way around. We started with the question, how do we combine static and dynamic typing categorically? Then after developing the model we use it to push us toward the correct language design. Reynolds [2] was a big advocate for the use of category theory in programming language research for this reason. We think the following quote – reported by Brookes et al. [2] – makes this point nicely:

Programming language semanticists should be the obstetricians of programming languages, not their coroners.

- John C. Reynolds

Categorical semantics provides a powerful tool to study language extensions. For example, purely functional programming in Haskell would not be where it is without the seminal work of Moggi and Wadler [10, 16] on using monads – a purely categorical notion – to add side effects to to pure functional programming languages. Thus, we believe that developing these types of models for new language designs and features can be hugely beneficial.

The model we develop here builds on the seminal work of Lambek [8] and Scott [11]. Lambek [8] showed that the typed λ -calculus can be modeled by a cartesian closed category. In the same volume as Lambek, Scott essentially showed that the untyped λ -calculus is actually typed. That is, typed theories are more fundamental than untyped ones. He accomplished this by adding a single type, ?, and two functions squash : (? \rightarrow ?) \rightarrow ? and split : ? \rightarrow (? \rightarrow ?), such that, squash; split = id : (? \rightarrow ?) \rightarrow (? \rightarrow ?), to a cartesian closed category. At this point he was able to translate the untyped λ -calculus into this unityped one.

Categorically, Scott modeled split and squash as the morphisms in a retract within a cartesian closed category – the same model as typed λ -calculus.

Definition 2.1. Suppose C is a category. Then an object A is a **retract** of an object B if there are morphisms $i: A \longrightarrow B$ and $r: B \longrightarrow A$ such that $i; r = \mathrm{id}_A$.

Thus, ? \rightarrow ? is a retract of ?, but we also require that ? \times ? be a retract of ?; this is not new, see Lambek and Scott [9]. Putting this together we obtain Scott's model of the untyped λ -calculus.

Definition 2.2. An **untyped** λ **-model**, (C,?, split, squash), is a cartesian closed category C with a distinguished object? and morphisms squash: $S \longrightarrow ?$ and split: $? \longrightarrow S$ making the object S a retract of?, where S is either? $\rightarrow ?$ or? $\times ?$.

Theorem 2.3 (Scott [11]). An untyped λ -model is a sound and complete model of the untyped λ -calculus.

So far we know how to model static types (typed λ -calculus) and unknown types (the untyped λ -calculus). The to make the Grady languages a bit more interesting we add natural numbers, but we will need a way to model these in a cartesian closed category.

We model the natural numbers with their (non-recursive) eliminator using what we call a non-recursive natural number object. This is a simplification of the traditional natural number object; see Lambek and Scott [9].

Definition 2.4. Suppose C is a cartesian closed category. A **non-recursive natural number object (NRNO)** is an object Nat of C and morphisms $z: 1 \longrightarrow Nat$ and succ: Nat $\longrightarrow Nat$ of C, such that, for any morphisms $f: Y \longrightarrow X$ and $g: Y \times Nat \longrightarrow X$ of C there is an unique morphism $case_X\langle f, g \rangle: Y \times Nat \longrightarrow X$ such that the following hold:

$$\langle id_Y, \diamond_Y; z \rangle$$
; $case_{Y,X} \langle f, g \rangle = f \quad \langle id_Y \times succ \rangle$; $case_{Y,X} \langle f, g \rangle = g$

Informally, the two equations essentially assert that we can define $\mathsf{case}_{Y,X}$ as follows:

$$case_{Y,X}\langle f,g\rangle y = f y$$
 $case_{Y,X}\langle f,g\rangle y (succ n) = g y n$

At this point we can model both static and unknown types with natural numbers in a cartesian closed category, but we do not have any way of moving typed data into the untyped part and vice versa to obtain dynamic typing. To accomplish this we add two new morphisms box $_C:C\longrightarrow ?$ and unbox $_C:?\longrightarrow C$ such that each atomic type, C, is a retract of ?. This enforces that the only time we can cast ? to another type is if it were boxed up in the first place. Combining all of these insights we obtain the complete categorical model.

Definition 2.5. A gradual λ -model, $(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split},$

squash, box, unbox, error), where $\mathcal T$ is a discrete category with at least two objects Nat and Unit, C is a cartesian closed category with a NRNO, (C, ?, split, squash) is an untyped λ -model, $T: \mathcal T \longrightarrow C$ is an embedding – a full and faithful functor that is injective on objects – and for every object A of $\mathcal T$ there are morphisms box $_A: TA \longrightarrow ?$ and unbox $_A: ? \longrightarrow TA$ making TA a retract of ?. Furthermore, to model dynamic type errors, there is a morphism, $\text{err}_A: \text{Unit} \longrightarrow A$ of C, such that, the following

```
equations hold w.r.t. error<sub>A,B</sub> = A \xrightarrow{\text{triv}_A} \text{Unit} \xrightarrow{\text{err}_B} B:
```

```
\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{box}_{TA}; \mathsf{unbox}_{TB} &= \mathsf{error}_{TA,TB}, \ \mathsf{where} \ A \neq B \\ \mathsf{squash}_{S_1}; \mathsf{split}_{S_2} &= \mathsf{error}_{S_1,S_2}, \ \mathsf{where} \ f_1 \neq S_2 \\ & f; \mathsf{error}_{B,C} &= \mathsf{error}_{A,C}, \ \mathsf{where} \ f: A \longrightarrow B \\ &\mathsf{error}_{A,B}; f &= \mathsf{error}_{A,C}, \ \mathsf{where} \ f: B \longrightarrow C \\ & \langle \mathsf{error}_{A,B}, f \rangle &= \mathsf{error}_{A,B \times C}, \ \mathsf{where} \ f: A \longrightarrow C \\ & \langle f, \, \mathsf{error}_{A,C} \rangle &= \mathsf{error}_{A,B \times C}, \ \mathsf{where} \ f: A \longrightarrow B \\ \mathsf{curry}(\mathsf{error}_{A\times B,C}) &= \mathsf{error}_{A,B \to C} \end{array}
```

We call the category \mathcal{T} the category of atomic types. We call an object, A, **atomic** iff there is some object A' in \mathcal{T} such that A = TA'. Note that we do not consider ? an atomic type.

