Manifest contracts track precise program properties by refining types with predicates—e.g., \( \{ x: \text{int} \mid x > 0 \} \) denotes the positive integers. Contracts and polymorphism make a natural combination: programmers can give strong contracts to abstract types, precisely stating pre- and post-conditions while hiding implementation details—for example, an abstract type of stacks might specify that the pop operation has input type \( \{ x: \alpha \text{Stack} \mid \text{not (empty } x \text{)} \} \).

This article studies a polymorphic calculus with manifest contracts and establishes fundamental properties including type soundness and relational parametricity. Indeed, this is not the first work on polymorphic manifest contracts: Belo, Greenberg, Igarashi, and Pierce (ESOP 2011) and Greenberg (PhD thesis) have also studied manifest contracts, though their calculi have metatheoretical problems in the type conversion relations. Our calculus is the first polymorphic manifest calculus without flaws—it resolves the issues in both prior calculi with delayed substitution on casts and a new type conversion relation.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: D.3.1 [Programming Languages]: Formal Definitions and Theory; D.2.4 [Software engineering]: Software/Program Verification—Programming by contract; F.3.2 [Logics and Meanings of Programs]: Semantics of Programming Languages

General Terms: Languages, Design, Theory

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Motivation

Software contracts allow programmers to state precise properties as concrete predicates written in the same language as the rest of the program; for example, contracts can indicate that a function takes a nonempty list to a positive integer, where both “nonempty” and “positive” are expressed as code. These predicates can be checked dynamically as the program executes or, more ambitiously, verified statically with the assistance of a theorem prover. Findler and Felleisen [2002] introduced “higher-order contracts” for functional languages, defining the first runtime verification semantics for a functional language; these contracts can take one of two forms: predicate contracts given by a Boolean function and function contracts \( c_1 \mapsto c_2 \), which designate contracts for a function’s input and output by \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \), respectively. Greenberg, Pierce, and Weirich [2010] contrast two different approaches to contracts according to how contracts and types interact with each other: in the latent approach, contracts and types live in different worlds (indeed, there may be no types at all, as in Racket’s contract system [Flatt and PLT 2010 PLT 2014]); in the manifest approach, contracts
are types—the type system itself makes contracts ‘manifest’—and dynamic contract checking is expressed by type coercions, which are more commonly called casts; static contract checking can be reduced to subtype checking.

Manifest contracts are a sensible choice for combining contracts and other type-based abstraction mechanisms, such as, abstract datatypes (ADTs). Abstract datatypes already use the type system to mediate access to abstractions; manifest contracts allow types to exercise a still finer grained control. To motivate the combination of contracts and ADTs, consider the interface of an ADT modeling the natural numbers, written in an ML-like language:

```ml
module type NAT =
  sig
    type t
    val zero : t
    val succ : t -> t
    val isZ : t -> bool
    val pred : t -> t
  end
```

It is an abstract datatype because the actual representation of `t` is hidden: users of `NAT` interact with it through the constructors and operations provided. The `zero` constructor represents 0; the `succ` constructor takes a natural and produces its successor. The predicate `isZ` determines whether a given natural is zero. The `pred` operation takes a natural number and returns its predecessor.

This interface, however, is not fine-grained enough to prevent misuse of partial operations. For example, `pred` can be applied to `zero`, whereas the mathematical natural-number predecessor operation is not defined for zero.

Using contracts, we can explicitly specify the constraint that an argument to `pred` is not zero:

```ml
module type NAT =
  sig
    type t
    val zero : t
    val succ : t -> t
    val isZ : t -> bool
    val pred : {x:t | not (isZ x)} -> t
  end
```

The type `{x:t | not (isZ x)}` is a refinement type and denotes the set of values `x` such that `not (isZ x)` evaluates to true. So, this new interface does not allow `pred` to be applied to zero.

### 1.2. Polymorphic manifest contract calculus

A key device for studying type-based abstraction in functional programming is parametric polymorphism—for example, it is well known that polymorphism can encode ADTs [Mitchell and Plotkin 1985]. Gronski et al. have studied manifest contracts in the presence of polymorphism by developing SAGE language [Gronski et al. 2006], which supports manifest contracts and polymorphism, in addition to the type Dynamic [Abadi et al. 1989; Henglein 1992] and even the so-called “Type:Type” discipline [Cardelli 1986]. However, consequences of combining these features, in particular, interactions between manifest contracts and type abstraction (provided by parametric polymorphism), are not studied in depth in Gronski et al. 2006.
To study type abstraction for manifest contracts rigorously, Belo et al. [2011] developed a polymorphic manifest contract calculus $F_H$, an extension of System F with manifest contracts, and investigated its properties, including type soundness and (syntactic) parametricity. For $F_H$ to scale up to polymorphism, they made two technical contributions to diverge from earlier manifest calculi such as $\lambda_H$ [Flanagan 2006], a simply typed manifest contract calculus. First, $F_H$ gives the semantics of casts in the presence of so-called “general refinements,” where the underlying type $T$ in a refinement type $\{x:T \mid e\}$ can be an arbitrary type (not only base types like Bool and Int but also function, forall, and even refinement types), when earlier manifest calculi restrict refinements to base types. Support for general refinements is important because it means that an abstract datatype can be implemented by any type. SAGE also allows arbitrary types to be refined but the semantics of casts relies on the type Dynamic, which is problematic for parametricity [Matthews and Ahmed 2008]. Second, Belo et al. have proposed a new, two-step, syntactic approach to formalizing manifest calculi. The first step is to establish fundamental properties such as type soundness for a calculus without subsumption (and subtyping), while earlier calculi [Knowles and Flanagan 2010; Greenberg et al. 2010] rest on subtyping and denotational semantics of types in their construction. Technically, they replaced subtyping with a syntactic type conversion relation, which is required to show subject reduction in the presence of dependent function types. The lack of subsumption allows for an entirely syntactic metatheory but it also amounts to the lack of static contract checking. The second step is to give static analysis to remove casts that never fail in order to compensate the lack of static contract checking. In fact, Belo et al. give “post facto” subtyping and examine a property called Upcast Lemma, which says an upcast—a cast from one type to a supertype—is logically related (thus equivalent in a certain sense) to an identity function, as a correctness property of static contract checking.

Unfortunately, however, the proofs of type soundness and parametricity of $F_H$ turn out to be flawed and, worse, the properties themselves are later found to be false. In fact, the type conversion makes an inconsistent contract system; if a cast-free closed expression is well typed, then its type can be refined arbitrarily—e.g., integer 0 can be given type $\{x:\text{Int} \mid x = 42\}$. These anomalies are first recognized as a false lemma about the type conversion relation. Greenberg [2013] fixed the false lemma by changing the conversion relation. Another key property, called cotermination and left as a conjecture in both Belo et al. [2011] and Greenberg [2013], also turns out to be wrong. Inconsistency and failure of type soundness and parametricity follow from counterexamples to these properties. As we will discuss in detail, the root cause of the problem can be attributed to the fact that substitution can badly affect how casts behave.

1.3. Contributions

In this article, we introduce a new polymorphic manifest contract calculus $F^\sigma_H$ that resolves the technical flaws in $F_H$. We call our calculus $F^\sigma_H$ because it takes the $F_H$ from Belo et al. [2011] and Greenberg [2013] and introduces a new substitution semantics using delayed substitutions, which we write $\sigma$. Delayed substitutions are close to explicit substitutions [Abadi et al. 1991] but only substitutions on casts are explicit (and delayed) in $F_H$. Although, in some work [Grossman et al. 2000; Ahmed et al. 2011], delayed substitutions, also called explicit bindings, have been used to represent syntactic “barriers” for type abstractions, we rather use them to determine how casts reduce statically. Thanks to delayed substitution, the semantics of $F^\sigma_H$ can choose cast

\[1\] In the end of Section 4 of Belo et al. [2011], the authors write “our proof of type soundness in Section 3 relies on much simpler properties of parallel reduction, which we have proved.” as if the type soundness proof did not depend on cotermination, but this claim also turns out to be false.
Table I. The status of properties of polymorphic manifest calculi.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Belo et al. [2011] (F_H)</th>
<th>Greenberg [2013]</th>
<th>This article (F_{σH})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lemma on conversion relation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotermination</td>
<td>✓ (conjecture)</td>
<td>✓ (conjecture)</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progress</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation</td>
<td>✓'</td>
<td>✓'</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parametricity</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upcast Lemma</td>
<td>✓'</td>
<td>✓'</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✓... proved  ✓'?... proved with flawed premises ✗... flawed  ?... unknown

reduction rules independently of substitution; this property is crucial when we prove
cotermination. We can finally show that type soundness and parametricity all hold
in F_{σH}—without leaving any conjectures. Consistency of the contract system of F_{σH} is
derived immediately from type soundness.

Table I summarizes the status of properties of polymorphic manifest calculi; the
columns and rows represent properties and work on polymorphic manifest contracts,
respectively. We wrote ✓ for properties that are proved, ✓' for properties with proofs
that are based on false premises, ✗ for properties that are flawed, and ? for properties
we are unsure of. We have not investigated the Upcast Lemma in F_H because the
first step of Belo et al.'s approach—namely, establishing fundamental properties for a
manifest calculus without subsumption (hence static contract checking)—has turned
out to be trickier than we initially thought and is worth independent treatment. The
value of the Upcast Lemmas in Belo et al. [2011] and Greenberg [2013] is questionable,
due to the flaws on which the proofs of type soundness and parametricity rest, though
the properties themselves may still hold.

We also develop examples that motivate the combination of manifest contracts and
polymorphism. These examples are longer and more detailed than exist in the litera-
ture so far, and offer some heretofore unpublished motivation for and implementation
of manifest contracts (Section 4.2).

1.4. Outline of the article

This article is organized as follows. We start Section 2 with a brief history of mani-
fest contract calculi (both monomorphic and polymorphic) and discuss their technical
issues. Section 3 defines F_{σH} and Section 4 presents examples of polymorphic mani-
fest contracts. We prove type soundness in Section 5, fixing Belo et al. [2011] with
common-subexpression reduction from Greenberg [2013] and our novel use of delayed
substitutions. We prove parametricity in Section 6, along with the proofs of cotermina-
tion and type soundness in the prior section; this constitutes the first conjecture-free
metatheory for the combination of System F and manifest contracts, resolving issues
in prior versions of F_H. Section 7 compares F_{σH} with two variants of polymorphic mani-
fest contracts [Belo et al. 2011; Greenberg 2013] and presents counterexamples to
broken properties in these earlier calculi. Finally, we discuss broader related work in
Section 8, concluding in Section 9. The body of this paper states only key lemmas and
theorems; all the proofs are presented in the appendix together with auxiliary lemmas.

2. OVERVIEW

This section first reviews manifest contract calculi [Flanagan 2006; Greenberg et al.
2010; Knowles and Flanagan 2010]—proposed as foundations of hybrid type checking,
a synthesis of static and dynamic specification checking—and earlier polymorphic ex-
tensions [Belo et al. 2011; Greenberg 2013] with their technical challenges; then we
describe problems in the earlier polymorphic calculi and our solutions.
2.1. Manifest contract calculus for hybrid type checking

Flanagan [2006] proposed hybrid type checking, a framework to combine static and dynamic verification techniques for modularly checking implementations against contract-based preice interface specifications, and formalized $\lambda_H$ as a theoretical foundation to study hybrid type checking. Later work revised and refined those early ideas [Knowles and Flanagan 2010; Greenberg et al. 2010], named the core dynamic checking framework a “manifest contract calculus” (or simply, manifest calculus) [Greenberg et al. 2010].

Hybrid type checking reduces program verification to subtype checking problems, solving them statically as much as possible and deferring checking to run time if a problem instance is not solved statically. We describe how these ideas are formalized in $\lambda_H$ below; briefly, characteristic features of manifest contract calculi (in particular, early ones such as slightly different versions of $\lambda_H$) could be summarized as:

— **Type-based specifications**: refinement types (and dependent function types) to represent specifications;

— **Static checking**: subtyping to model static verification; and

— **Dynamic checking**: casts to model dynamic verification.

**Type-based specifications.** In $\lambda_H$, specifications are expressed in terms of types, more concretely, *refinement types* and *dependent function types*. A refinement type $\{x:B \mid e\}$ intuitively denotes the set of values $v$ of base type $B$ (e.g., Int, Bool, and so on) such that $[v/x]e$ reduces to true. In that type, $e$, also called a contract or a refinement, can be an arbitrary Boolean expression, so refinement types can represent any subset of the base type constants as long as a constraint to specify the subset can be written as a program expression. For example, prime numbers can be represented as $\{x:\text{Int} \mid \text{prime } x\}$, using a primality test function $\text{prime}$. A dependent function type $x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ denotes functions taking arguments $v$ of domain type $T_1$ and returning values of codomain type $[v/x]T_2$. Dependent functions cleanly express the relation between inputs and outputs of a function. For example, $x:\text{Int} \rightarrow \{y:\text{Int} \mid y > x\}$ denotes functions that return an integer larger than the argument.

Manifest calculi need not have arbitrary Boolean expressions and dependent function types. For example, Ou et al. [2004] restrict predicates to be pure expressions and the blame calculus by Wadler and Findler [2009] supports only non-dependent function types. As we will discuss below, having arbitrary predicates and dependent functions significantly complicates metatheory. We will call a manifest calculus with both of these optional features a full manifest calculus.

**Static checking.** With these expressive types, program verification amounts to type checking, in particular, checking subtyping between refinement types. For example, to see if a prime number (of type $\{x:\text{Int} \mid \text{prime } x\}$) can be safely passed to a function expecting positive numbers (of type $\{x:\text{Int} \mid x > 0\}$) is to see if the former type is a subtype of the latter. Informally, a refinement type $\{x:B \mid e_1\}$ is a subtype of $\{x:B \mid e_2\}$ when $e_2$ holds for any value of $B$ satisfying $e_1$. Formally, supposing that we use $\sigma$ to denote substitutions and write $\Gamma, x:\{x:B \mid \text{true}\} \vdash \sigma$ to mean that $\sigma$ is a closing substitution respecting $(\Gamma, x:\{x:B \mid \text{true}\})$, Flanagan gives a subtyping rule for refinement types like this:

$$\forall \sigma. (\Gamma, x:\{x:B \mid \text{true}\} \vdash \sigma \land \sigma(e_1) \rightarrow^* \text{true}) \implies \sigma(e_2) \rightarrow^* \text{true}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \{x:B \mid e_1\} <: \{x:B \mid e_2\}$$

Readers familiar with the systems will recognize that we have folded the implication judgment into the relevant subtyping rule.
This formalization allows language designers to choose their favorite static checking methods because it states what static checking verifies, rather than how a specific static checking method works.

Dynamic checking. Unlike previous work on refinement types [Freeman and Pfenning 1991; Xi and Pfenning 1999; Mandelbaum et al. 2003; Ou et al. 2004], however, the predicate language is very expressive—in fact, too expressive to be decidable. Flanagan’s approach to undecided subtyping is to defer subtyping check at runtime by inserting casts to where subtyping cannot be decided, rather than reject a program. More concretely, if static checking cannot decide whether the type $T_1$ of a given expression $e$ is a subtype of $T_2$, then the compiler inserts a cast—written $(T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)$—from $T_1$ (called source type) to $T_2$ (called target type) and yields $(T_1 \Rightarrow T_2) e$. At runtime, it is checked whether (the value of) $e$ can behave as $T_2$. The superscript $l$ is called a blame label, an abstract source location used to differentiate between different casts and identify the source of failures.

We briefly explain how casts work in simple cases. At refinement types, casts either return the value they are applied to, or abort program execution by raising “blame” (a kind of uncatchable exceptions), which indicates that the supposed subtyping turns out to be false. For example, consider a cast from positive integers $\{x: \text{int} \mid x > 0\}$ to odd integers $\{x: \text{int} \mid \text{odd} x\}$. If we apply cast $(\{x: \text{int} \mid x > 0\} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{int} \mid \text{odd} x\}) l$ to 5, we expect to get 5 back, since 5 is an odd integer (that is, odd 5 evaluates to true). So,

$$(\{x: \text{int} \mid x > 0\} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{int} \mid \text{odd} x\}) l 5 \rightarrow 5.$$ 

Then, 5 can be typed at $\{x: \text{int} \mid \text{odd} x\}$. On the other hand, suppose we apply the same cast to 2. This cast fails, since 2 is even. When the cast fails, it will raise blame with its label:

$$(\{x: \text{int} \mid x > 0\} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{int} \mid \text{odd} x\}) l 2 \rightarrow \uparrow l.$$ 

Casts between dependent function types are also made possible in $\lambda_H$ by adapting higher-order contracts by Findler and Felleisen [2002].

Type soundness of $\lambda_H$. Proving syntactic type soundness of a full calculus (such as $\lambda_H$) via progress and preservation is tricky. We identify two main issues here.

The first issue is how to allow values to be typed at refinements they satisfy. For example, the type system should be able to give integer 2 type $\{x: \text{int} \mid \text{even} x\}$, or $\{x: \text{int} \mid \text{prime} x\}$. Subtyping resolves it with the help of “selfified” types [Ou et al. 2004], which are most specific types of constants—e.g., the selfified type of integer $n$ is $\{x: \text{int} \mid x = n\}$. For example, if $\{(x: \text{int} \mid \text{true}) \Rightarrow \{x: \text{int} \mid x > 0\}\} n \rightarrow 5 n$, then $n$ can be given type $\{x: \text{int} \mid x > 0\}$ by using the subtyping rule above because inhabitants of the selfified type of $n$ are only $n$ and the dynamic check has ensured that $n > 0$ holds.

The second issue is standard in a typed calculus with dependent function types: if $e_1$ evaluates to $e_2$, the type system must allow terms of $[e_1/x]T$ to be typed at $[e_2/x]T$, too, and vice versa to show preservation. Let us consider the case for a function application $v_1 e_2 \rightarrow v_1 e_2'$. Since $v_1$ is at a function position, its type takes the form $x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2$. The codomain type of a function is dependent on an argument to the function, so types of $v_1 e_2$ and $v_1 e_2'$ would be $[e_2/x]T_2$ and $[e_2'/x]T_2$, respectively. Since preservation says that evaluation preserves types of well typed terms, $v_1 e_2$ has to be typed also at $[e_2/x]T_2$.

A typical solution found in dependent type theory [de Bruijn 1980; Barendregt 1992; Harper et al. 1993] is to introduce a type equivalence relation, which is congruence closed under ($\beta$ or sometimes $\beta\eta$) reduction. Ou et al. [2004] address this issue with subtyping; they show that, if $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$, then $[e_2/x]T$ is a subtype of $[e_1/x]T$. It is not clear, however, how $[e_1/x]T$ and $[e_2/x]T$ should be related in a full manifest calculus mainly due to the above-mentioned subtyping rule for refinement types and the...
Cal flaws in metatheory of F underlying types and subsumption-free formalization, and the next presents techni-
This section describes key ideas in that work, namely refinement types with arbitrary
and expressing modularity. In this context, manifest contracts are also used to specify
morphism can encode existentials, which are crucial for defining abstract datatypes
polymorphism in manifest contracts. Parametric polymor-

\( \forall \) natural number type is

pressiveness of types excessively. For example, let us consider implementing abstract
type, that is, not only base types like

\( \alpha \)

\( \rightarrow \) Int

\( \rightarrow \) \( \alpha \)

\( \rightarrow \) \( \alpha \)

in which, to restrict arguments to be nonzero, the domain type refines the Church
datatype for natural numbers in Section 1 by using the Church encoding. Since the

\( \rightarrow \) 0 = 0 \)

However, this restriction is severe and limits expressiveness of types excessively. For example, let us consider implementing abstract
datatype for natural numbers in Section 1 by using the Church encoding. Since the

\( \Rightarrow \)

\( \Rightarrow \)

\( \Rightarrow \)

\( \Rightarrow \)

Polymorphism and general refinements. Adding polymorphism to manifest contracts
is not as simple as it might appear. The crux of the matter is this: we need to be able
to write \( \{ x: \alpha \mid e \} \) for refinements to interact with abstract datatypes in a useful way. A question here is: What types can be instantiated for the type variable \( \alpha \)? Earlier
manifest calculi restrict refinements to base types, forbidding refinements of function
types like \( \{ f:(\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}) \mid f \, 0 = 0 \} \). However, this restriction is severe and limits expressiveness of types excessively. For example, let us consider implementing abstract
datatype for natural numbers in Section 1 by using the Church encoding. Since the

\( \rightarrow \) \( \alpha \)

\( \rightarrow \) \( \alpha \)

\( \rightarrow \) \( \alpha \)

\( \rightarrow \) \( \alpha \)

has to be implemented as a function of type

\( \{ x: \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \mid \text{not} \, (\text{isZ} \, x) \} \rightarrow (\forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha) \),

in which, to restrict arguments to be nonzero, the domain type refines the Church
natural number type \( \forall \alpha. \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \) by substituting it for the abstract type but this type is ill-formed because the underlying type is not a base type.

\( \text{F}_H \) supports general refinements, which allow type variables \( \alpha \) to be instantiated with any type, that is, not only base types like \( \text{Bool} \) and \( \text{Int} \) but also function, forall, and even refinement types. Introducing general refinements calls for a new semantics for
casts: how do casts evaluate? A cast \( (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^i \) evaluates in several steps (we describe it in detail in Section 3). Roughly speaking, the semantics forgets refinements in \( T_1 \) and then starts checking refinements in \( T_2 \) from the inside out. The cast semantics of \( \text{F}_H \) skips some refinement checks that appear to be unnecessary. For example, reflexive
casts of the form \( (T \Rightarrow T)^i \) just disappear—this is motivated by parametricity: \( (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha)^i \) should behave the same whatever the type variable \( \alpha \) is bound to and the only reasonable behavior seems to disappear like the identity function.

As we mentioned in the introduction, \( \text{SAGE} \) also allows any type to be refined; however, in \( \text{SAGE} \), the source type in a cast is always Dynamic. While this makes the

<ref>Polymorphic Manifest Contract Calculus</ref>
cast semantics much simpler, parametricity in the presence of Dynamic would not be straightforward [Matthews and Ahmed 2008].

Subsumption-free formulation. Although subtyping plays a crucial role in manifest calculi, it also brings a metatheoretic issue, as described by Knowles and Flanagan [2010] and Greenberg et al. [2010]. The issue is that rules of the type system are not monotonic—in particular, the subtyping rule for refinement types refers to well typedness in a negative position for well formed closing substitutions—and so it is not clear that the type system is even well defined. Knowles and Flanagan [2010] and Greenberg et al. [2010] have avoided it by giving denotational semantics (namely, logical predicates) of types and changing the problematic subtyping rule so that it refers to the denotations instead of well typedness. One (philosophical) problem is that soundness of the type system with respect to the denotational semantics has to be shown before soundness with respect to the operational semantics. Another, perhaps more serious problem is that the denotational approach is expected to be hard to scale than standard syntactic methods (i.e., progress and preservation), when we consider other features such as polymorphism. We discuss it in more details in Section 8.2.

F$_H$ addresses this issue by dropping subsumption (and hence subtyping) from the type system. Since subtyping is removed, it is easy to see that the type system is well defined. However, removing subtyping raises the two issues for type soundness again and, additionally, another issue about how to deal with static verification, which is based on subtyping in the original hybrid checking framework.

For the type soundness issues, Belo et al. introduce a special typing rule to give values any refinement they satisfy and a type conversion relation, which is based on (call-by-value) parallel reduction. With the type conversion relation, $\llbracket \{ e_1/x \} T \rrbracket$ and $\llbracket \{ e_2/x \} T \rrbracket$ are convertible if $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$ and a typing rule that allows terms to be retyped at convertible types is substituted for the subsumption rule. Using such a type system, they claim to have “proved” type soundness in an entirely syntactic manner—via progress and preservation—and also parametricity based on syntactic logical relations.

Although the resulting system can be formalized without resting on denotational semantics, the lack of subsumption means that all refinements in a well typed program will be checked at runtime. As we have already mentioned in Section 1, Belo et al. recover static verification by introducing subtyping post facto and examining sufficient conditions to eliminate casts.

2.3. Flaws in F$_H$—and how we solve them

Unfortunately, as mentioned in Section 1, a few properties required to show type soundness and parametricity turn out to be false. We will discuss the flawed properties with their counterexamples in detail in Section 7 but, in essence, the source of anomaly is that substitutions, which affect how casts behave, badly interact with the type conversion. As we discussed above, for preservation, two types $\llbracket e_1/x \rrbracket T$ and $\llbracket e_2/x \rrbracket T$ should be convertible if $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$. Naively allowing this, however, will cause two refinement types $\llbracket x: T \mid e_1 \rrbracket$ and $\llbracket x: T \mid e_2 \rrbracket$ to be convertible (via $\llbracket x: T \mid ? \rrbracket$) for any Boolean terms $e_1$ and $e_2$. So, F$_H$’s (static) contract system is inconsistent in the sense that a well typed cast-free term can be given any refinement.

Belo et al. [2011] do not really show a formal definition of type conversion; it appears in Greenberg [2013].
The following shows such a derivation (here, given (closed) expression $e$, we write $\text{Int}_e$ for $\{z: \text{Int} \mid e\}$ and $\&\&$ stands for Boolean conjunction).

\[
\begin{align*}
&\{x:T \mid e\} & \quad \{x:T \mid \uparrow l\} \\
\text{reflexive cast} & \quad 42 > 0 \&\& e \quad \longrightarrow^* e & \quad (\langle \text{Int}_5 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e \quad \longrightarrow^* \uparrow l \\
\{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_5 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\} & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_5 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[5 = 0/y] & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\} & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\}
\end{align*}
\]

The crux of this example is that substitution of $5 = 0$ for $y$ yields a reflexive cast, while that of false for $y$ yields a failing cast. Actually, the two intermediate types are ill-formed, because $42$ cannot be given type $\text{Int}_5 = 0$ or $\text{Int}_\text{false}$—the source types of the casts. Nevertheless, we cannot exclude such nonsense terms and have to examine properties of a type conversion relation in the untyped setting until we prove type soundness. $\text{F}^\text{u}_H$ corrects this anomaly; in $\text{F}^\text{u}_H$,

\[
\begin{align*}
\{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_5 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\} & \neq \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_\text{false} \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\},
\end{align*}
\]

avoiding $\{x:T \mid e\} \equiv \{x:T \mid \uparrow l\}$, whereas

\[
\begin{align*}
[5 = 0/y] & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\} & \equiv & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\}
\end{align*}
\]

does hold. At first, these (in)equations seem contradictory because the first type $\{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_5 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\}$ and the third $[5 = 0/y] \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\}$ are usually syntactically equal and so are the second and fourth. In fact, $\text{F}^\text{u}_H$ distinguishes both pairs syntactically and obtains desirable type conversion, as illustrated below.

\[
\begin{align*}
\{x:T \mid e\} & \quad \{x:T \mid \uparrow l\} \\
\{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_5 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\} & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_\text{false} \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[5 = 0/y] & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\} & \equiv & \quad \{x:T \mid (\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle 42) > 0 \&\& e\}
\end{align*}
\]

This is achieved by (1) changing the syntax and semantics of casts so that substitution does not affect how casts behave and (2) devising type conversion based on the notion we call “common subexpression reduction” (or CSR).

Delayed substitutions for casts. To distinguish $[5 = 0/y] \langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle$ and $\langle \text{Int}_5 = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle$, $\text{F}^\text{u}_H$ uses delayed substitutions $\sigma$, which are also used to ensure that substitution does not interfere with how casts evaluate. First, cast expressions are augmented with delayed substitutions and take the form $\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_\sigma$. (We often omit $\sigma$ when it is empty.) Second, a substitution applied to casts is not forwarded to their target and source types immediately and instead stored as delayed substitutions—this is the reason why $\sigma$ is called “delayed.” For example, when term $5 = 0$ is substituted for $y$ in $\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle$, the result is $\langle \text{Int}_y \Rightarrow \text{Int}_5 = 0 \rangle_\sigma$ where $\sigma$ maps $y$ to $5 = 0$. Delayed substitutions attached to casts are ignored when deciding what steps to take to check values.
Terms, substitutions, and contexts

$$\begin{align*}
Ty \triangleright T & ::= B \mid \alpha \mid x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \mid \forall \alpha . T \mid \{ x : T \mid e \} \\
\sigma & \in (TyVar \uplus Tm) \times (TyVar \uplus Tm) \\
\Gamma & ::= \emptyset \mid \Gamma , x : T , \alpha
\end{align*}$$

3. DEFINING \( F_\alpha \)

3.1. Syntax

The syntax of \( F_\alpha \) is given in Figure 1. For unrefined types we have: base types \( B \), which must include \( \text{Bool} \); type variables \( \alpha \); dependent function types \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \) where \( x \) is bound in \( T_2 \); and universal types \( \forall \alpha . T \), where \( \alpha \) is bound in \( T \). Aside from dependency in function types, these are just the types of the standard polymorphic lambda calculus. For each \( B \), we fix a set \( K_B \) of the constants in that type. We require the typing rules for constants and the typing and evaluation rules for operations to respect this set; we formally define requirements for constants and operations in Section 3.3. We also require that \( K_{\text{Bool}} = \{ \text{true}, \text{false} \} \). We also have predicate contracts, or refinement types, written \( \{ x : T \mid e \} \). Conceptually, \( \{ x : T \mid e \} \) denotes values \( v \) of type \( T \) for which \( [v/x]e \) reduces to \( \text{true} \). As mentioned before, refinement types in \( F_\alpha \) are more general than existing manifest calculi (except for SAGE [Gronski et al. 2006]) in that any type (even a refinement type) can be refined, not just base types (as in [Flanagan 2006; Greenberg et al. 2010; Gronski and Flanagan 2007; Knowles and Planagan 2010; Ou et al. 2004]).

In the syntax of terms, the first line is standard for a call-by-value polymorphic language: variables, constants, several monomorphic first-order operations \( \text{op} \) (i.e., destructors of one or more base-type arguments), term and type abstractions, and term and type applications. Note that there is no value restriction on type abstractions—as in System \( F \), we do not evaluate under type abstractions, so there is no issue with or-
dering of effects. The second line offers the standard constructs of a manifest contract calculus [Flanagan 2006; Greenberg et al. 2010; Knowles and Flanagan 2010], with a few alterations, discussed below.

As we have already discussed in the last section, casts in $\mathcal{F}_{\Pi}^T$ are of the form $\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^l$, where the delayed substitution $\sigma$ is formally a pair of substitutions from term and type variables to terms and types, respectively. When a cast detects a problem, it raises blame, a label-indexed uncatchable exception written $\uparrow l$. The label $l$ allows us to trace blame back to a specific cast. (While labels here are drawn from an arbitrary set, in practice $l$ will refer to a source-code location.) Finally, we use active checks $\langle \{x:T \mid e_1\}, e_2, v \rangle^l$ to support a small-step semantics for checking casts into refinement types. In an active check, $\langle \{x:T \mid e_1\}, e_2 \rangle$ is the refinement being checked, $e_2$ is the current state of checking, and $v$ is the value being checked. The type in the first position of an active check is not necessary for the operational semantics, but we keep it around as a technical aid to our syntactic proof of preservation. The value in the third position can be any value, not just a constant according to generalization of refinement types.