Triggering dynamic type errors is a fundamental property of the criteria for gradually typed languages, and thus, the model must capture this. The new morphism $\operatorname{err}_A:\operatorname{Unit} \longrightarrow A$ is combined with the terminal morphism, $\operatorname{triv}_A:A\longrightarrow\operatorname{Unit}$, which is a unique morphism guaranteed to exist because C is cartesian closed, to define the morphism $\operatorname{error}_{A,B}:A\longrightarrow B$ that signifies that one tried to unbox or split at the wrong type resulting in a dynamic type error; this is captured by the first and second equations in the definition. If we view morphisms as programs, then the other equations are congruence rules that trigger a dynamic type error for the whole program when one of its subparts trigger a dynamic type error. The following extends the error equations to the functors $-\times-$ and $-\to-$:

Lemma 2.6 (Extended Errors). *Suppose* (\mathcal{T} , \mathcal{C} , \mathcal{T} , \mathcal{T} , split, squash, box, unbox, error) *is a gradual* λ -model. *Then the following equations hold:*

```
\begin{array}{ll} f \times \mathsf{error}_{B,C} &= \; \mathsf{error}_{A \times B,C \times D}, \; \mathit{where} \; f : A \longrightarrow C \\ \mathsf{error}_{A,C} \times f &= \; \mathsf{error}_{A \times B,C \times D}, \; \mathit{where} \; f : B \longrightarrow D \\ f \rightarrow \mathsf{error}_{B,C} &= \; \mathsf{error}_{A \rightarrow B,C \rightarrow D}, \; \mathit{where} \; f : C \longrightarrow A \\ \mathsf{error}_{C,A} \rightarrow f &= \; \mathsf{error}_{A \rightarrow B,C \rightarrow D}, \; \mathit{where} \; f : B \longrightarrow D \end{array}
```

Proof. The following define the morphism part of the two functors $f \times g : (A \times B) \longrightarrow (C \times D)$ and $f \rightarrow g : (A \rightarrow B) \longrightarrow (C \rightarrow D)$:

$$\begin{split} f \times g &= \langle \mathsf{fst}; f, \mathsf{snd}; g \rangle, \\ &\quad \mathsf{where} \ f : A {\longrightarrow} C \ \mathsf{and} \ g : B {\longrightarrow} D \end{split}$$

$$f \to g &= \mathsf{curry}((\mathsf{id}_{A \to B} \times f); \mathsf{app}_{A,B}; g), \\ &\quad \mathsf{where} \ f : C {\longrightarrow} A \ \mathsf{and} \ g : B {\longrightarrow} D \end{split}$$

First, note that fst : $(A \times B) \longrightarrow A$, snd : $(A \times B) \longrightarrow B$, and app_{A,B} : $((A \rightarrow B) \times A) \longrightarrow B$ all exist by the definition of a cartesian closed category.

It is now quite obvious that if either f or g is error in the previous two definitions, then by using the equations from the definition of a gradual λ -model (Definition 2.5) the application of either of the functors will result in error.

As the model is defined it is unclear if we can cast any type to ?, and vice versa, but we must be able to do this in order to model full dynamic typing. In the remainder of this section we show that we can build up such casts in terms of the basic features of our model. To cast any type A to ? we will build casting morphisms that first take the object A to its skeleton, and then takes the skeleton to ?.

Definition 2.7. Suppose $(\mathcal{T}, C, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash}, \mathsf{box}, \mathsf{unbox}, \mathsf{error})$ is a gradual λ -model. Then we call any morphism defined completely in terms of id, the functors $- \times - \mathsf{and} - \to -$, split and squash, and box and unbox a **casting morphism**.

Definition 2.8. Suppose (\mathcal{T} , \mathcal{C} , ?, \mathcal{T} , split, squash, box, unbox, error) is a gradual *λ*-model. The **skeleton** of an object \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{C} is an object \mathcal{S} that is constructed by replacing each

atomic type in A with ?. Given an object A we denote its skeleton by skeleton A.

One should think of the skeleton of an object as the supporting type structure of the object, but we do not know what kind of data is actually in the structure. For example, the skeleton of the object Nat is ?, and the skeleton of $(Nat \times Unit) \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat$ is $(? \times ?) \rightarrow ? \rightarrow ?$.

The next definition defines a means of constructing a casting morphism that casts a type A to its skeleton and vice versa. This definition is by mutual recursion on the input type.