If checking the refinement type succeeds, the check will return $v$; if checking fails, the check will blame its label, raising $\uparrow l$. Active checks and blame are not intended to occur in source programs—they are runtime devices. (In a real programming language based on this calculus, casts will probably not appear explicitly either, but will be inserted by an elaboration phase. The details of this process are beyond the present scope. Readers are referred to, e.g., [Flanagan 2006].)

The values in $\mathcal{F}_{\Pi}^T$ are constants, term and type abstractions, and casts. We also define results, which are either values or blame. Type soundness, stated in Theorem [5.18] will show that evaluation produces a result, but not necessarily a value. We note that, unlike some contract calculi—i.e., blame calculus [Wadler and Findler 2009]—function cast applications $\langle x:T_{11} \Rightarrow T_{12} \Rightarrow \Rightarrow x:T_{21} \Rightarrow T_{22} \rangle^l v$ are not seen as values, which simplifies our inversion lemmas. Instead, casts between function types will $\eta$-expand and wrap with the casts on the domain and the codomain their argument. This makes the notion of “function proxy” explicit: the cast semantics adds many new closures.

To define semantics, we use evaluation contexts [Felleisen and Hieb 1992] (ranged over by $E$), a standard tool to introduce small-step operational semantics. The syntax of evaluation contexts shown in Figure 1 means that the semantics evaluates subterms from left to right in the call-by-value style.

As usual, we introduce some conventional notations. We write $\text{FV}(e)$ (resp. $\text{FV}(T)$) to denote free term variables in the term $e$ (resp. the type $T$), which is defined as usual, except for casts:

$$\text{FV}(\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^l) = ((\text{FV}(T_1) \cup \text{FV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup \text{FV}(\sigma)$$

where $\text{dom}(\sigma)$ is the domain set of $\sigma$ and $\text{FV}(\sigma)$ is the set of free term variables in terms and types that appear in the range of $\sigma$. Similarly, we use $\text{FTV}(e)$, $\text{FTV}(T)$ and $\text{AFV}(\sigma)$ for free type variables, and $\text{AFV}(e)$, $\text{AFV}(T)$ and $\text{AFV}(\sigma)$ for all free variables, namely, both free term and type variables. We say that terms and types are closed when they have no free term and type variables.

We define application of substitutions, which is almost standard except the case for casts, below. To preserve standard properties of substitution, such as, “applying a substitution to a closed term yields the same term,” we consider only terms without garbage bindings in delayed substitutions and assume that $\text{dom}(\sigma) \subseteq \text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)$ holds for every cast $\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^l$. Before defining application of substitution, we introduce a few auxiliary notations. For a set $S$ of variables, $\sigma|_S$ denotes the restriction of $\sigma$ to $S$. Formally,

$$\sigma|_S = \{x \mapsto \sigma(x) \mid x \in \text{dom}(\sigma) \cap S\}, \{\alpha \mapsto \sigma(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in \text{dom}(\sigma) \cap S\}.$$
We denote by $\sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_2$ a delayed substitution obtained by concatenating substitutions with disjoint domains elementwise.

3.1 Definition [Substitution]: Substitution in $F^p_H$ is the standard capture-avoiding substitution function with a single change, in the cast case:

$$\sigma((T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma_1}^l) = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma_2}^l$$

where $\sigma_2 = \sigma(\sigma_1) \uplus (\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)} \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1))$. Here, $\sigma(\sigma_1)$ denotes the (pairwise) composition of $\sigma$ and $\sigma_1$; formally,

$$\sigma(\sigma_1) = \{x \mapsto \sigma(\sigma_1(x)) \mid x \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1)\}, \{\alpha \mapsto \sigma(\sigma_1(\alpha)) \mid \alpha \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1)\}).$$

Notice that, in the definition of $\sigma_2$, the restriction on $\sigma$ is required to remove garbage bindings. We show that many properties of substitution in lambda calculi hold for our substitution in Appendix.

Finally, we introduce several syntactic shorthands. We write $T_1 \Rightarrow T_2$ for $x:T_1 \Rightarrow T_2$ when $x$ does not appear free in $T_2$ and $(T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^l$ for $(T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^l$ if the domain of $\sigma$ is empty. A let expression let $x : T = e_1$ in $e_2$ denotes an application term of the form $(\lambda x : T. e_2)\, e_1$. We may omit the type if it is clear from the context. If $\sigma = (\{x \mapsto e\}, \emptyset)$, then we write $[e/x]e', [e/x]T'$ and $[e/x]\sigma'$ for $\sigma(e')$, $\sigma(T')$ and $\sigma(\sigma')$, respectively. Similarly, we write $[T/\alpha]e', [T/\alpha]T'$ and $[T/\alpha]\sigma'$ for $\sigma(e')$, $\sigma(T')$ and $\sigma(\sigma')$, respectively, if $\sigma = (\emptyset, \{\alpha \mapsto T\})$.

3.2. Operational semantics

The call-by-value operational semantics in Figure 2 is given as a small-step relation, split into two sub-relations: one for reductions ($\Rightarrow$) and one for subterm reductions and blame lifting ($\llimapsto$). We define these relations as over closed terms.

The latter relation is standard. The $\text{E.REDUCE}$ rule lifts $\Rightarrow$ reductions into $\llimapsto$; the $\text{E.COMPAT}$ rule reduces subterms put in evaluation contexts; and the $\text{E.BLAIME}$ rule lifts blame, treating it as an uncatchable exception. The reduction relation $\Rightarrow$ is more interesting. There are four different kinds of reductions: the standard lambda calculus reductions, structural cast reductions, cast staging reductions, and checking reductions.

The $\text{E.BETA}$, and $\text{E.TBETA}$ rules should need no explanation—these are the standard call-by-value polymorphic lambda calculus reductions. The $\text{E.\text{OP}}$ rule uses a denotation function $\llbracket - \rrbracket$ to give meaning to the first-order operations. In Section 3.3, we describe a property of $\llbracket - \rrbracket$ to be required for showing type soundness.

The $\text{E.REFL}$, $\text{E.FUN}$, and $\text{E.FORALL}$ rules reduce casts structurally. $\text{E.REFL}$ eliminates a cast from a type to itself; intuitively, such a cast should always succeed anyway. (We discuss this rule more in Section 4.) When a cast between function types is applied to a value $v$, the $\text{E.FUN}$ rule produces a new lambda, wrapping $v$ with a contravariant cast on the domain and a covariant cast on the codomain. The extra substitution in the left-hand side of the codomain cast may seem suspicious, but in fact the rule must be this way for type preservation to hold (see Greenberg et al. [2010] for an explanation). Just like substitution (Definition 3.1), $\text{E.FUN}$ and other cast rules restrict the domain of each delayed substitution in the right-hand side of reduction to free variables in the source and the target types of the corresponding cast. Note that $\text{E.FUN}$ uses a let expression—syntactic sugar for immediate application of a lambda—for the domain check. This is a nice evaluation semantics than one in the previous calculi where the domain check can be duplicated by substitution. Avoiding this duplication is more efficient and simplifies some of our proofs of parametricity—in particular, we not need to show that our logical relation is closed under term substitution, i.e., two open, logically related terms are related after replacing variables in them with logically related terms.
Reduced rules $e_1 \rightsquigarrow e_2$

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{E.Op} & \quad \text{E.Reduce} \quad \text{E.Compat} \\
\text{E.Beta} & \quad \text{E.Compat} \\
\text{E.TBeta} & \quad \text{E.Blahme}
\end{align*}
\]

The E.Forall rule is similar to E.Fun, generating a type abstraction with the necessary covariant cast. A seemingly trivial substitution $[\alpha/\alpha]$ is necessary for showing preservation: the value $v$ in this rule is expected to have $\forall \alpha . T_1$ and then $v \alpha$ is given type $[\alpha/\alpha] T_1$, which is not the same as $T_1$ in general, even though $T_1$ and $[\alpha/\alpha] T_1$ are semantically equivalent, since substitution is delayed at casts! So, after the reduction, the source type of the cast has to be $[\alpha/\alpha] T_1$. Side conditions on E.Forall and E.Fun ensure that these rules apply only when E.Refl does not.

The E.Forget, E.Precast, and E.Check rules are cast-staging reductions, breaking a complex cast down to a series of simpler casts and checks. All of these rules require that the left- and right-hand sides of the cast be different—if they are the same, then E.Refl applies. The E.Forget rule strips a layer of refinement off the left-hand side; in addition to requiring that the left- and right-hand sides are different, the preconditions require that the right-hand side is not a refinement of the left-hand side. The E.Precast rule breaks a cast into two parts: one that checks
exactly one level of refinement and another that checks the remaining parts. We only apply this rule when the two sides of the cast are different and when the left-hand side is not a refinement. The E_CHECK rule applies when the right-hand side refines the left-hand side; it takes the cast value and checks that it satisfies the right-hand side. (We do not have to check the left-hand side, since that is the type we are casting from.) If the check succeeds, then the active check evaluates to the checked value (E_OK); otherwise, it is blamed with l (E_FAIL).

Before explaining how these rules interact in general, we offer a few examples. First, here is a reduction using E_CHECK, E_COMPAT, E_OP, and E_OK:

\[
\langle \text{Int} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}\rangle 5 \rightarrow \langle\{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}, 5 \geq 0, 5\rangle^l \\
\rightarrow \langle\{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}, 5 \geq 0, 5\rangle^l \\
\rightarrow 5
\]

A failed check will work in the same way until the last reduction, which will use E_FAIL rather than E_OK:

\[
\langle \text{Int} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}\rangle (-1) \rightarrow \langle\{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}, -1 \geq 0, -1\rangle^l \\
\rightarrow \langle\{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}, \text{false}, -1\rangle^l \\
\rightarrow \land_l
\]

Notice that the blame label comes from the cast that failed. Here is a similar reduction that needs some staging, using E_FORGET followed by the first reduction we gave:

\[
\langle\{x: \text{Int} \mid x = 5\} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}\rangle^l 5 \rightarrow \langle\{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}\rangle^l 5 \\
\rightarrow \langle\{x: \text{Int} \mid x \geq 0\}, 5 \geq 0, 5\rangle^l \\
\rightarrow 5
\]

There are two cases where we need to use E_PRECHECK. First, when nested refinements are involved:

\[
\langle \text{Int} \Rightarrow \{x: \{y: \text{Int} \mid y \geq 0\} \mid x = 5\}\rangle^l 5 \\
\rightarrow \langle\{y: \text{Int} \mid y \geq 0\} \Rightarrow \{x: \{y: \text{Int} \mid y \geq 0\} \mid x = 5\}\rangle^l (\langle \text{Int} \Rightarrow \{y: \text{Int} \mid y \geq 0\}\rangle^l 5) \\
\rightarrow \ast \langle\{y: \text{Int} \mid y \geq 0\} \Rightarrow \{x: \{y: \text{Int} \mid y \geq 0\} \mid x = 5\}\rangle^l 5 \\
\rightarrow \langle\{x: \{y: \text{Int} \mid y \geq 0\} \mid x = 5\}, 5 = 5, 5\rangle^l \\
\rightarrow \ast \ 5
\]

Second, when a function or universal type is cast into a refinement of a different function or universal type:

\[
\langle \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{Bool} \mid x\} \Rightarrow \{f: \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \mid f \text{ true} = f \text{ false}\}\rangle^l v \\
\rightarrow \langle \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \mid f \text{ true} = f \text{ false}\}\rangle^l v \\
\rightarrow \langle\{x: \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \mid x\} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool}\rangle^l v
\]

E_REFL is necessary for simple cases, like \(\langle \text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Int}\rangle^l 5 \rightarrow 5\). Hopefully, such a useless cast would never be written, but it could arise as a result of E_FUN or E_FORALL. (We also need E_REFL in our proof of parametricity; see Section 6)

We offer two higher-level ways to understand the interactions of these complicated cast rules. First, we can see the reduction rules as an unfolding of a recursive function, choosing the first clause in case of ambiguity. That is, the operational semantics...
unfolds a cast \( T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \) \( \rho \) \( v \) like \( C^\rho_1(T_1, T_2, v) \):

\[
\begin{align*}
C^\rho_1(T, T, v) &= v \\
C^\rho_1(x: T_1 \mid e, T_2, v) &= C^\rho_1(T_1, T_2, v) \\
C^\rho_\sigma(T_1, x: T_2 \mid e, v) &= \text{let } x = C^\rho_\sigma(T_1, T_2, v) \text{ in } \langle \sigma(x: T_2 \mid e), \sigma(e), x \rangle^T \quad \text{(where } x \notin \text{ dom}(\sigma)\rangle \\
C^\rho_\sigma(\forall \alpha. T_1, \forall \alpha. T_2, v) &= \Lambda \alpha. C^\rho_\sigma([\alpha/\alpha]T_1, T_2, v, \alpha) \quad \text{(where } \alpha \notin \text{ dom}(\sigma)\rangle \\
C^\rho_\sigma(x: T_1 \Rightarrow T_2, x: T_2 \Rightarrow T_2, v) &= \\
& \quad \lambda x: \sigma(T_2). \text{let } y = C^\rho_\sigma(T_2, T_1, x) \text{ in } C^\rho_\sigma(y/x)T_1, T_2, v, y) \quad \text{(where } x, y \notin \text{ dom}(\sigma)\rangle \\
\end{align*}
\]

Alternatively, the rules firing during the evaluation of a cast in the small-step semantics obeys the following regular schema:

\[
\text{REFL } | \text{(FORGET}^* \text{ REFL } | \text{(PRECHECK}^* \text{ REFL } | \text{FUN } | \text{FORALL} )? \text{ CHECK}^*)
\]

Let us consider the cast \( T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \) \( v \) where we omit delayed substitution for conciseness. To simplify the following discussion, we define \( \text{unref}(T) \) as \( T \) without any outer refinements (though refinements on, e.g., the domain of a function would be unaffected); we write \( \text{unref}_n(T) \) when we remove only the \( n \) outermost refinements:

\[
\text{unref}(T) = \begin{cases} 
\text{unref}(T') & \text{if } T = \{x:T' \mid e\} \\
T & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

First, if \( T_1 = T_2 \), we can apply \( \text{E_REFL} \) and be done with it. If that does not work, we will reduce by \( E_{\text{FORGET}} \) until the left-hand side does not have any refinements. (N.B. we may not have to make any of these reductions.) As \( E_{\text{FORGET}} \) applies, either: (a) we strip away all of the refinements; (b) we are casting from \( T \) to \( \text{unref}_n(T) \), and after \( n \) steps \( E_{\text{REFL}} \) eventually applies and the entire cast disappears; or (c) at some point we can apply \( E_{\text{CHECK}} \), and the cast disappears. Assuming \( E_{\text{REFL}} \) and \( E_{\text{CHECK}} \) do not apply, we eventually reduce to \( \text{unref}(T_1) \Rightarrow T_2 \) \( \rho \). Next, we apply \( E_{\text{PRECHECK}} \) until the cast is completely decomposed into one-step casts. If \( T_2 \) has no refinements, we will just apply one of the structural rules, like \( E_{\text{REFL}} \), \( E_{\text{FUN}} \), or \( E_{\text{FORALL}} \). If it does have refinements, though, then we will get:

\[
\langle \text{unref}_1(T_2) \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^T \langle \text{unref}_2(T_2) \Rightarrow \text{unref}_1(T_2) \rangle^T \langle \ldots \langle \text{unref}(T_1) \Rightarrow \text{unref}_n(T_2) \rangle^T v \ldots \rangle^T
\]

Where \( n \) is one less than the number of refinements on \( T_2 \). At this point, there remain some number of refinement checks, which can be dispatched by the \( E_{\text{CHECK}} \) rule (and other rules, of course, during the predicate checks themselves).