Definition 2.9. Suppose $(\mathcal{T}, C, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash}, \mathsf{box}, \mathsf{unbox}, \mathsf{error})$ is a gradual λ -model. Then for any object A whose skeleton is S we define the morphisms $\widehat{\mathsf{box}}_A : A \longrightarrow S$ and $\widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_A : S \longrightarrow A$ by mutual recursion on A as follows:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \widehat{\mathsf{box}}_A = \mathsf{box}_A & \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_A = \mathsf{unbox}_A \\ \mathsf{when}\ A\ \mathsf{is}\ \mathsf{atomic} & \widehat{\mathsf{when}}\ A\ \mathsf{is}\ \mathsf{atomic} \\ \hline \widehat{\mathsf{box}}_2 = \mathsf{id}_? & \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_{A_1} \to \widehat{\mathsf{box}}_{A_2} \\ \overline{\mathsf{box}}_{(A_1 \to A_2)} = \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_{A_1} \times \widehat{\mathsf{box}}_{A_2} & \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_{(A_1 \to A_2)} = \widehat{\mathsf{box}}_{A_1} \to \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_{A_2} \\ \hline \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_{(A_1 \times A_2)} = \widehat{\mathsf{box}}_{A_1} \times \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_{A_2} & \widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_{A_2} \end{array}$$

The definition of both box or unbox uses the functor $-\to -: C^{\mathrm{op}} \times C \longrightarrow C$ which is contravariant in its first argument, and thus, in that contravariant position we must make a recursive call to the opposite function, and hence, they must be mutually defined. Every call to either box or unbox in the previous definition is on a smaller object than the input object. Thus, their definitions are well founded. Furthermore, box and unbox form a retract between A and S.

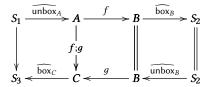
Lemma 2.10 (Boxing and Unboxing Lifted Retract). *Suppose* $(\mathcal{T}, C, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash}, \mathsf{box}, \mathsf{unbox}, \mathsf{error})$ *is a gradual* λ -model. Then for any object A, $\widehat{\mathsf{box}}_A$; $\widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_A = \mathsf{id}_A : A \longrightarrow A$. Furthermore, for any objects A and B such that $A \neq B$, $\widehat{\mathsf{box}}_A$; $\widehat{\mathsf{unbox}}_B = \mathsf{error}_{A,B}$.

Proof. This proof holds by induction on the form A. Please see Appendix $\ref{eq:Appendix}$ for the complete proof. \Box

As an example, suppose we wanted to cast the type (Nat×?) \rightarrow Nat to its skeleton (? × ?) \rightarrow ?. Then we can obtain a casting morphisms that will do this as follows:

$$\widehat{\text{box}}_{((\text{Nat}\times?)\to\text{Nat})} = (\text{unbox}_{\text{Nat}} \times \text{id}_?) \to \text{box}_{\text{Nat}}$$

We can also cast a morphism $A \xrightarrow{f} B$ to a morphism $A \xrightarrow{\text{unbox}}_A : f_1 \xrightarrow{\text{box}}_A : S_1 \longrightarrow S_2$ where $S_1 = \text{skeleton } A$ and $S_2 = \text{skeleton } B$. Now if we have a second $\overline{\text{unbox}}_B : g_1 \xrightarrow{\text{box}}_C : S_2 \longrightarrow S_3$ then their composition reduces to composition at the typed level:



The right most diagram commutes because B is a retract of S_2 , and the left unannotated arrow is the composition $\widehat{\text{unbox}}_A$; f;

g; \widehat{box}_C . This tells us that we have a functor $S: C \longrightarrow S$:

$$SA = \text{skeleton } A$$

 $S(f : A \longrightarrow B) = \widehat{\text{unbox}}_A; f; \widehat{\text{box}}_A$

where S is the full subcategory of C consisting of the skeletons and morphisms between them, that is, S is a cartesian closed category with one basic object? such that (S, ?, split, squash) is an untyped λ -model. The following turns out to be true.

Lemma 2.11 (S is faithful). Suppose $(\mathcal{T}, C, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash}, \mathsf{box}, \mathsf{unbox}, \mathsf{error})$ is a gradual λ -model, and $(\mathcal{S}, ?, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash})$ is the category of skeletons. Then the functor $\mathsf{S}: C \longrightarrow \mathcal{S}$ is faithful.

Proof. This proof follows from the definition of S and Lemma 2.10. For the full proof see Appendix ??.

Thus, we can think of the functor S as an injection of the typed world into the untyped one.

Now that we can cast any type into its skeleton we must show that every skeleton can be cast to ?. We do this similarly to the above and lift split and squash to arbitrary skeletons.

Definition 2.12. Suppose (S,?, split, squash) is the category of skeletons. Then for any skeleton S we define the morphisms $\widehat{\text{squash}}_S: S \longrightarrow ?$ and $\widehat{\text{split}}_S: ? \longrightarrow S$ by mutual recursion on S as follows:

$$\begin{split} & \overbrace{\text{squash}}_{(S_1 \rightarrow S_2)} = id? \\ & \overbrace{\text{squash}}_{(S_1 \rightarrow S_2)} = (\widehat{\text{split}}_{S_1} \rightarrow \widehat{\text{squash}}_{S_2}); \text{squash}_{?\rightarrow?} \\ & \overbrace{\text{squash}}_{(S_1 \times S_2)} = (\widehat{\text{squash}}_{S_1} \times \widehat{\text{squash}}_{S_2}); \text{squash}_{?\times?} \\ & \widehat{\text{split}}_? = id? \\ & \widehat{\text{split}}_{(S_1 \rightarrow S_2)} = \text{split}_{?\rightarrow?}; (\widehat{\text{squash}}_{S_1} \rightarrow \widehat{\text{split}}_{S_2}) \\ & \widehat{\text{split}}_{(S_1 \times S_2)} = \text{split}_{?\times?}; (\widehat{\text{split}}_{S_1} \times \widehat{\text{split}}_{S_2}) \end{split}$$

As an example we will construct the casting morphism that casts the skeleton $(? \times ?) \rightarrow ?$ to ?:

$$\overline{\text{squash}}_{(?\times?)\rightarrow?} = (\text{split}_{?\times?} \rightarrow \text{id}_?); \text{squash}_{?\rightarrow?}.$$

Just as we saw above, splitting and squashing forms a re-

Lemma 2.13 (Splitting and Squashing Lifted Retract). Suppose (S, ?, split, squash) is the category of skeletons. Then for any skeleton S, $\overline{\text{squash}}_S$; $\overline{\text{split}}_S = \operatorname{id}_S : S \longrightarrow S$. Furthermore, for any skeletons S_1 and S_2 such that $S_1 \neq S_2$, $\overline{\text{squash}}_{S_1}$; $\overline{\text{split}}_{S_2} = \operatorname{error}_{S_1, S_2}$.

Proof. The proof is similar to the proof of the boxing and unboxing lifted retract (Lemma 2.10). □

There is also a faithful functor from $\mathcal S$ to $\mathcal U$ where $\mathcal U$ is the full subcategory of $\mathcal S$ that consists of the single object? and all its morphisms between it:

$$US = ?$$

$$U(f : S_1 \longrightarrow S_2) = \widehat{\text{split}}_{S_1}; f; \widehat{\text{squash}}_{S_2}$$

This finally implies that there is a functor $C: C \longrightarrow \mathcal{U}$ that injects all of C into the object?.

Lemma 2.14 (Casting to ?). Suppose $(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash}, \mathsf{box}, \mathsf{unbox}, \mathsf{error})$ is a gradual λ -model, $(\mathcal{S}, ?, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash})$ is the full subcategory of skeletons, and $(\mathcal{U}, ?)$ is the full subcategory containing only ? and its morphisms. Then there is a faithful

functor
$$C = C \xrightarrow{S} S \xrightarrow{U} \mathcal{U}$$
.

In a way we can think of $C: C \longrightarrow \mathcal{U}$ as a forgetful functor. It forgets the type information.

Getting back the typed information is harder. There is no nice functor from $\mathcal U$ to C, because we need more information. However, given a type A we can always obtain a casting morphism from ? to A by $(\widehat{\operatorname{split}}_{(\operatorname{skeleton} A)})$; $(\widehat{\operatorname{unbox}}_A)$: ? $\longrightarrow A$. Finally, we have the following result.

Lemma 2.15 (Casting Morphisms to ?). Suppose $(\mathcal{T}, C, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash}, \mathsf{box}, \mathsf{unbox}, \mathsf{error})$ is a gradual λ -model, and A is an object of C. Then there exists casting morphisms from A to ? and vice versa that make A a retract of ?.

Proof. The two morphisms are as follows:

$$Box_A := \widehat{box}_A; \widehat{squash}_{(skeleton A)} : A \longrightarrow ?$$

 $Unbox_A := \widehat{split}_{(skeleton A)}; \widehat{unbox}_A : ? \longrightarrow A$

The fact the these form a retract between A and ?, and raise dynamic type errors holds by Lemma 2.10 and Lemma 2.13. \Box

The previous result has a number of implications. It completely brings together the static and dynamic fragments of the gradual λ -model, and thus, fully relating the combination of dynamic and static typing to the past work of Lambek and Scott [8, 11]. It will allow for the definition of casting morphisms between arbitrary objects; see the next result. Finally, from a practical perspective it will simplify our corresponding type systems derived from this model, because $\text{Box}_S = \overline{\text{squash}}_S$ and $\text{Unbox}_S = \overline{\text{split}}_S$ when S is a skeleton, and hence, we will only need a single retract in the corresponding type systems.

Corollary 2.16 (Arbitrary Casting Morphisms). Suppose $(\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}, ?, \mathsf{T}, \mathsf{split}, \mathsf{squash}, \mathsf{box}, \mathsf{unbox}, \mathsf{error})$ is a gradual λ -model, and A and B are objects of C. Then there exists casting morphisms from $c_1 : A \longrightarrow B$ and $c_2 : B \longrightarrow A$.

Proof. The two morphisms are as follows:

$$c_1 := Box_A; Unbox_B : A \longrightarrow B$$

 $c_2 := Box_B; Unbox_A : B \longrightarrow A$

Note that c_1 and c_2 do not form an isomorphism, nor retracts, but when combined with other casting morphisms will evaluate away using the retracts in the model. This result will be used in Section 4 and Section 4.1 when inserting explicit casts during the cast insertion algorithm for gradual typing.

3 Core Grady

Just as the simply typed λ -calculus corresponds to cartesian closed categories our categorical model has a corresponding type theory we call Core Grady. It consists of all of the structure found in the model. To move from the model to Core Grady we apply the Curry-Howard-Lambek correspondence [8, 17]. Objects become types, and morphisms,

```
 \text{(types)} \qquad A, B, C \ ::= \ \text{Unit} \mid \text{Nat} \mid ? \mid A \times B \mid A \to B   \text{(skeletons)} \qquad S, K, U \ ::= \ ? \mid S_1 \times S_2 \mid S_1 \to S_2   \text{(terms)} \qquad t \ ::= \ x \mid \text{triv} \mid 0 \mid \text{succ} \ t \mid (t_1, t_2) \mid \text{fst} \ t \mid \text{snd} \ t \\ \qquad \mid \ \lambda(x : A).t \mid t_1 \ t_2 \mid \text{case} \ t \colon \text{Nat} \ \text{of} \ 0 \to t_1, (\text{succ} \ x) \to t_2   \mid \ \text{box}_A \mid \text{unbox}_A \mid \text{squash}_S \mid \text{split}_S \mid \text{error}_A   \text{(contexts)} \qquad \Gamma \ ::= \ \cdot \mid x : A \mid \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2
```

Figure 1. Syntax for Core Grady

 $t:\Gamma\longrightarrow A$, become programs in context usually denoted by $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t:A$ which corresponds to Core Grady's type checking judgment. We will discuss this correspondence in detail in Section 4.1.