The \( E_{\text{REFL}} \) rule merits some more discussion. At first, it appears that we can dispense with this rule because a cast \( T \Rightarrow T \) \( \rho \) seems like it cannot do anything: any value it applies must have already had type \( \sigma(T) \), so what could go wrong during any checks? One might worry that adding such a cast will cause a different label to be blamed. What would we have to prove is contextual equivalence of \( \langle T \Rightarrow T \rangle^\rho \) and an identity function (in the absence of \( E_{\text{REFL}} \)), for example, by following Belo et al. [2011].

\[\text{We have not been able to prove parametricity for a system without E_REFL because our logical relation does not require terms to be well typed.}\]

3.3. Static typing

The type system comprises three mutually recursive judgments: context well formedness \( \vdash \Gamma \), type well formedness \( \Gamma \vdash T \), and term typing \( \Gamma \vdash e : T \). The rules for

\[\text{The upcast lemma in Belo et al. [2011] is for a system with E_REFL, where a reflexive cast is trivially equivalent to the identity function.}\]

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Context well formedness \( \vdash \Gamma \)

\[ \vdash \emptyset \quad \text{WF\_EMPTY} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma \quad \vdash T \quad \text{WF\_EXTENDVAR} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma, \alpha \quad \text{WF\_EXTENDTVAR} \]

Type well formedness \( \Gamma \vdash T \)

\[ \vdash \Gamma \quad \text{WF\_BASE} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma, x : T \quad \text{WF\_EXTENDVAR} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma, \alpha \quad \text{WF\_FORALL} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma \vdash x : T_1 \quad \text{WF\_FUN} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma, \emptyset \vdash \{ \Gamma \} \quad \text{WF\_REFINE} \]

Term typing \( \Gamma \vdash e : T \)

\[ \vdash \Gamma \quad \text{T\_VAR} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma, k : \text{ty}(k) \quad \text{T\_CONST} \]
\[ \vdash \emptyset, T \quad \vdash \Gamma \quad \text{T\_BLAME}^* \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T_1. e_1 : x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \quad \text{T\_ABS} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma \vdash e_1 : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \quad \vdash \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T_1 \quad \text{T\_APP} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma \quad \text{T\_TABULAR} \]
\[ \vdash \Gamma \vdash \Lambda \alpha. e \quad \vdash \Gamma \vdash \alpha. T \quad \text{T\_TAPP} \]

Fig. 3. Typing rules for \( \mathcal{F}_H \). The rules marked * are for "runtime" terms.
contexts and types are unsurprising. The rules for terms are mostly standard. First, the T CONST and T OP rules use the ty function to assign well-formed, closed (possibly dependent) monomorphic first-order types to constants and operations, respectively. We require constants to belong to K unref ty (e1) and satisfy the predicate (if any) of ty (k) and [op] to be a function that returns a value satisfying the predicate of the codomain type of ty (op) when each argument value satisfies the predicate of the corresponding domain type of ty (op). The T CAST rule is dependent, to account for dependent function types. The T APP rule allows casts between compatibly structured well-formed types, demanding that both source and target types after applying delayed substitution be well-formed. Compatibility of type structures is defined in Figure 4; intuitively, compatible types are identical when predicates in them are ignored. In particular, it is critical that type variables are compatible with only (refinements of) themselves because we have no idea what type will be substituted for α. If we allow type variable α to be compatible with another type, say, B, then the check with the cast from α to B would not work when α is replaced with a function type or a quantified type. Moreover, this definition helps us avoid nontermination due to non-parametric operations (e.g., Girard’s J operator); it is imperative that a term like

\[ \text{let } \delta = \lambda \alpha. \lambda x: \alpha. (\alpha \Rightarrow \forall \beta. \beta \Rightarrow \beta)^{1} \ x \ \alpha \ x \ \text{in } \delta \ (\forall \beta. \beta \Rightarrow \beta) \ \delta \]

is not well typed. Note that, in T CAST, we assign casts a non-dependent function type and that we do not require well typedness/formedness of terms/types that appear in the range of a delayed substitution in a direct way—though well typed programs will start with and preserve well typed substitutions. Finally, it is critical that compatibility is substitutive, i.e., that if T1 || T2, then \[ (e/x \ T1) || T2 \] (Lemma A.28).

Some of the typing rules—T CHECK, T BLAME, T EXACT, T FORGET, and T CONV—are “runtime only.” These rules are not needed to typecheck source programs, but we need them to guarantee preservation. T CHECK, T EXACT, and T CONV are excluded from source programs because we do not want the typing of source programs to rely on the evaluation relation; such an interaction is acceptable in this setting, but disrupts the phase distinction and is ultimately incompatible with nontermination and effects. We exclude T BLAME because programs should not start with failures. Finally, we exclude T FORGET because we imagine that source programs have all type changes explicitly managed by casts. The conclusions of these rules use a context Γ, but all terms and types in premises have to be well typed and well formed under the empty context. Even though runtime terms and typing rules should only ever occur in the empty context, the T APP rule substitutes terms into types—so a runtime term could end up under a binder. We therefore allow the runtime typing rules to apply in any well formed context, so long as the terms they typecheck are closed. The T BLAME rule allows us to give any type to blame—this is necessary for preservation. The T CHECK rule types an active check, \[ \langle\{x: T \mid e1\}\rangle \ v \] reduces by E CHECK. The premises of the rule are all intuitive except for \[ [v/x] e1 \rightarrow^{*} e2 \] which ensures that e2 is an intermediate state during checking \[ [v/x] e1 \]. The T EXACT rule allows us to retype a closed value of type T at \[ x: T \mid e \] if \[ [v/x] e \rightarrow^{*} \text{true} \]. This typing rule guarantees type preservation for E OK: \[ \langle\{x: T \mid e1\}\rangle \ v \rightarrow^{*} v \]. If the active check was well typed, then we know that \[ [v/x] e1 \rightarrow^{*} \text{true} \], so T EXACT applies. T EXACT is a suitably extensional, syntactic, and subtyping-free replacement for the technique using selfified types and subtyping (Ou et al. 2004).

Finally, the T CONV rule is motivated by the requirement that terms of \[ [e1/x] T \] and \[ [e2/x] T \] should be able to be typed at both types if \[ e1 \rightarrow e2 \]—it is necessary to prove preservation; see also the discussion in Section 2.2. These types are convertible in F̃ and T CONV allows terms to be retyped at convertible types. We define a conversion
Type compatibility $[T_1 \parallel T_2]$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Premises</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha \parallel \alpha$</td>
<td>$T_1 \parallel T_2$</td>
<td>$\alpha \parallel \beta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{SIM}_{\text{VAR}}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$B \parallel B$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{SIM}_{\text{BASE}}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$T_1 \parallel T_2 \parallel {x : T_1 \mid e} \parallel T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{SIM}_{\text{REFINEL}}$</td>
<td>$T_1 \parallel T_2 \parallel {x : T_2 \mid e}$</td>
<td>$T_1 \equiv T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{SIM}_{\text{REFINER}}$</td>
<td>$T_1 \parallel T_2$</td>
<td>$T_1 \parallel T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{SIM}_{\text{FUN}}$</td>
<td>$T_1 \parallel T_2 \parallel x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \parallel x : T_2 \rightarrow T_2$</td>
<td>$T_1 \equiv T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{SIM}_{\text{FORALL}}$</td>
<td>$T_1 \parallel T_2 \parallel \forall \alpha. T_1 \parallel \forall \alpha. T_2$</td>
<td>$T_1 \equiv T_2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conversion $\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2$

$\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2 \iff \text{dom}(\sigma_1) = \text{dom}(\sigma_2) \subseteq \text{Var} \land \forall x \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1). \sigma_1(x) \rightarrow^* \sigma_2(x)$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Premises</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha \equiv \alpha$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$B \equiv B$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{C}_{\text{VAR}}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2 \parallel T_1 \equiv T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{C}_{\text{BASE}}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>${x : T_1 \mid \sigma_1(e)} \equiv {x : T_2 \mid \sigma_2(e)}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{C}_{\text{REFINE}}$</td>
<td>$\forall \alpha. T_1 \equiv \forall \alpha. T_2$</td>
<td>$T_1 \equiv T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{C}_{\text{FUN}}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>${x : T_1 \mid \sigma_1(e)} \equiv {x : T_2 \mid \sigma_2(e)}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{C}_{\text{FORALL}}$</td>
<td>$\forall \alpha. T_1 \equiv \forall \alpha. T_2$</td>
<td>$T_1 \equiv T_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{C}_{\text{SYM}}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\sigma_1 \equiv \sigma_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{C}_{\text{TRANS}}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$T_1 \equiv T_2 \parallel T_2 \equiv T_3 \parallel T_1 \equiv T_3$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4. Type compatibility and conversion for $F^\beta_n$

relation $\equiv$, which we also call common-subexpression reduction, or CSR, using rules in Figure 4. Roughly speaking, $T_1$ and $T_2$ are convertible when there is a common type $T$ and subexpressions $e_1$ and $e_2$ of $T_1$ and $T_2$ such that $T_1 = [e_1/x]T$ and $T_2 = [e_2/x]T$ and $e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$. The only interesting rule is $\text{C}_{\text{REFINE}}$, which says that refinement types $\{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}$ and $\{x : T_2 \mid e_2\}$ are convertible when $T_1$ and $T_2$ are convertible and there are some substitutions $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$ and a common subexpression $e$ such that $e_1 = \sigma_1(e)$ and $e_2 = \sigma_2(e)$ and each term which appears in the range of $\sigma_1$ reduces to one of $\sigma_2$. We remark that this conversion relation is different from that given in the prior ESOP 2011 work [Belo et al. 2011], where their conversion relation is defined in terms of parallel reduction. As discussed in Section 2.3, however, it turns out that their conversion relation is flawed. Another remark is that Belo et al. [2011] also (falsely) claimed that symmetry of convertible relation was not necessary for type soundness or parametricity, but symmetry is in fact used in the proof of preservation (Lemma A.41 when a term typed by $T_{\text{APP}}$ steps by $E_{\text{REDUCE}}/E_{\text{REFL}}$).

4. EXAMPLES

To better understand the semantics, we offer two examples: a closer look at the NAT datatype and a "library as a language" that uses contracts to implement a type system.

---

5Actually, the paper omits a formal definition, which appears in Greenberg [2013].
4.1. Contracts for abstract datatypes

Let us return to our simple example combining contracts and polymorphism—an abstract datatype of natural numbers. As usual, abstract datatypes are encoded by using type abstractions:

\[ \exists \alpha. \ T = \forall \alpha'. (\forall \alpha. \ T \to \alpha') \to \alpha' \]

pack \( \langle T_1, e \rangle \) as \( \exists \alpha. \ T_2 = \Lambda \alpha'. \lambda f. (\forall \alpha. \ T_2 \to \alpha'). f \ T_1 \ e \)

unpack \( e_1 : \exists \alpha. \ T_1 \) as \( \alpha, x \) in \( e_2 : \ T_2 = e_1 \ T_2 (\Lambda \alpha. \ \lambda x. \ T_1. \ e_2) \)

Moreover, to clarify each component of an abstract datatype and to give an accurate interface to it, we use dependent sums, which are encoded as:

\[ (x : T_1) \times T_2 = \forall \alpha. (x : T_1 \to T_2) \to \alpha \]

\[ (e_1, e_2) (x : T_1) \times T_2 = \Lambda \alpha. \ \lambda f. (x : T_1 \to T_2) \to \alpha). f \ e_1 \ e_2. \]

(We assume that \( \times \) is right-associative.) Then, natural numbers are represented as:

\[ \text{NAT} : \exists \alpha. (\text{zero} : \alpha) \times (\text{succ} : (\alpha \to \alpha)) \times (\text{isZ} : (\alpha \to \text{Bool})) \times (\text{pred} : \alpha \to \alpha) \]

where we name the last component as well as other components for convenience. The constructors zero and suc\( \text{c} \) are standard; the operator is\( \text{Z} \) determines whether a natural is zero; the operator \text{pred} yields the predecessor. We omit the implementation, a standard Church encoding, where \( \alpha = \forall \beta, \beta \to (\beta \to \beta) \to \beta \).

As we saw in Section 1, the standard representation of the naturals is inadequate with respect to the mathematical natural numbers, in particular with respect to \text{pred}. In math, \text{pred} zero is undefined, but the implementation will return zero. The NAT’s interface hides our encoding of the naturals behind an existential type, but to ensure adequacy, we want to ensure that \text{pred} is only ever applied to terms of type \{\text{x:}\alpha \mid \text{not (isZ x)}\}. With contracts, this is easy enough: the interface \text{NAT}_I is given as

\[ \exists \alpha. (\text{zero} : \alpha) \times (\text{succ} : (\alpha \to \alpha)) \times (\text{isZ} : (\alpha \to \text{Bool})) \times (\text{pred} : \{\text{x:}\alpha \mid \text{not (isZ x)}\} \to \alpha). \]

Recall that in the Church encoding, \( \alpha \) will be instantiated with \( \forall \beta, \beta \to (\beta \to \beta) \to \beta \). So the refinement \( \{\text{x:}\alpha \mid \text{not (isZ x)}\} \) in the new type of \text{pred} is a refinement of a polymorphic function type. We believe that \( \mathcal{P}_H^\sigma \) is the first sound polymorphic manifest calculus with general refinement types (Belo et al. [2011] and Sage [Gronski et al. 2006] both have general refinements but both have some metatheoretical problems and Sekiyama et al. [2015] have not dealt with polymorphism).

To see why this more specific type for \text{pred} is useful, consider the following expression.

\text{unpack NAT} : \text{NAT}_I \ as \ \alpha, n \ in \ n.\text{isZ} (n.\text{pred} (n.\text{zero})) \to \text{Bool} \]

We have “unpacked” the ADT to make its type available as \( \alpha \) and used the dot notation to clarify constructors and operators specified. We then ask if the predecessor of 0 is 0, running \( n.\text{isZ} (n.\text{pred} (n.\text{zero})) \). The inner application is not well typed! We have that \( \text{zero} : \alpha \), but the domain type of \text{pred} is \{\text{x:}\alpha \mid \text{not (isZ x)}\}. To make the application well typed, we must insert a cast:

\text{unpack NAT} : \text{NAT}_I \ as \ \alpha, n \ in \ n.\text{isZ} (n.\text{pred} ((\alpha \to \{\text{x:}\alpha \mid \text{not (n.isZ x)}\}) \ n.\text{zero})) \to \text{Bool} \]

Naturally, this cast will ultimately raise \( \uparrow l \), because \( \text{not (n.isZ n.zero)} \to^{\ast} \text{false} \).

The example so far imposes constraints only on the use of the abstract datatype, in particular on the use of \text{pred}. To have constraints imposed also on the implementation of the abstract datatype, consider a more accurate interface of \text{pred}: \text{pred} \( x \) will always be less than \( x \). That is, when we extend the NAT’s interface with a binary “less than"
operator \texttt{le}, the result \texttt{pred} \( x \) has the refined type \( \{ y: \alpha \mid \text{le} \, y \, x \} \). We can specify this fact with the interface:

\[
\exists \alpha. \quad \ldots \times (\text{leq} : \alpha \to \alpha \to \text{Bool}) \times (\text{pred} : x: \{ x: \alpha \mid \text{not} \, (\text{isZ} \, x) \} \to \{ y: \alpha \mid \text{le} \, y \, x \})
\]

The \texttt{pred} function's contract requires that \texttt{pred}'s argument is nonzero and that \texttt{pred} returns a result less than the argument.

How can we write an implementation to meet this interface? By putting casts in the implementation. We can impose the contract on \texttt{pred} when we “pack up” the implementation \texttt{NAT}. Writing \texttt{nat} for the type of the Church encoding \( \forall \beta. \beta 	o (\beta \to \beta) \to \beta \), we define the exported \texttt{pred} in terms of the standard, unrefined implementation, \texttt{pred}':

\[
\text{pred} = (\text{nat} \to \text{nat} \Rightarrow x: \{ x: \text{nat} \mid \text{not} \, (\text{isZ} \, x) \} \to \{ y: \text{nat} \mid \text{le} \, y \, x \}) \downarrow \text{pred}'
\]

Note, however, that the cast on \texttt{pred}' will never actually check its domain contract at runtime: if we unfold the domain contract contravariantly, we see that \( \{ x: \text{nat} \mid \text{not} \, (\text{isZ} \, x) \} \Rightarrow \text{nat} \) is a no-op, because we are casting out of a refinement. Instead, clients of \texttt{NAT} can only call \texttt{pred} with terms that are typed at \( \{ x: \text{nat} \mid \text{not} \, (\text{isZ} \, x) \} \), i.e., by checking that values are nonzero with a cast into \texttt{pred}'s input type. The codomain contract on \texttt{pred}, however, could fail if \texttt{pred}' mis-implemented predecessor.

We can sum up the situation for contracts in abstract datatype interfaces as follows: the positive parts of the interface type are checked by the datatype’s contract and can raise blame—these parts are the responsibility of the ADT’s implementation; the negative parts of the interface type are not checked by the datatype’s contract—these parts are the responsibility of the ADT’s clients. Distributing obligations in this way recalls Findler and Felleisen’s seminal idea of client and server blame [Findler and Felleisen 2002].

4.2. Contracts as type systems

Inasmuch as abstract datatypes are little languages, contracts for abstract datatypes are like type systems for little languages, following the ideas in [Harper et al. 1993]. In this section, we develop a toy combinator language of string transducers, which specify mappings between regular languages. A type system for the transducer combinators translates naturally to a contracted abstract datatype implementation.

Each transducer \( t : \mathcal{L}_1 \hookrightarrow \mathcal{L}_2 \) maps from a (regular) domain \( \text{dom} \, t = \mathcal{L}_1 \) to a (regular) range \( \text{rng} \, t = \mathcal{L}_2 \).

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{S} &::= \text{strings} \\
\mathcal{L} &::= \text{regular expressions} \\
t &::= \text{copy} \, \mathcal{L} \mid \text{delete} \, \mathcal{L} \mid \text{concat} \, t_1 \, t_2 \mid \text{seq} \, t_1 \, t_2
\end{align*}
\]

Let \( \epsilon \) be the empty string, and let \( (\cdot) \) be string concatenation. The combinators compose to specify transducers. For this example, we only need two primitive combinators: \text{copy} \, \mathcal{L}, which maps a string in the language \( \mathcal{L} \) to itself; and \text{delete} \, \mathcal{L}, which maps a string in the language \( \mathcal{L} \) to the empty string, \( \epsilon \). We can combine transducers in two ways: \text{concat} \, t_1 \, t_2 \ runs \ t_1 \ on \ the \ first \ part \ of \ the \ input \ and \ t_2 \ on \ the \ second; \ seq \, t_1 \, t_2 \ runs \ t_2 \ on \ the \ output \ of \ t_1. \ We \ can \ define \ a \ semantics \ for \ transducers \ easily \ enough, \ with \ a \ function \ \text{run} \, t \ that \ takes \ strings \ in \ \text{dom} \, t \ to \ strings \ in \ \text{rng} \, t.

The \text{copy} \, \mathcal{L} \ transducer has the simplest semantics: it just copies strings in the given language. \( \mathcal{L} \). Its typing rule is straightforward.

\[\text{Precisely speaking, we need to apply a cast } (\{ x: \alpha \mid \text{not} \, (\text{isZ} \, x) \} \Rightarrow \alpha) \downarrow \text{ to } x \text{ in the codomain contract of } \text{pred} \text{ to make the contract well typed but omit it because the cast always will succeed and return } x.\]

\[\text{This is effectively a unidirectional version of Boomerang [Bohannon et al. 2008].}\]
run (copy \( L \)) \( S \) = \( S \)

The delete \( L \) transducer deletes a string in the language \( L \); its typing rule indicates that its range is the language containing only the empty string, \( \{ \epsilon \} \).

run (delete \( L \)) \( S \) = \( \epsilon \)

delete \( L \) : \( L \mapsto \{ \epsilon \} \)

The concat \( t_1 \cdot t_2 \) combinator splits its input between its two sub-transducers. Splitting up the input makes the semantics somewhat subtle: in general, \( S \in \text{dom } t_1 \cdot \text{dom } t_2 \) does not imply that there is a unique way to split \( S \). When two regular languages always split uniquely, we say they are unambiguously splittable, written \( L_1 \cdot \L_2 \). Unambiguous splittability of regular languages is decidable [Bohannon et al. 2008]; if we only concatenate transducers with unambiguously splittable domains, then the run function will be unambiguous.

\[
\text{run (concat } t_1 \cdot t_2 \) \( (S_1 \cdot S_2) = \text{run } t_1 \cdot \text{run } t_2 \cdot S_1 \cdot S_2 \text{ where } S_i \in \text{dom } t_i,
\]

\[
t_1 : L_{11} \leftrightarrow L_{12} \\
t_2 : L_{21} \leftrightarrow L_{22} \\
2_1 \cdot L_{21} \leftrightarrow L_{12} \cdot L_{22}
\]

Finally, the seq \( t_1 \cdot t_2 \) combinator runs \( t_2 \) on the output of \( t_1 \). The typing rule requires that the two sub-transducers match: \( \text{rng } t_1 \) and \( \text{dom } t_2 \) must be the same language.

\[
\text{run (seq } t_1 \cdot t_2 \) \( S = \text{run } t_2 \cdot (\text{run } t_1 \) \( S) \)
\]

\[
t_1 : L_1 \leftrightarrow L_2 \\
t_2 : L_2 \leftrightarrow L_3
\]

\[
\text{seq } t_1 \cdot t_2 : L_1 \leftrightarrow L_3
\]

To facilitate programming with these transducers, we may try to embed these combinators inside of a functional programming. It is rather difficult to generalize this combinator language—typing a lambda calculus with string regular expression types is not easy [Tabuchi et al. 2003; Benzaken et al. 2003; Bierman et al. 2010]. It is easy, however, to define an abstract datatype offering these operations, assuming we have a type String of strings and Regex of regular expressions.

\[
\text{TRANS} : \exists \alpha. (\text{dom } \alpha \rightarrow \text{Regex}) \times (\text{rng } \alpha \rightarrow \text{Regex}) \times \\
(\text{run } (\alpha \rightarrow \text{String} \rightarrow \text{String})) \times \\
(\text{copy } (\alpha \rightarrow \text{Regex} \rightarrow \text{Regex})) \times \\
(\text{delete } (\alpha \rightarrow \text{Regex} \rightarrow \alpha)) \times \\
(\text{seq } (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha)) \times \\
(\text{copy } \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha)) \times
\]

There is a problem, though: this datatype will let us write nonsensical combinators. In particular, we can give concat transducers that do not have unambiguously splittable domains, or we can give seq transducers which do not match up. For example, suppose \( \epsilon \notin \mathcal{L} \) and \( S \in \mathcal{L} \). Let \( t = \text{seq } (\text{delete } \mathcal{L}) \cdot (\text{copy } \mathcal{L}) \). Then:

\[
\text{run (seq } (\text{delete } \mathcal{L}) \cdot (\text{copy } \mathcal{L})) \cdot S = \epsilon
\]

Since \( \epsilon \notin \mathcal{L} \), this means that \( \text{run} \) took a value in \( \text{dom } t = \mathcal{L} \) and produced a value outside of \( \text{rng } t = \mathcal{L} \).

We are in a difficult position: we have a little language and a type system. But scaling our transducer language’s type system up to the lambda calculus increases complexity, and distracts us from what we would like to be doing—writing transducer programs!

Contracts offer a middle way. By putting contracts on the TRANS interface, we can ensure that all transducers are well formed, assuming we have appropriate decision procedures for membership (\( \epsilon \)), unambiguous splittability (splittable) and equality (=)
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for regular languages.

\[
\text{TRANS} : \exists \alpha. (\text{dom} : \alpha \rightarrow \text{Regex}) \times (\text{rng} : \alpha \rightarrow \text{Regex}) \times \\
(\text{run} : (t : \alpha \rightarrow \{x : \text{String} \mid x \in \text{dom } t\} \rightarrow \{x : \text{String} \mid x \in \text{rng } t\})) \times \\
(\text{copy} : \text{Regex} \rightarrow \alpha) \times (\text{delete} : (\text{Regex} \rightarrow \alpha)) \times \\
(\text{concat} : (t_1 : \alpha \rightarrow \{t_2 : \alpha | \text{splittable (dom } t_1)(\text{dom } t_2)\} \rightarrow \alpha) \times \\
(\text{seq} : (t_1 : \alpha \rightarrow \{t_2 : \alpha | \text{rng } t_1 = \text{dom } t_2\} \rightarrow \alpha)) \\
\]

The TRANS abstract datatype defines an embedded domain-specific language—with its own domain-specific type system. For example, \text{concat} will only accept transducers with unambiguously splittable domains, as discussed above; \text{seq} will only sequence transducers that match up. The interface given here is only one of many: it checks inputs but not outputs. For example, we could ensure that \text{concat} has our intended behavior by giving its codomain the type \{t_3 : \alpha | (\text{dom } t_3 = (\text{dom } t_1) \circ (\text{dom } t_2)) \land (\text{rng } t_3 = (\text{rng } t_1) \circ (\text{rng } t_2))\}, where \circ denotes regular expression concatenation.

The checks on \text{run} and \text{seq} are easy enough to build into our TRANS implementation. But there is a distinct advantage to making the contracts explicit in the interface type: the type system will keep track of unambiguous splittability checks. Programmers can track relevant information in refinements in client modules, and we may be able to eliminate redundant checks statically.

In general, contracting abstract datatype interfaces allows for library designers to extend the language’s type system with library-specific constraints. Clients then have two choices: propagate the library’s contracts through their code, possibly avoiding redundant checks; or ignore the contracts within their own code, allowing the checks to happen whenever they call into the library. Either way, the library’s users can rest assured that the contracts will guarantee the safety properties the library designers desired.

If programmers are careful to program in a “cover your ass” (CYA) style [Findler 2014]—i.e., in a hierarchy of many libraries, each library’s interface uses contracts that are strong enough to guarantee that other libraries’ contracts are satisfied—then error messages greatly improve. When libraries are stacked in a hierarchy several levels deep, CYA contracts in interfaces give programmers error messages earlier and at a higher level of abstraction.

Finally, the foregoing is the current implementation strategy for Boomerang [Bohannon et al. 2008], a language of bidirectional string transducers called lenses. The semantic constraints on Boomerang combinators are decidable, but combining Boomerang’s typing rules with the lambda calculus would be cumbersome—a hard open problem. Boomerang is a complex language, and there is no room in the “complexity budget” for a statically checked type system: lenses can already be difficult to program with and understand, and the complicated constraints necessary for type checking will only add more to the programmer’s burden. Instead, the Boomerang primitives have contracts that ensure that they produce sane bidirectional transformations. The Boomerang libraries built atop these primitives have contracts as well, in a CYA style. Even without optimizations to reduce the number of dynamic checks, this improvement in error handling has proved quite useful. Contracts are particularly suited to the phased nature of Boomerang, since the contracts on Boomerang’s lens combinators can be run in a staged fashion, where contract checking is more or less static. Lenses are constructed only once and then run many times. Running a lens merely requires checking regular language membership, so higher cost one-time checks can be amortized over many lens runs.
5. PROPERTIES OF $F^\sigma_H$

We show that well-typed programs do not get stuck—a well typed term evaluates to a
result, i.e., a value or a blame (if evaluation terminates at all)—via progress and
preservation [Wright and Felleisen 1994].

As Greenberg [2013] and Sekiyama et al. [2015] have pointed out, the “value inver-
sion” lemma (Lemma 5.6), which says values typed at refinement types must satisfy
their refinements, is a critical component of any sound manifest contract system, es-
specially for proving progress. The type soundness proof in Belo et al. [2011] is missing
this lemma—and can never have it, due to the flawed conversion relation. Greenberg
[2013] leaves a property which the value inversion depends on as a conjecture—which
turns out to be false. This value inversion lemma is not merely a technical device to
prove progress. Together with progress and preservation, it means that if a term typed
at a refinement type evaluates to a value, then it satisfies the predicate of the type,
giving a slightly stronger guarantee about well typed programs.

Perhaps surprisingly, the value inversion lemma is not trivial due to T_CONV: we
must show that predicates of convertible refinement types are semantically equiva-

tent. The proof of this property rests on cotermination (Lemma 5.4), which says that
common-subexpression reduction does not change the behavior of terms. Finally, using
these properties, we show progress (Theorem 5.15) and preservation (Theorem 5.17),
which imply type soundness (Theorem 5.18). In this section, we only give statements
of main lemmas and theorems; proofs are in Appendix.

5.1. Cotermination

First, we show cotermination, which both type soundness and parametricity rest on.
We start with cotermination in the most simple situation, namely, where substitu-
tions map only one term variable, and then show general cases. The key observation
in proving cotermination is that the relation

$\{([e_1/x]e, [e_2/x]e) \mid e_1 \rightarrow e_2\}$

is weak bisimulation (Lemmas 5.1 and 5.2).

5.1 Lemma [Weak bisimulation, left side (Lemma A.11)]: Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$. If $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow e'$, then $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* [e_2/x]e''$ for some $e''$ such that $e'' = [e_1/x]e''$.

5.2 Lemma [Weak bisimulation, right side (Lemma A.14)]: Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$. If $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow e'$, then $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* [e_1/x]e''$ for some $e''$ such that $e'' = [e_2/x]e''$.

5.3 Lemma [Cotermination, one variable (Lemma A.15)]: Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$.

- (1) If $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* true$, then $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* true$.
- (2) If $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* true$, then $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* true$.

5.4 Lemma [Cotermination]: (Lemma A.16) Suppose that $\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2$.

- (1) If $\sigma_1(e) \rightarrow^* true$, then $\sigma_2(e) \rightarrow^* true$.
- (2) If $\sigma_2(e) \rightarrow^* true$, then $\sigma_1(e) \rightarrow^* true$.

Proof. By induction on the size of $dom(\sigma_1)$ with Lemma 5.3.

5.2. Type soundness

Using cotermination, we show value inversion and then type soundness in a standard
syntactic way, starting with various substitution lemmas.

\footnote{In fact, $F^\sigma_H$ is terminating, as we will discover in Section 6.}
5.5 Lemma [Cotermination of refinement types (Lemma A.17)]: If \(\{x : T_1 | e_1\} \equiv \{x : T_2 | e_2\}\) then \(T_1 \equiv T_2\) and \([v / x]e_1 \rightarrow^* \text{true} \iff [v / x]e_2 \rightarrow^* \text{true}\), for all \(v\).

5.6 Lemma [Value inversion (Lemma A.18)]: If \(\emptyset \vdash v : T\) and \(\text{unref}_n(T) = \{x : T_n | e_n\}\) then \([v / x]e_n \rightarrow^* \text{true}\).

We use \(\text{unref}\) here to ensure that the value satisfies all of the predicates in its (possibly nested) refinement type.

5.7 Lemma [Term substitutivity of conversion (Lemma A.24)]:
If \(T_1 \equiv T_2\) and \(e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2\) then \([e_1 / x]T_1 \equiv [e_2 / x]T_2\).

5.8 Lemma [Type substitutivity of conversion (Lemma A.25)]:
If \(T_1 \equiv T_2\) then \([T/\alpha]T_1 \equiv [T/\alpha]T_2\).

5.9 Lemma [Term weakening (Lemma A.31)]: If \(x\) is fresh and \(\Gamma \vdash T'\) then

1. \(\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash e : T\) implies \(\Gamma, x : T', \Gamma' \vdash e : T\),
2. \(\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash T\) implies \(\Gamma, x : T', \Gamma' \vdash T\), and
3. \(\vdash \Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash \Gamma, x : T', \Gamma'\).