The syntax for Core Grady is defined in Figure 1. The syntax is a straightforward extension of the simply typed λ -calculus. Natural numbers are denoted by 0 and succ t where the latter is the successor of t. The non-recursive natural number eliminator is denoted by case t: Nat of $0 \to t_1$, (succ x) $\to t_2$. The most interesting aspect of the syntax is that box_A and $unbox_A$ are not restricted to atomic types, but actually correspond to Box_A and Unbox_A from Lemma 2.15. That result shows that these can actually be defined in terms of box_A , $unbox_A$, $split_S$, and $\overline{\text{squash}}_S$ when A is any type and S is a skeleton, but we take the general versions as primitive, because they are the most useful from a programming perspective. In addition, as we mentioned above Box_A and $Unbox_A$ divert to squash_A and split_A respectively when A is a skeleton. This implies that we no longer need two retracts, and hence, simplifies the language.

Multisets of pairs of variables and types, denoted by x:A, called a typing context or just a context is denoted by Γ . The empty context is denoted by \cdot , and the union of contexts Γ_1 and Γ_2 is denoted by Γ_1, Γ_2 . Typing contexts are used to keep track of the types of free variables during type checking.

The typing judgment is denoted by $\Gamma \vdash_{CG} t : A$, and is read "the term t has type A in context Γ ." The typing judgment is defined by the type checking rules in Figure 2. The type checking rules are an extension of the typing rules for the simply typed λ -calculus. The casting terms are all typed as axioms with their expected types.

Computing with terms is achieved by defining a reduction relation denoted by $t_1 \rightsquigarrow t_2$ and is read as "the term t_1 reduces in one step to the term t_2 ." The reduction relation is defined in Figure 3. Reduction for Core Grady differs from the simply typed λ -calculus in that it is an extended formulation of call-by-name. We only allow reduction under unbox, and we do not allow reduction under the branches of case. The former insures that when casting terms progress towards applying the retract rule is always possible. Disallowing reduction in arguments and in the branches of case expressions prevents infinite reductions from occurring without the overall program diverging.

Just as Abadi et al. [1] argue it is quite useful to have access to the untyped λ -calculus. We give some example Core Grady

4

```
x : A \in \Gamma var
                                                                                                        \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \mathsf{box}_A : A \to ?} \mathsf{box}
                    \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} x : A
        \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \mathsf{unbox}_A : ? \to A} \mathsf{unbox}
                                                                                                                         \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash_{CG} triv : Unit} Unit
                                                                                                                 \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t : \mathsf{Nat}
                                                                                                           \frac{1}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \mathsf{succ}\, t : \mathsf{Nat}} \mathsf{succ}
                   \overline{\Gamma \vdash_{CG} 0 : Nat}^{\ zero}
                                     \begin{array}{l} \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t : \mathsf{Nat} \\ \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t_1 : A \quad \Gamma, \, x : \mathsf{Nat} \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t_2 : A \end{array}
                     \frac{1}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \mathsf{case} \ t \colon \mathsf{Nat} \ \mathsf{of} \ 0 \to t_1, \ (\mathsf{succ} \ x) \to t_2 : A} \mathsf{Nat}_{e}
\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \underline{t_1 : A_1} \quad \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \underline{t_2 : A_2} \times_i
                                                                                                                        \frac{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t : A_1 \times A_2}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \mathsf{fst} \, t : A_1} \times_{e_1}
        \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} (t_1, t_2) : A_1 \times A_2
       \frac{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t : A_1 \times A_2}{} \times_{e_2}
                                                                                                                  \Gamma, x : A \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t : B
                                                                                                        \Gamma \vdash_{CG} \lambda(x:A).t:A \to B
          \Gamma \vdash_{CG} \operatorname{snd} t : A_2
 \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t_1 : A \to B \quad \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t_2 : A
                                                                                                                                     \overline{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} \mathsf{error}_A : A} ^{\mathsf{error}}
                          \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{CG}} t_1 t_2 : B
```

Figure 2. Typing rules for Core Grady

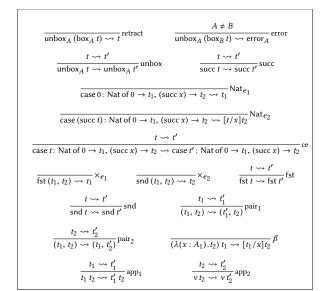


Figure 3. Reduction rules for Core Grady

programs utilizing this powerful feature. We have a full implementation of every language in this paper available¹. All examples in this section can be typed and ran in the implementation, and thus, we make use of Core Grady's concrete syntax which is very similar to Haskell's and does not venture too far from the mathematical syntax given above.