5.10 Lemma [Type weakening (Lemma A.32)]: If \(\alpha\) is fresh then

1. \(\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash e : T\) implies \(\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash e : T\),
2. \(\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash T\) implies \(\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash T\), and
3. \(\vdash \Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash \Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma'\).

5.11 Lemma [Term substitution (Lemma A.33)]: If \(\Gamma \vdash e' : T'\), then

1. if \(\Gamma, x : T', \Gamma' \vdash e : T\) then \(\Gamma, [e' / x]T' \vdash [e' / x]e : [e' / x]T\),
2. if \(\Gamma, x : T', \Gamma' \vdash T\) then \(\Gamma, [e' / x]T' \vdash [e' / x]T\), and
3. if \(\vdash \Gamma, x : T', \Gamma' \then \vdash \Gamma, [e' / x]T'\).

5.12 Lemma [Type substitution (Lemma A.34)]: If \(\Gamma \vdash T'\) then

1. if \(\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash e : T\) then \(\Gamma, [T' / \alpha]T' \vdash [T' / \alpha]e : [T' / \alpha]T\),
2. if \(\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash T\) then \(\Gamma, [T' / \alpha]T' \vdash [T' / \alpha]T\), and
3. if \(\vdash \Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \then \vdash \Gamma, [T' / \alpha]T'\).

As is standard for type systems with conversion rules, we must prove inversion lemmas to reason about typing derivations in a syntax-directed way. We offer the statement of inversion lemmas for functions here; the rest are in Section A.3.

5.13 Lemma [Lambda inversion (Lemma A.35)]: If \(\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T_1. e_{12} : T\), then there exists some \(T_2\) such that

1. \(\Gamma \vdash T_1\),
2. \(\Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2\), and
3. \(x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \text{unref}(T)\).

Inversion lemmas in hand, we prove a canonical forms lemma to support a proof of progress. The canonical forms proof is “modulo” the \(\text{unref}\) function: the shape of the values of type \(\{x : T \mid e\}\) are determined by the inner type \(T\).

5.14 Lemma [Canonical forms (Lemma A.38)]: If \(\emptyset \vdash v : T\), then:

1. If \(\text{unref}(T) = B\) then \(v\) is \(k \in K_B\) for some \(k\).
2. If \(\text{unref}(T) = x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2\) then
   a. \(v\) is \(\lambda x : T_1. e_{12}\) and \(T_1 \equiv T_1'\) for some \(x, T_1'\) and \(e_{12}\), or
   b. \(v\) is \([T_1 \rightarrow T_2]'_p\) and \(\sigma(T_1') \equiv T_1\) and \(\sigma(T_2') \equiv T_2\) for some \(T_1', T_2', \sigma,\) and \(l\).
3. If \(\text{unref}(T) = \forall \alpha. T'\) then \(v\) is \(\Lambda \alpha. e\) for some \(e\).
5.15 Theorem [Progress (Theorem A.39)]: If \( \emptyset \vdash e : T \), then either

1. \( e \rightarrow e' \), or
2. \( e \) is a result \( r \), i.e., a value or blame.

The following regularity property formalizes an important property of the type system: all contexts and types involved are well formed. This is critical for the proof of preservation: when a term raises blame, we must show that the blame is well typed. With regularity, we can immediately know that the original type is well formed.

5.16 Lemma [Context and type well formedness (Lemma A.40)]: (1) If \( \Gamma \vdash e : T \), then \( \vdash \Gamma \) and \( \Gamma \vdash T \); and (2) if \( \Gamma \vdash T \) then \( \vdash \Gamma \).

5.17 Theorem [Preservation (Theorem A.41)]: If \( \emptyset \vdash e : T \) and \( e \rightarrow e' \), then \( \emptyset \vdash e' : T \).

5.18 Theorem [Type Soundness]: If \( \emptyset \vdash e : T \) and \( e \rightarrow^* e' \) and \( e' \) does not reduce, then \( e' \) is a result. Moreover, if \( e' = v \) and \( T = \{ x : T'' \mid e'' \} \), then \( [v/x]e'' \rightarrow^* \) true.

**Proof.** The first half is shown by Theorems 5.15 and 5.17 and the second is by \( \emptyset \vdash v : T \) and Lemma 5.6. □

6. PARAMETRICITY

We prove relational parametricity for three reasons: (1) it yields powerful reasoning techniques such as free theorems [Reynolds 1983; Wadler 1989] and the upcast lemma [Belo et al. 2011]; (2) it indicates that contracts do not interfere with type abstraction, i.e., that \( \text{F}_{\text{H}} \) supports polymorphism in the same way that System \( \text{F} \) does; (3) we want to correct [Belo et al. 2011] and [Greenberg 2013]. The proof is mostly standard—we define a (syntactic) logical relation on terms and types, where each type is interpreted as a relation on terms and the relation at type variables is given as a parameter—except that our logical relation includes not only well-typed terms and well-formed types but also ill-typed terms and ill-formed types.

6.1. Logical relation

We begin by defining two relations: \( r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \delta \) relates closed results, defined by induction on types; \( e_1 \sim e_2 : T; \delta \) relates closed expressions which evaluate to results in the first relation. (These results and expressions are not necessarily well typed. See the discussion below.) The definitions are shown in Figure 5. Both relations have three indices: a (possibly open) type \( T \), a substitution \( \delta \) for type variables, and a substitution \( \delta \) for term variables. A type substitution \( \delta \), which gives the interpretation of free type variables in \( T \), maps type variables \( \alpha \) to triples \( (R, T_1, T_2) \) comprising a binary relation \( R \) on closed results and two closed types \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \), to be used as the concrete substitution of \( \alpha \) on the left- and right-hand terms. (The results in \( R \) and the two types \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) do not have to be well typed/formed.) A term substitution \( \delta \) maps from variables to pairs of closed (not necessarily well typed) values. We write projections \( \delta_i \) \((i = 1, 2)\) to denote projections from this pair. We similarly write \( \theta_i \) \((i = 1, 2)\) for a substitution that maps a type variable \( \alpha \) to \( T_i \) where \( \theta(\alpha) = (R, T_1, T_2) \).

With these definitions out of the way, the result relation is mostly straightforward. First, \( \parallel l \) is related to itself at every type. A base type \( B \) gives the identity relation on \( K_B \), the set of constants of type \( B \). A type variable \( \alpha \) simply uses the relation assumed in the substitution \( \delta \). Related functions map related arguments to related results. Type abstractions are related when their bodies are parametric in the interpretation of the

\^To save space, we write \( \parallel l \sim \parallel l : T; \delta \) separately instead of manually adding such a clause for each type.

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Closed results and terms

\[ r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta; \delta \quad e_1 \simeq e_2 : T; \theta; \delta \]

\[ k \sim k : B; \theta; \delta \iff k \in \mathcal{K}_B \]

\[ v_1 \sim v_2 : \alpha; \theta; \delta \iff \exists RT T_1, T_2. \alpha \rightarrow R, T_1, T_2 \in \theta \wedge v_1 \rightarrow_R T_1 \]

\[ \forall \alpha. T; \theta; \delta \iff \forall RT T_1, T_2, v_1 \sim v_2 T_2 : T; \theta; \delta \]

\[ v_1 \sim v_2 : \{ x : T \mid e \}; \theta; \delta \iff v_1 \sim v_2 : T; \theta; \delta \wedge [v_1/x] \theta_1(\delta_1(e)) \rightarrow^* \text{true} \wedge [v_2/x] \theta_2(\delta_2(e)) \rightarrow^* \text{true} \]

\[ \uparrow l \sim \uparrow l : T; \theta; \delta \]

\[ e_1 \simeq e_2 : T; \theta; \delta \iff \exists r_1 r_2, e_1 \rightarrow^* r_1 \wedge e_2 \rightarrow^* r_2 \wedge r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta; \delta \]

Types

\[ T_1 \simeq T_2 : \star; \theta; \delta \]

\[ B \simeq B : \star; \theta; \delta \]

\[ \alpha \simeq \alpha : \star; \theta; \delta \]

\[ x : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \simeq x : T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22} : \star; \theta; \delta \iff T_{11} \simeq T_{21} : \star; \theta; \delta \wedge \forall \nu v_1 v_2. v_1 \sim v_2 : T_{11}; \theta; \delta \rightarrow T_{12} \simeq T_{22} : \star; \theta; \delta \]

\[ \forall \alpha. T_1 \simeq \forall \alpha. T_2 : \star; \theta; \delta \iff \forall RT T_1', T_2'. T_1 \simeq T_2 : \star; \theta; \alpha \rightarrow R, T_1', T_2'; \delta \]

\[ \{ x : T_1 \mid e_1 \} \simeq \{ x : T_2 \mid e_2 \} : \star; \theta; \delta \iff T_1 \simeq T_2 : \star; \theta; \delta \wedge \forall \nu v_1 v_2. v_1 \sim v_2 : T_1; \theta; \delta \rightarrow [v_1/x] \theta_1(\delta_1(e_1)) \simeq [v_2/x] \theta_2(\delta_2(e_2)) : \text{Bool}; \theta; \delta \]

Open terms and types

\[ \Gamma \vdash \theta; \delta \iff \forall \alpha \in \Gamma. \theta_1(\delta_1(x)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(x)) : T; \theta; \delta \wedge \forall \alpha \in \Gamma. \exists RT T_1, T_2. \alpha \rightarrow R, T_1, T_2 \in \theta \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 \simeq e_2 : T \iff \forall \theta \delta. \Gamma \vdash \theta; \delta \rightarrow \theta_1(\delta_1(e_1)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_2)) : T; \theta; \delta \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash T_1 \simeq T_2 : \star \iff \forall \theta \delta. \Gamma \vdash \theta; \delta \rightarrow T_1 \simeq T_2 : \star; \theta; \delta \]

Fig. 5. The logical relation for parametricity.
substitutions. In the function and refinement type cases, the relation on a smaller type is universally quantified over logically related values. There are two choices of the type at which they should be related (for example, the second line of the function type case could change \( T_{11} \) to \( T_{21} \)). It does not really matter which side we choose, since they are related types. We are “left-leaning.” Finally, we lift the type relation to open types, writing \( \Gamma \vdash T_1 \simeq T_2 : * \) when two types are equivalent for any \( \Gamma \)-respecting substitutions.

It is worth discussing two points peculiar to this formulation: terms in the logical relation are not necessarily well typed, and the type indices are open.

We allow any relation on terms to be used in \( \theta \); terms related at \( T \) need not be well typed at \( T \). The standard formulation of a logical relation is well typed throughout, requiring that the relation \( R \) in every triple be well typed, only relating values of type \( T_1 \) to values of type \( T_2 \) (e.g., [Pitts 2000]). We have two motivations for allowing ill typed terms in our relation. First, functions of type \( x: T_1 \to T_2 \) must map related values \((v_1 \sim v_2 : T_1)\) to related results... but at which type? While \([v_1/x] T_2\) and \([v_2/x] T_2\) are related in the type relation, terms that are well typed at one type will not necessarily be well typed at the other, whether definitions are left- or right-leaning. Second, this parametricity relation is designed so that a certain kind of casts have no effect, as [Belo et al. 2011] attempt. Ultimately, we would like to define a subtype relation \( T_1 \triangleright: T_2 \), and show what we call upcast lemma that, if \( T_1 \triangleright: T_2 \), then \( \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^1 \sim \lambda x: T_1. x : T_1 \to T_2 \). That is, we want a cast \( \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^1 \), of type \( T_1 \to T_2 \), to be related to the identity \( \lambda x: T_1. x \), of type \( T_1 \to T_1 \). There is one small hitch: \( \lambda x: T_1. x \) has type \( T_1 \to T_1 \), not \( T_1 \to T_2 \)! We therefore do not demand that two expressions related at \( T \) be well typed at \( T \), and we allow any relation to be chosen as \( R \).

The type indices of the term relation are not necessarily closed. Instead, just as the interpretation of free type variables in the logical relation’s type index are kept in a substitution \( \theta \), we keep \( \delta \) as a substitution for the free term variables that can appear in type indices. Keeping this substitution separate avoids a problem in defining the logical relation at function types. Consider a function type \( x: T_1 \to T_2 \); the logical relation says that values \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) are related at this type when they take related values to related results, i.e., if \( v_1 \sim v_2 : T_1; \theta; \delta \), then we should be able to find \( v_1 v'_1 \sim v_2 v'_2 \) at some type. The question here is which type index we should use. If we keep type indices closed (with respect to term variables), we cannot use \( T_2 \) on its own—we have to choose a binding for \( x \)! Knowles and Flanagan [Knowles and Flanagan 2010] deal with this problem by introducing the “wedge product” operator, which merges two types—one with \( v'_1 \) substituted for \( x \) and the other with \( v'_2 \) for \( x \)—into one. Instead of substituting eagerly, we put both bindings in \( \delta \) and apply them when needed—the refinement type case. We think this formulation is more uniform with regard to free term/type variables, since eager substitution is a non-starter for type variables, anyway.

As we developed the original proof [Belo et al. 2011], we found that the \texttt{E_REFL} rule \( \langle T \Rightarrow T \rangle^i v \sim v \) is not just a convenient way to skip decomposing a trivial cast into smaller trivial casts (when \( T \) is a polymorphic or dependent function type); \texttt{E_REFL} is, in fact, crucial to obtaining parametricity in this syntactic setting. On the other hand, by parametricity, we expect every value of type \( \forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha \) to behave the same as the polymorphic identity function (modulo blame). One of the values of this type is \( \Lambda \alpha. (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha)^1 \). Without \texttt{E_REFL}, however, applying this type abstraction to a compound type, say \texttt{Bool \to Bool}, and a function \( f \) of type \texttt{Bool \to Bool} would return, by \texttt{E_FUN}, a wrapped version of \( f \) that is syntactically different from the \( f \) we passed in—that is, the function broke parametricity! We expect the returned value should behave the same as the input, though—the results are just syntactically different. With \texttt{E_REFL},
### Complexity of casts

\[
\text{cc}(\langle T \Rightarrow T \rangle^1) = 1 \\
\text{cc}(\langle x:T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \Rightarrow x:T_21 \Rightarrow T_22 \rangle^1) = \text{cc}(\langle [y/x]T_12 \Rightarrow T_22 \rangle^1) + \text{cc}(\langle T_21 \Rightarrow T_11 \rangle^1) + 1 \\
\text{cc}(\langle \forall \alpha. T_1 \Rightarrow \forall \alpha. T_2 \rangle^1) = \text{cc}(\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^1) + 1 \\
\text{cc}(\langle \{x:T_1 \ | \ e \} \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^1) = \text{cc}(\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^1) + 1 \\
\text{cc}(\langle T_1 \Rightarrow \{x:T_1 \ | \ e\} \rangle^1) = \text{cc}(\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^1) + 2 \\
\text{cc}(\langle T_1 \Rightarrow \{x:T_2 \ | \ e\} \rangle^1) = \text{cc}(\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^1) + 2
\]

\((y \text{ is fresh})

**Fig. 6. Complexity of casts**

\(\langle T \Rightarrow T \rangle^1\) returns the input immediately, regardless of \(T\)—just as the identity function. So, this rule is a technical necessity, ensuring that casts containing type variables behave parametrically.

### 6.2. Parametricity

Now we can set about proving parametricity. The proof of parametricity (Theorem 6.5) of \(\mathcal{F}_\Pi\) is trickier than that of the standard polymorphic lambda calculus, due to (1) dependent functions, (2) type convertibility, and (3) casts. Before stating parametricity, we discuss these issues; see Appendix for the proofs of it and lemmas.