Core Grady does not have a primitive notion of recursion, but it is well-known that we can define the Y combinator in the untyped λ -calculus. Its definition in Core Grady is as follows:

```
\begin{split} &\text{omega: } (? &\to ?) \to ? \\ &\text{omega} = \backslash (x:? \to ?) \to (x \text{ (box } (? \to ?) \text{ x)}); \\ &\text{fix: } (? \to ?) \to ? \\ &\text{fix} = \backslash (f:? \to ?) \to \text{omega} (\backslash (x:?) \to f \text{ ((unbox } (? \to ?) \text{ x}) \text{ x)}); \end{split}
```

Using fix we can define the usual arithmetic operations in Core Grady, but we use a typed version of fix.

```
fixNat: ((Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow (Nat \rightarrow Nat)) \rightarrow (Nat \rightarrow Nat)
fixNat = \langle (f:(Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow (Nat \rightarrow Nat)) \rightarrow (Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rangle
     unbox\langle Nat \rightarrow Nat \rangle \ (fix \ (\setminus (y:?) \rightarrow box\langle Nat \rightarrow Nat \rangle \ \ (f \ (unbox\langle Nat \rightarrow Nat \rangle \ y))));
pred: Nat \rightarrow Nat
pred = \backslash (n: Nat) \rightarrow case n of 0 \rightarrow 0, (succ n') \rightarrow n';
\mathsf{add}:\ \mathsf{Nat}\to\mathsf{Nat}\to\mathsf{Nat}
\mathsf{add} = \setminus (\mathsf{m} : \mathsf{Nat}) \, \to \, \mathsf{fixNat}
          (\( r: Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow
            sub : Nat \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat
sub = \(m: Nat) \rightarrow fixNat
          (\( r: Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow
            \backslash (\, n \colon \mathsf{Nat}) \, \to \mathsf{case} \; \mathsf{n} \; \mathsf{of} \; 0 \to \mathsf{m}, (\, \mathsf{succ} \; \mathsf{n'}) \; \to \mathsf{pred} \; (\mathsf{r} \; \mathsf{n'}));
\mathsf{mult}:\;\mathsf{Nat}\to\mathsf{Nat}\to\mathsf{Nat}
mult = \(m: Nat) \rightarrow fixNat
          (\( r: Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow
            (n: Nat) \rightarrow case \ n \ of \ 0 \rightarrow 0, (succ \ n') \rightarrow add \ m \ (r \ n'));
```

The function fixNat is defined so that it does recursion on the type Nat \rightarrow Nat, thus, it must take in an argument, $f:(Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow (Nat \rightarrow Nat)$, and produce a function of type Nat \rightarrow Nat. However, we already have fix defined in the untyped fragment, and so, we can define fixNat using fix by boxing up the typed data. This means we must cast $f:(Nat \rightarrow Nat) \rightarrow (Nat \rightarrow Nat)$ into a function of type $(?\rightarrow?)\rightarrow?$ and we do this by η -expanding f and casting the input and output using box and unbox to arrive at the function $\lambda(y:?).box_{(Nat\rightarrow Nat)}(f(unbox_{(Nat\rightarrow Nat)}y)):?\rightarrow?$. Finally, we can apply fix, and then unbox its output to the type Nat \rightarrow Nat.

Extending Grady with polymorphism would allow for the definition of fixNat to be abstracted, and then we could do statically typed recursion at any type. We extend Core Grady with bounded polymorphism in Section 6.

From a programming perspective Core Grady has a lot going for it, but it is unfortunate the programmer is required to insert explicit casts when wanting to program dynamically. This implies that it is not possible to program in dynamic style when using Core Grady. In the next section we fix this problem by developing a gradually typed surface language for Core Grady in the spirit of Siek and Taha's gradually typed λ -calculus [13, 14].

4 Surface Grady

Programming in dynamic style requires the ability to implicitly cast data between types during eliminations. For example, $(\lambda(x:?).(\operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{succ} x)))$ 3 should type check with type Nat even though 3 has type Nat and x has type ?. Now not every cast should work, for example, $(\lambda(x:\operatorname{Bool}).t)$ 3 should not type check, because it is inconsistent to allow different atomic types to be cast between each other. Therefore, we must be able to decide when casts are consistent and which are not.

Gradual type systems are the combination of static and dynamic typing with the ability to implicitly cast data between consistent types in such a way that the gradual guarantee is satisfied. A gradually typed programming language consists of two languages: a core language and a surface language.

 $^{^1}Please see \ https://ct-gradual-typing.github.io/Grady/ for access to the implementation as well as full documentation on how to install and use it.$

```
Syntax: (\text{terms}) \ \ t := x \mid \text{triv} \mid 0 \mid \text{succ} \ t \mid (t_1, t_2) \mid \text{fst} \ t \mid \text{snd} \ t \\ \mid \lambda(x : A).t \mid t_1 \ t_2 \mid \text{case} \ t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, \ (\text{succ} \ x) \rightarrow t_2
\text{Metafunctions:} \\ \text{nat}(?) = \text{Nat} \\ \text{nat}(\text{Nat}) = \text{Nat} \\ \text{prod}(?) = ? \times ? \\ \text{prod}(A \times B) = A \times B
\text{fun}(?) = ? \rightarrow ? \\ \text{fun}(A \rightarrow B) = A \rightarrow B
```

Figure 4. Syntax and Metafunctions for Surface Grady

The core language contains explicit casts and an operational semantics, while the surface language is the gradual type system that allows casts to be left implicit. Programs are written and then translated into the core language by inserting the explicit casts. The gradual guarantee states the following:

- Adding or removing casts to/from any well-typed surface language program remains typeable at a potentially less precise type.
- Adding explicit casts to a terminating well-typed core language program also terminates at a related value, adding explicit casts to a diverging well-typed core language program diverges, and removing explicit casts from a terminating or diverging well-type core language programs either terminates, diverges, or raises a dynamic type error.

Briefly, the gradual guarantee states that any well-typed program can slide between more statically typed and more dynamically typed by inserting or removing casts without changing the meaning or the behavior of the program. The formal statement of the gradual guarantee is given in Section 5. This property was first proposed by Siek et al. [14] to set apart systems that simply combine dynamic and static typing and gradual type systems.

Now we introduce the gradually typed surface language Surface Grady. Surface Grady is a small extension of the surface language given by Siek et al. [14]. We have added natural numbers with their eliminator as well as cartesian products. The Surface Grady syntax is defined in Figure 4, and it corresponds to Core Grady's syntax (Figure 1), but without the explicit casts. The syntax for types and typing contexts do not change, and so we do not repeat them here.

The metafunctions $\operatorname{nat}(A)$, $\operatorname{prod}(A)$, and $\operatorname{fun}(A)$ are partial functions that will be used to determine when to use either box or split in the elimination type checking rules for natural numbers, cartesian products, and function applications respectively. For example, if $\operatorname{nat}(A) = \operatorname{Nat}$, then the type A must have been either? or Nat , and if it were the former then we know we can cast A to Nat via $\operatorname{box}_{\operatorname{Nat}}$. If $\operatorname{prod}(A) = B \times C$, then either A = ? and $B \times C = ? \times ?$ or $A = B \times C$ for some other types B and C. This implies that if the former is true, then we can cast A to $B \times C$ via split $(? \times ?)$. The case is similar for $\operatorname{fun}(A)$.

The type checking and type consistency rules are given in Figure 5. Similarly to Core Grady the typing judgment is denoted by $\Gamma \vdash_{SG} t : A$. Type checking depends on the notion

Figure 5. Typing rules for Surface Grady

of type consistency; first proposed by Siek and Taha [13]. This is a reflexive and symmetric, but non-transitive, relation on types denoted by $\Gamma \vdash A \sim B$ which can be read as "the type A is consistent with the type B in context Γ ." Note that the typing context Γ does not yet play a role in the definition of type consistency, but it will when we add bounded quantification in Section 6. Non-transitivity is important, because if type consistency were transitive, then all types would be consistent, but this is too general.

Type consistency states when two types are safely castable between each other when inserting explicit casts. From semantical perspective if $\Gamma \vdash A \sim B$ holds, then there are casting morphisms (Definition 2.7) $c_1:A\longrightarrow B$ and $c_2:B\longrightarrow A$. This follows from Corollary 2.16. We make use of this fact in the next section. Consider an example, type consistency is responsible for the function application $(\lambda(x:?).(\operatorname{succ} x))$ 3 being typable in the surface language, because type Nat is consistent with the type 3. This implies that the elimination rule for function types must be extended with type consistency.

The typing rules for Surface Grady are a conservative extension of the typing rules for Core Grady (Figure 2). The extension is the removal of explicit casts and the addition of type consistency and the metafunctions from Figure 4. Each rule is modified in positions where casting is likely to occur which is all of the elimination rules as well as the typing rule for successor, because it is a type of application. Consider the elimination rule for function applications:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_{\text{SG}} t_1 : C}{\Gamma \vdash_{\text{SG}} t_2 : A_2} \quad \Gamma \vdash_{A_2} \sim A_1 \quad \text{fun}(C) = A_1 \to B_1}{\Gamma \vdash_{\text{SG}} t_1 t_2 : B_1} \to_e$$

$$\frac{x:A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x \Rightarrow x:A} \qquad \overline{\Gamma \vdash 0 \Rightarrow 0: \text{Nat}} \qquad \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{triv} \Rightarrow \text{triv} : \text{Unit}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2:?}{\Gamma \vdash \text{succ } t_1 \Rightarrow \text{succ } (\text{unbox}_{\text{Nat}} t_2): \text{Nat}} \qquad \overline{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: \text{Nat}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A_1 \sim A}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_1': A_1} \qquad \Gamma \vdash A_2 \sim A \qquad t_1'' = (c_1 t_1')$$

$$\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_1': A_1 \qquad \text{caster}(A_1, A) = c_1 \qquad t_2'' = (c_2 t_2')$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{Nat} \vdash t_2 \Rightarrow t_2': A_2 \qquad \text{caster}(A_2, A) = c_2 \qquad t'' = (\text{unbox}_{\text{Nat}} t')$$

$$\overline{\Gamma} \vdash \text{(case } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2) \Rightarrow (\text{case } t'' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1'', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2'') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_1': A_1}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_1': A_1} \qquad \Gamma \vdash A_1 \sim A$$

$$\Gamma, x: \text{Nat} \vdash t_2 \Rightarrow t_2': A_2 \qquad \Gamma \vdash A_2 \sim A$$

$$\overline{\Gamma} \vdash \text{(case } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2) \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: A_1}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{case } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2) \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2) \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1, (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') \Rightarrow (\text{case } t' \text{ of } 0 \rightarrow t_1', (\text{succ } x) \rightarrow t_2') : A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: R_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \rightarrow t_1)} \Rightarrow \text{(unbox}_{(2\times ?)} \Rightarrow t_2': R_1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_2: A_2: R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \rightarrow t_1' \Rightarrow t_2': R_2: R_1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \Rightarrow t_1': R_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{(tase } t \rightarrow t_1')} \Rightarrow \text{(unbox}_{(2\times ?)} \Rightarrow t_1' \Rightarrow \text{(unbox}_{(2\times ?)} \Rightarrow \text{(unbox}_{(2\times ?)} \Rightarrow t_2' \Rightarrow \text{(unbox}_{(2\times ?)} \Rightarrow \text{(unbox}_{(2$$