In \(\mathcal{F}_\Pi\), it is not as easy as in System F to show that a well-typed term application is logically related to itself due to dependent function types. To see the reason, let us consider term application \(v_1 v_2\) such that \(v_1\) and \(v_2\) are typed at \(x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2\) and \(T_1\), respectively. Parametricity states that, if \(v_1\) and \(v_2\) are logically related to themselves with \(\theta\) and \(\delta\), respectively, then so is \(v_1 v_2\) at \([v_2/x]T_2\). The definition of the logical relation, however, states only that \(v_1 v_2\) are logically related to \(T_2\), not \([v_2/x]T_2\), with \(\theta\) and \(\delta\). Fortunately, as expected, these are equivalent: \(v_1 v_2\) are logically related to itself at \([v_2/x]T_2\) with \(\theta\) and \(\delta\) if \(v_1 v_2\) are logically related to itself at \(T_2\) with \(\theta\) and \(\delta\). Term compositionality stated below generalizes this.

#### 6.1 Lemma [Term compositionality (Lemma [A.42])]:

If \(\theta_1(\delta_1(e)) \longrightarrow^* v_1\) and \(\theta_2(\delta_2(e)) \longrightarrow^* v_2\) then \(r_1 \sim r_2 : T ; \theta ; \delta[[v_1, v_2]/x] \iff r_1 \sim r_2 : [e/x]T ; \theta ; \delta\).

For a similar reason, we show type compositionality, which is used also in other polymorphic lambda calculi (e.g., Pitts [2000]). In what follows, we write \(R_{T,\theta,\delta}\) for \(\{(r_1, r_2) \ | \ r_1 \sim r_2 : T ; \theta ; \delta\}\).

#### 6.2 Lemma [Type compositionality (Lemma [A.45])]:

\(r_1 \sim r_2 : T ; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T',\theta',\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))] ; \delta \iff r_1 \sim r_2 : [T'/\alpha]T ; \theta ; \delta\).

For the typing rule \(T\_CONV\) with type convertibility, we have to show that terms are logically related to themselves at convertible types.

#### 6.3 Lemma [Convertibility (Lemma [A.46])]:

If \(T_1 \equiv T_2\) then \(r_1 \sim r_2 : T_1 ; \theta ; \delta \iff r_1 \sim r_2 : T_2 ; \theta ; \delta\).

Showing that casts are logically related to themselves is the most cumbersome case in the proof of parametricity. We prove it by induction on a cast complexity metric, \(cc\), defined in Figure 6. The complexity of a cast is the number of steps it and its subparts can take. This definition is carefully dependent on our definition of type compatibility and our cast reduction rules. Doing induction on this metric greatly simplifies the proof: we show that stepping casts at related types yields either related non-casts, or
lower complexity casts between related types. Note that we omit the \( \sigma \), since the evaluation of casts does not depend on delayed substitutions. It may be easier for the reader to think of \( cc((T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^\dagger) \) as a three argument function—taking two types and a blame label—rather than a single argument function taking a cast. The \( cc \) is well defined though the case for casts between dependent function types chooses an arbitrary fresh variable, because, for any variable \( y \) and \( z \), \( cc(\langle [y/x] T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^\dagger) = cc(\langle [z/x] T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^\dagger) \) if \( y \) and \( z \) do not occur free in \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \).

6.4 Lemma [Cast reflexivity (Lemma A.47)]: If \( \vdash \Gamma \) and \( T_1 \parallel T_2 \) and \( \Gamma \vdash \sigma(T_1) \simeq \sigma(T_2) : * \) and \( \Gamma \vdash \Lambda TV(\sigma) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Gamma) \), then \( \Gamma \vdash \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^\dagger \sigma \simeq \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle^\dagger \sigma : \sigma(\_ : T_1 \Rightarrow T_2) \).

Finally, we can prove relational parametricity—every well-typed term (under \( \Gamma \)) is related to itself for any \( \Gamma \)-respecting substitutions.

6.5 Theorem [Parametricity (Theorem A.48)]: (1) If \( \Gamma \vdash e : T \) then \( \Gamma \vdash e \simeq e : T \); and (2) if \( \Gamma \vdash T \) then \( \Gamma \vdash T \simeq T : * \).

We have that logically related programs are by definition behaviorally equivalent: if \( \emptyset \vdash e_1 \simeq e_2 : B \), then \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \) coterminate at equal results. Ideally, logically related terms are also contextually equivalent and vice versa, but we leave study of this problem for future work.

7. THREE VERSIONS OF \( F_\beta \)

We compare \( F_\beta \) with two prior formulations of \( F_\beta \) without delayed substitution: [Belo et al. 2011] from ESOP 2011 and Greenberg's thesis [Greenberg 2013]. Both of these define variants of \( F_\beta \), claiming type soundness, parametricity and upcast elimination. All of these results depend on two properties of the \( F_\beta \) type conversion relation: substitutivity (Lemma 5.7) and cotermination (Lemma 5.4).

7.1. \( F_\beta \) 1.0: [Belo et al. 2011]

[Belo et al. 2011] got rid of subtyping and explicitly used the symmetric, transitive closure of parallel reduction \( \Rightarrow \) (Figure 7) as the conversion relation. (Parallel reduction is reflexive by definition.) The use of parallel reduction is inspired by [Greenberg et al. 2010], in which type soundness of \( \lambda_\beta \) is proved by using cotermination and another property called substitutivity (if \( e_1 \Rightarrow e_2 \) and \( e'_1 \Rightarrow e'_2 \) then \( [e'_1/x] e_1 \Rightarrow [e'_2/x] e_2 \) of parallel reduction. These properties were needed also for type soundness of \( F_\beta \). Unfortunately, it turns out that parallel reduction in \( F_\beta \) is not substitutive—the proof was wrong—and cotermination, which was left as a conjecture [Belo et al. 2011], p. 15), does not hold, either. Figure 8 offers three counterexamples: two to substitutivity, and one to both substitutivity and cotermination.

Why does not substitutivity hold in \( F_\beta \), when it did (so easily) in \( \lambda_\beta \)? Sources of the trouble are that (1) the \( F_\beta \) cast rules depend upon certain (syntactic) equalities between types and that (2) parallel reduction is defined over open terms. As a result, substitution may change reduction rules to be applied—both counterexamples to substitutivity in Figure 8 take advantage of it.

Cotermination breaks also because substitutions can affect which reduction rule applies to a cast, which in turn can force us to perform checks under one substitution that are not performed under another, related one (counterexample 3 in Figure 8).

7.2. \( F_\beta \) 2.0: Greenberg’s thesis

In his thesis, Greenberg tried to correct this problem using a fix due to Sekiyama: he takes common-subexpression reduction (CSR) as the conversion relation [Greenberg 2013]. We repeat \( F_\beta \)’s identical definition of CSR (Figure 4) again here, in Figure 9.
Parallel term reduction $c_1 \Rightarrow c_2$

\[
\begin{align*}
    \text{EP}_\text{OP} \quad & e \Rightarrow e' \quad T_2 \Rightarrow T'_2 \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RTB} \quad & e \Rightarrow e' \quad T_2 \Rightarrow T'_2 \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RREFL} \quad & e' \Rightarrow e \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RFORGET} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RE} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{REFL} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RAPP} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RPRECHECK} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RFAIL} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RFUN} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RFORALL} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{ABS} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{ABP} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{ABS} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{ABP} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{C} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{C} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
\end{align*}
\]

Parallel type reduction $T_1 \Rightarrow T_2$

\[
\begin{align*}
    \text{EP}_\text{TFUN} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{TFUN} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{REV} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{REV} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RED} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{false}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
    \text{EP}_\text{RED} \quad & \langle\{x: T \mid e\}, \text{true}\rangle \Rightarrow \uparrow t \\
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 7. Parallel reduction (for open terms).
Counterexample 1: substitutivity
Let $T$ be a type with a free variable $x$.
\[
e_1 = (T \Rightarrow \{y: [5/x] T \mid true\})^1 0
\]
\[
e_2 = ([5/x] T \Rightarrow \{y: [5/x] T \mid true\})^1 ((T \Rightarrow [5/x] T)^1 0)
\]
\[
e_1' = e_2' = 5
\]
Observe that $e_1' \equiv e_2'$ (by EP_REFL) and $e_1 \equiv e_2$ (by EP_RPRECHECK) but $[5/x]e_1 = ([5/x] T \Rightarrow \{y: [5/x] T \mid true\})^1 0 \not\equiv \langle \{y: [5/x] T \mid true\}, true, 0 \rangle^1$ by EP_RCHECK, not $[5/x]e_2$. Note that the definition of substitution $[e'/x]e$ is a standard one, in which substitution goes down into casts.

Counterexample 2: substitutivity
Let $T_2$ be a type with a free variable $x$.
\[
e_1 = (T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \Rightarrow T_1 \rightarrow [5/x] T_2)^1 v
\]
\[
e_2 = \lambda y: T_1. \langle T_2 \Rightarrow [5/x] T_2 \rangle^1 (v((T_1 \Rightarrow T_1)^1 y))
\]
\[
e_1' = e_2' = 5
\]
Observe that $e_1' \equiv e_2'$ (by EP_REFL) and $e_1 \equiv e_2$ (by EP_RFUN). We have $[5/x]e_1 = (T_1 \rightarrow [5/x] T_2 \Rightarrow T_1 \rightarrow [5/x] T_2)^1 v \not\equiv [5/x]v$ by EP_RREFL, not $[5/x]e_2$.

Counterexample 3: cotermination
\[
e = \langle \{x: \text{Bool} \mid false\} \Rightarrow \{x: \text{Bool} \mid true\} \rangle^1 true
\]
\[
e_1 = 0 = 5
\]
\[
e_2 = false
\]
Observe that $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$ (and so $e_1 \Rightarrow e_2$, by EP_ROP) and cotermination says that $[e_1/y]e$ terminates at a value iff so does $[e_2/x]e$. Here, by E_CHECK, $[e_1/y]e \rightarrow \langle \{x: \text{Bool} \mid e_1, true\} \rangle^1 \rightarrow^* \parallel true$ but by E_REFL, $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow true$.

Fig. 8. Counterexamples to substitutivity and cotermination of parallel reduction in $H$

Conversion $\begin{array}{c} \sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2 \\ T_1 \equiv T_2 \end{array}$

$\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2 \iff \text{dom}(\sigma_1) = \text{dom}(\sigma_2) \subset \text{TmVar} \land \forall x \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1). \sigma_1(x) \rightarrow^* \sigma_2(x)$

$\alpha \equiv \alpha$
\[
\text{C_VAR} \quad B \equiv B \quad \text{C_BASE} \quad \sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2 \\ \{x: T_1 \mid \sigma_1(e)\} \equiv \{x: T_2 \mid \sigma_2(e)\} \quad \text{C_REFINE}
\]
\[
\frac{T_1 \equiv T'_1 \\ T_2 \equiv T'_2 \quad \text{C_FUN} \quad T \equiv T' \\ \forall \alpha. T \equiv \forall \alpha. T'}{x: T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv x: T'_1 \rightarrow T'_2} \quad \text{C_FORALL}
\]
\[
\frac{T_2 \equiv T_1}{T_1 \equiv T_2} \quad \text{C_SYM} \quad \frac{T_1 \equiv T_2 \quad T_2 \equiv T_3}{T_1 \equiv T_3} \quad \text{C_TRANS}
\]

Fig. 9. Type conversion via common-subexpression reduction

As we can see from the definition, CSR is designed to be substitutive (and is substitutive). However, cotermination still fails: we can construct ill-typed terms that do not
satisfy cotermination in Greenberg’s operational semantics—they look like the term in
counterexample 3 (Figure 3). The essential issue is that we can fire $E_{\text{REFL}}$ under one
substitution and force a check under another. If the term is ill typed, then we have no
way of knowing whether the argument of the cast satisfies its input type—so the check
can fail where $E_{\text{REFL}}$ succeeded. Well typed terms do not have this problem, but we
need our conversion relation to prove progress and preservation—we cannot use ar-
guments about typing in our proof of cotermination. In short, Greenberg’s Conjecture
3.2.1 on page 88 is false; it seems that the evaluation relation is defined in such a way
that substitutions can affect which cast reduction rules are chosen.

7.3. $F_H$
Our calculus, $F_H$, can see statically which cast reduction rule is chosen thanks to our
definition of substitution (Definition 3.1). In Lemma 5.4 we show that terms related
by CSR coterminate at true using $F_H$’s substitution semantics; this is enough to prove
type soundness and parametricity.

7.4. Discussion
$F_H$ tried to use entirely syntactic techniques to achieve type soundness, avoiding the
semantic techniques necessary for $\lambda_H$. But we failed: we need to prove cotermination
to get type soundness; our proof amounts to showing that type conversion is a weak
bisimulation. Our metatheory is, on the one hand, simpler than that of Greenberg et al.
[2010], which needs cotermination and semantic type soundness. On the other hand,
we must use a nonstandard substitution operation, which is a hassle.

Introducing explicit tagging [Wadler and Findler 2009] is an attractive alternative
approach. In an explicitly tagged manifest contract system, the only values inhabiting
refinement types are tagged as such, e.g., $v_{\{x:T\mid e\}}$; the operational semantics then
manages tags on values, tagging in $E_{\text{OK}}$ and untagging in $E_{\text{FORGET}}$. Explicit tagging
has several advantages: it clarifies the staging of the operational semantics; it elim-
nates the need for a $T_{\text{FORGET}}$ rule; it gives value inversion directly (Lemma 5.6).
Such a semantics would need to get stuck when casts are applied to inappropriately
tagged arguments, since typing cannot be used in the proof of cotermination. Explicit
tagging has not yet been tried in a setting with dependent types; it is not entirely clear
how to handle substitution and type conversion.

Finally: what kind of calculus would not have cotermination at true for well typed
terms? In a nondeterministic language, CSR may make one choice with $\sigma_1$, and another
with $\sigma_2$. Fortunately, $F_H$ is deterministic. In a deterministic language, cotermination
at true may not hold for CSR if the evaluation relation misuses equalities between terms,
e.g., if some rules predicate reduction on subterm equalities which other rules ignore.
$F_H$ is careful to fix the types in its casts early, delaying substitutions so that they do
not affect reduction—the intuition underlying our proof of cotermination.

8. RELATED WORK
We discuss work related to $F_H$ in two parts. First, we contrast our work with the un-
typed contract systems that enforce parametric polymorphism dynamically, rather
than statically as $F_H$ does. We then discuss how $F_H$ differs from existing manifest
contract calculi, with both static verification and dynamic checking, in greater detail.

8.1. Dynamically checked polymorphism
The $F_H$ type system enforces parametricity with type abstractions and type variables,
while refinements are dynamically checked. Another line of work omits refinements,
seeking instead to dynamically enforce parametricity—typically with some form of
sealing (à la Morris [1973] and, later, Pierce and Sumii [2000]).
Guha et al. (2007) define contracts with polymorphic signatures, maintaining abstraction with sealed “coffers”; they do not prove parametricity. Matthews and Ahmed (2008) claim parametricity for a polymorphic multi-language system with a similar policy, though some of the proofs are not correct ([Neis et al. 2009]). Neis et al. (2009) use dynamic type generation to restore parametricity in the presence of intensional type analysis. $F^\sigma_H$’s contracts are subordinate to the type system, so the parametricity result does not require dynamic type generation. Ahmed et al. (2009) and Ahmed et al. (2011) define polymorphic calculi for gradual typing [Siek and Taha 2006]; the former uses global runtime seals, while the latter uses local syntactic “barriers” instead. The type bindings in that work inspired the delayed substitution in this one. Neither calculus proves parametricity.

It is probably possible to combine $F^\sigma_H$ with the barrier calculus of Ahmed et al., yielding a polymorphic blame calculus [Wadler and Findler 2009]. How to prove parametricity of such a calculus remains an open question, though.