Figure 6. Cast Insertion Algorithm

Type Precision:
$$\frac{A \sqsubseteq C \quad B \sqsubseteq D}{A \sqsubseteq A} \stackrel{?}{\text{refl}} \qquad \frac{A \sqsubseteq C \quad B \sqsubseteq D}{(A \to B) \sqsubseteq (C \to D)} \to$$

$$\frac{A \sqsubseteq C \quad B \sqsubseteq D}{(A \times B) \sqsubseteq (C \times D)} \times$$
Context Precision:
$$\frac{\Gamma_1 \sqsubseteq \Gamma_2 \quad A \sqsubseteq A' \quad \Gamma_3 \sqsubseteq \Gamma_4}{\Gamma_1, x : A, \Gamma_3 \sqsubseteq \Gamma_2, x : A', \Gamma_4} \text{ ext}$$

Figure 7. Type and Context Precision

This rule has been extended with type consistency. The type of t_1 is allowed to be either? or a function type $A_1 \to B_1$, by the definition of fun(C), if the former is true, then $A_1 \to B_1 = ? \to ?$ and A_2 can be any type at all, but if $C = A_1 \to B_1$, then A_2 must be consistent with A_1 . Notice that if $C = A_1 \to B_1$ and $A_2 = A_1$, then this rule is equivalent to the usual rule for function application. We can now see that our example program $(\lambda(x:?).(\text{succ }x))$ 3 is typable in Surface Grady. Similar reasoning can be used to understand the other typing rules as well.

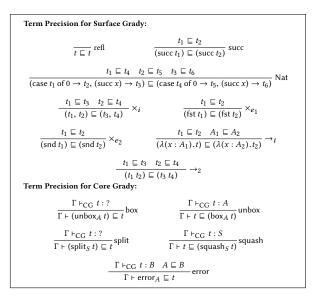


Figure 8. Term Precision

- 4.1 Interpreting Surface Grady in the Model
- 5 The Gradual Guarantee
- 6 Bounded Quantification

$$list(?) = List ?$$

 $list(List A) = List A$

7 Conclusion

References

- M. Abadi, L. Cardelli, B. Pierce, and G. Plotkin. 1989. Dynamic Typing in a Statically-typed Language. In Proceedings of the 16th ACM SIGPLAN-SIGACT Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages (POPL '89). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 213–227.
- [2] Stephen Brookes, Peter W. O'Hearn, and Uday Reddy. 2014. The Essence of Reynolds. POPL '14 (January 2014).
- [3] Roy L. Crole. 1994. Categories for Types. Cambridge University Press. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139172707
- [4] Ronald Garcia, Alison M. Clark, and Éric Tanter. 2016. Abstracting Gradual Typing. In Proceedings of the 43rd Annual ACM SIGPLAN-SIGACT Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages (POPL '16). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 429–442.
- [5] Jean-Yves Girard, Yves Lafont, and Paul Taylor. 1989. Proofs and Types (Cambridge Tracts in Theoretical Computer Science). Cambridge University Press.
- [6] Fritz Henglein. 1994. Dynamic typing: syntax and proof theory. Science of Computer Programming 22, 3 (1994), 197 – 230.
- W. A. Howard. 1980. The Formulae-as-Types Notion of Construction. To H. B. Curry: Essays on Combznatory Logic, Lambda-Calculus, and Formalism (1980), 479–490.
- [8] Joachim Lambek. 1980. From lambda calculus to Cartesian closed categories. To H. B. Curry: Essays on Combinatory Logic, Lambda Calculus and Formalism (1980), 376–402.
- [9] J. Lambek and P.J. Scott. 1988. Introduction to Higher-Order Categorical Logic. Cambridge University Press.
- [10] Eugenio Moggi. 1989. Notions of Computation and Monads. Information and Computation 93 (1989), 55–92.
- [11] Dana Scott. 1980. Relating Theories of the lambda-Calculus. In To H.B. Curry: Essays on Combinatory Logic, Lambda-Calculus and Formalism (eds. Hindley and Seldin). Academic Press, 403–450.
- [12] Peter Sewell, Francesco Zappa Nardelli, Scott Owens, Gilles Peskine, Thomas Ridge, Susmit Sarkar, and Rok Strnisa. 2010. Ott: Effective tool support for the working semanticist. In Journal of Functional Programming (TFP), Vol. 20, 71–122.

Figure 9. Subtyping for Core and Surface Grady

- [13] Jeremy G Siek and Walid Taha. 2006. Gradual typing for functional languages. In Scheme and Functional Programming Workshop (1), Vol. 6. 81-92.
- [14] Jeremy G. Siek, Michael M. Vitousek, Matteo Cimini, and John Tang Boyland. 2015. Refined Criteria for Gradual Typing. In 1st Summit on Advances in Programming Languages (SNAPL 2015) (Leibniz International Proceedings in Informatics (LIPIcs)), Thomas Ball, Rastislav Bodik, Shriram Krishnamurthi, Benjamin S. Lerner, and Greg Morrisett (Eds.), Vol. 32. Schloss Dagstuhl-Leibniz-Zentrum fuer Informatik, Dagstuhl, Germany, 274-293.
- [15] The Univalent Foundations Program. 2013. Homotopy Type Theory: Univalent Foundations of Mathematics. https://homotopytypetheory.org/book, Institute for Advanced Study.
- [16] Philip Wadler. 1995. Monads for functional programming. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 24–52.

 [17] Philip Wadler. 2015. Propositions As Types. Commun. ACM 58, 12 (Nov.
- 2015), 75-84. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/2699407