### 8.2. Combining static and dynamic checking

This section compares $F^\sigma_H$ and other work on combination of static and dynamic checking. We start with other manifest calculi and then discuss other related work. An overview of manifest calculi is described in Section 2.

**Simply typed manifest contract calculi.** A simply typed contract calculus $\lambda_H$, originated by Flanagan (2006), is proposed as a theoretical foundation of hybrid type checking. As discussed in Section 2, however, the metatheory of the original $\lambda_H$ is flawed due to support for subsumption in terms of subtyping, which demands that well typedness of terms occur at negative positions and makes it unclear whether the type system is well defined, while subtyping plays an important role in the proof of type soundness. The manifest calculus of Gronski and Flanagan (2007) has the same problem.

Knowles and Flanagan (2010) and Greenberg, Pierce, and Weirich (2010) have revised the original $\lambda_H$ to resolve the flaw; we write Knowles and Flanagan’s $\lambda_H$ KF and Greenberg et al.’s $\lambda_H$ GPW. To avoid the circularity, they give another source of “well-typed” values: hence, the denotations of types. Both KF and GPW define syntactic term models of types to use as a source of values in subtyping, though the specifics differ. After adding subtyping and denotational semantics, the type systems of both KF and GPW are well defined clearly. Moreover, as a key property of their calculi, they proved semantic soundness theorems (we write $\llbracket T \rrbracket$ for the denotations of type $T$):

$$\Gamma \vdash e : T \text{ and } \Gamma \vdash \sigma \implies \sigma(e) \in \llbracket \sigma(T) \rrbracket$$

in particular

$$\emptyset \vdash e : T \implies e \in \llbracket T \rrbracket.$$  

This theorem is sufficient for soundness of GPW whereas insufficient for KF—this difference comes from the difference of definitions of $\llbracket - \rrbracket$—and so Knowles and Flanagan have proved syntactic type soundness later.

Although these calculi have been proven to be sound, the situation in KF and GPW is somewhat unsatisfying. We set out to prove syntactic type soundness and ended up proving semantic type soundness along the way. While not a serious burden for a language as small as $\lambda_H$, having to use semantic techniques throughout makes adding some features—polymorphism, state and other effects, concurrency—difficult. For example, a semantic proof of type soundness for $F^\sigma_H$ would be very close to a proof of parametricity—must we prove parametricity while proving type soundness? To avoid such a sad situation, Belo et al. propose a syntactic construction of manifest calculi but there are technical flaws in their calculus; see the discussion in Section 2.2.
The metatheory of F_\text{H}^{\text{\#}} is entirely syntactic and correct. Similarly to F_\text{H}, it solves the problem by avoiding subtyping—which is what forced the circularity and denotational semantics in the first place—and introducing T_{\text{EXACT}}, T_{\text{CONV}}, and convertibility \equiv instead. The T_{\text{EXACT}} rule
\[
\frac{\emptyset \vdash v : T \quad \emptyset \vdash \{ x : T \mid e \} \quad [v/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}}{\Gamma \vdash v : \{ x : T \mid e \}}
\]
needs some care to avoid vicious circularity: it is crucial to stipulate \(v\) and \(\{ x : T \mid e \}\) be closed. If we “bit the bullet” and allowed nonempty contexts there, then we would need to apply a closing substitution to \([v/x]e\) before checking if it reduces to true but it would lead to the same circularity as subtyping we discussed above. As for T_{\text{CONV}} and convertibility, convertibility is much simpler than GPW and [Belo et al. 2011]. It does not, unfortunately, completely simplify the proof: we must prove that our conversion relation is a weak bisimulation to establish cotermination (Lemma 5.4) before proving type soundness.

SAGE language. [Gronski et al. 2006] develop SAGE language, which supports subsumption for subtyping, casts, general refinements, polymorphism, recursive functions, recursive types, the Dynamic type, the Type:Type discipline. SAGE avoids the circularity of Flanagan’s \(\lambda_\text{H}\), changing formalization of subtyping: in SAGE, \(\{ x : T \mid e_1 \}\) is a subtype of \(\{ x : T \mid e_2 \}\) if a theorem prover can prove the implication from \(e_1\) to \(e_2\). Since the theorem prover is independent of SAGE, the type system is well defined. Naturally, the metatheory of SAGE rests on the theorem prover. SAGE states axioms strong enough to show type soundness—for example, it requires the prover to be able to show \([e_1/x]e\) evaluates to true iff \([e_2/x]e\) does when \(e_1 \rightarrow e_2\), which works similarly to cotermination in F_\text{H}. Although Gronski et al. have shown type soundness of SAGE, they do not deal with parametricity, while we show it in F_\text{H}^{\text{\#}}. In fact, it is difficult to show parametricity in calculi with recursive functions [Pitts 2000], recursive types [Ahmed 2006], the Dynamic type [Matthews and Ahmed 2008], and/or Type:Type. In addition, axiomatization of theorem provers could bring us to an unsatisfactory situation. For example, the axiom system of Gronski et al. is inconsistent, though fixed by [Knowles 2014].

A manifest calculus with algebraic datatypes. Sekiyama et al. [2015] introduce a manifest calculus with algebraic datatypes and show conjecture-free type soundness of their calculus, although their calculus does not support polymorphism. The metatheory of it rests on CSR, while they do not adopt delayed substitutions. Instead, in order that how cast reduces is determined statically (this is crucial for showing cotermination), they drop cast reduction rules that see syntactic equality of the source and target types in a cast, like \(E_{\text{REFL}}\) of F_\text{H}^{\text{\#}}—any cast in their calculus works as follows: it will first drop all refinements in the source type, apply a structural cast, and then check all refinements in the target type. Although their calculus does not need delayed substitutions, it is not clear that parametricity holds in manifest calculi with such cast semantics because \(E_{\text{REFL}}\) plays an important role in showing parametricity in F_\text{H}^{\text{\#}}.

Dependent types with dynamic typing. Ou et al. [2004] study integration of certified and uncertified program fragments—all refinements in certified parts are checked statically whereas all those in uncertified parts are checked at runtime. They model static checking as subtyping checking and dynamic checking as compilation to predicate checking with if-expressions. Their calculus deal with the issues of preservation by supporting a special typing rule to assign “selfified” types to terms and subsumption for subtyping. Unlike manifest calculi, they restrict refinements (and so also arguments to dependent functions) to be syntactically pure in order to make static checking...
decidable. They also axiomatize requirements on theorem provers, like [Gronski et al. 2006].

**Static analysis using path information.** Much work on static program analysis (e.g., Hoare [1969]; Paulin-Mohring [1993]; Xi et al. [2003]; Cheney and Hinze [2003]; Nanevski et al. [2006]; Rondon et al. [2008]; Kawaguchi et al. [2009]; Knowles and Planagan [2009]; Chugh et al. [2012]) employs path information of conditional expressions—for example, when if-expressions are verified, the conditional expressions are supposed to hold in then-expressions whereas they are not to hold in else-expressions. In a sense, such information can be thought as “dynamic” because it is a result of an analysis of what values are examined at runtime. Although \( F_{\sigma} \) do not keep track of path information directly, we can simulate by encoding an if-expression (if \( e_1 \) then \( e_2 \) else \( e_3 \)) in source programs as syntax sugar of:

\[
\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } (\text{let } x = \langle \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \{ y: \text{Bool} | e_1 \} \rangle \text{ true in } e_2) \\
\text{else } (\text{let } x = \langle \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \{ y: \text{Bool} | \neg e_1 \} \rangle \text{ true in } e_3)
\]

where \( x \) and \( y \) are fresh. Under this encoding, \( e_2 \) and \( e_3 \) are typed under a binding that \( x \) is given type \( \{ y: \text{Bool} | e_1 \} \) and \( \{ y: \text{Bool} | \neg e_1 \} \), respectively. This corresponds to a path-sensitive typing rule for if-expressions, found, e.g., in [Rondon et al. 2008]:

\[
\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma, e_1 \vdash e_2 : T \quad \Gamma, \neg e_1 \vdash e_3 : T \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T
\]

(A Boolean expression \( e \) in a context intuitively means “if \( e \) is true.”) Such path information would be useful if we consider static verification for manifest contracts.

9. CONCLUSION

\( F_{\sigma} \) combines parametric polymorphism and manifest contracts. When we say “parametrically” polymorphic, we mean in particular that the relation \( R \) used to relate terms at type variables in the logical relation is a parameter of the logical relation, which admits any instantiation of \( R \). We offer the first conjecture-free, completely correct operational semantics for general refinements, where refinements can apply to any type, not just base types.

We hope to extend \( F_{\sigma} \) with barriers for dynamically checked polymorphism [Ahmed et al. 2011], and with state. (Though we acknowledge that state is a difficult open problem.) We also hope that \( F_{\sigma} \)’s operational semantics and (relatively) simple type system will help developers implement contracts. With the introduction of abstract types, there is room to draw connections between the client/server blame from Section 4.1 and Findler and Felleisen-style client/server blame. That is, code using manifest contracts with abstract types ends up inserting negative casts on the client side and positive casts on the server side—that is, it ends up looking quite a bit like Findler and Felleisen-style “macro” contracts, as opposed to the “micro” contracts more commonly discussed in manifest systems. Finally, we are curious to see what we can do with a contract language with the reasoning principles derivable from relational parametricity.

We elide subtyping and a proof of Upcast Lemma, which states that a cast from a subtype to supertype is logically related to an identity function—we believe those in [Belo et al. 2011] and [Greenberg et al. 2010] adapt straightforwardly, since the parametricity relation has not materially changed in \( F_{\sigma} \). The first two authors are

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10 Earlier versions [Belo et al. 2011] only admit relations that respect parallel reduction, but that restriction has been relaxed.

11 The “macro” and “micro” terms are due to Matthias Felleisen.
also working on a complete account of another polymorphic manifest contract calculus with recursion, a parametricity relation that has a clear relationship to contextual equivalence, and proofs of subtyping [Sekiyama and Igarashi 2012].

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A. PROOFS

This section gives the proofs of (syntactic) type soundness (Theorem 5.18) and parametricity (Theorem A.48) of $\mathcal{F}_\Pi$, without conjectures. We start with proving standard properties about free variables and substitution (Section A.1) because they are non-standard and slightly tricky. Section A.2 shows coterminality, a key property to ensure that our type conversion relates only types equivalent “semantically” (in particular, Lemma A.17 deals with the case for refinement types). Using coterminality, we show type soundness via progress (Theorem A.39) and preservation (Theorem A.41) in Section A.3. Finally, Section A.4 shows parametricity (Theorem A.48), which also depends on coterminality.

A.1. Properties of substitution

A.1 Lemma [Free Term Variables After Substitution]: Let $\sigma$ be a substitution.

1. For any term $e$, $\text{FV}(\sigma(e)) = (\text{FV}(e) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup \text{FV}(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(e)})$.

2. For any type $T$, $\text{FV}(\sigma(T)) = (\text{FV}(T) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup \text{FV}(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T)})$. 
PROOF. By structural induction on $e$ and $T$. We mention only the case of casts in the first case. We are given $e = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^l_{\sigma_1}$. Let $\sigma_2 = \sigma|_{(\text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)}$. By definition, $\sigma(e) = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^l_{\sigma_2}$ and

$$
\begin{align*}
FV(\sigma(e)) &= ((FV(T_1) \cup FV(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_2)) \cup FV(\sigma_2) \\
&= ((FV(T_1) \cup FV(T_2)) \setminus (\text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cup \text{dom}(\sigma|_{(\text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)}))) \cup FV(\sigma_2) \\
&= (FV(T_1) \cup FV(T_2)) \setminus (\text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cup \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup FV(\sigma_2).
\end{align*}
$$

We have $FV(e) = ((FV(T_1) \cup FV(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)) \cup FV(\sigma_1)$, and so

$$
FV(e) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma) = ((FV(T_1) \cup FV(T_2)) \setminus (\text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cup \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup (FV(\sigma_1) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)).
$$

Thus, it suffices to show that

$$
FV(\sigma_2) = (FV(\sigma_1) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup FV(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(e)}).
$$

Here, we have $FV(\sigma_2) = FV(\sigma(\sigma_1)) \cup FV(\sigma|_{(\text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)})$. By the IHs,

$$
\begin{align*}
FV(\sigma(\sigma_1)) &= \bigcup_{x \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1)} FV(\sigma(\sigma_1(x))) \cup \bigcup_{\alpha \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1)} FV(\sigma(\sigma_1(\alpha))) \\
&= \bigcup_{x \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1)} ((FV(\sigma_1(x)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup FV(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(\sigma_1(x))})) \cup \\
&\quad \bigcup_{\alpha \in \text{dom}(\sigma_1)} ((FV(\sigma_1(\alpha)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup FV(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(\sigma_1(\alpha))})) \\
&= (FV(\sigma_1) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup FV(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(\sigma_1)}).
\end{align*}
$$

Thus,

$$
FV(\sigma_2) = (FV(\sigma_1) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup FV(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(\sigma_1)}) \cup FV(\sigma|_{(\text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)}),
$$

and so it suffices to show that

$$
FV(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(e)}) = FV(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(\sigma_1)}) \cup FV(\sigma|_{(\text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)}).
$$

Since $\text{AFV}(e) = ((\text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)) \cup \text{AFV}(\sigma_1)$, we finish. \hfill \Box

A.2 Lemma [Free Type Variables After Substitution]: Let $\sigma$ be a substitution.

1. For any term $e$, $\text{FTV}(\sigma(e)) = (\text{FTV}(e) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup \text{FTV}(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(e)})$.
2. For any type $T$, $\text{FTV}(\sigma(T)) = (\text{FTV}(T) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) \cup \text{FTV}(\sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T)})$.

PROOF. Similarly to Lemma A.1 by structural induction on $e$ and $T$. \hfill \Box

A.3 Lemma: Let $\sigma$ be a substitution.

1. If $\text{AFV}(e) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma) = \emptyset$, then $\sigma(e) = e$.
2. If $\text{AFV}(T) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma) = \emptyset$, then $\sigma(T) = T$.

PROOF. By structural induction on $e$ and $T$. We mention only the case of casts. We are given $e = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^l_{\sigma'}$. By definition:

$$
\begin{align*}
\text{FV}(e) &= ((\text{FV}(T_1) \cup \text{FV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma')) \cup \text{FV}(\sigma') \\
\text{FTV}(e) &= ((\text{FTV}(T_1) \cup \text{FTV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma')) \cup \text{FTV}(\sigma').
\end{align*}
$$
Since \((\text{Fv}(e) \cup \text{FTV}(e)) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma) = \emptyset\), we have:

\[
\text{dom}(\sigma) \cap ((\text{Fv}(T_1) \cup \text{Fv}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma')) = \emptyset
\]
\[
\text{dom}(\sigma) \cap ((\text{FTV}(T_1) \cup \text{FTV}(T_2)) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma')) = \emptyset
\]

Thus, \(\sigma((T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma'}) = \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_{\sigma(\sigma')}\). Since \((\text{Fv}(e) \cup \text{FTV}(e)) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma) = \emptyset\), we have \((\text{Fv}(\sigma') \cup \text{FTV}(\sigma')) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma) = \emptyset\), and thus \(\sigma(\sigma') = \sigma'\) by the IHs. Thus, \(\sigma((T_1 \Rightarrow T_2))_{\sigma'} = \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_{\sigma'}\). □

**A.4 Lemma:** Let \(\sigma_1\) and \(\sigma_2\) be substitutions. Suppose that \(\text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma_2) = \emptyset\) and \(\text{AFV}(\sigma_1) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma_1) = \emptyset\).

1. For any term \(e\), \(\sigma_2(\sigma_1(e)) = (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2(e))\).
2. For any type \(T\), \(\sigma_2(\sigma_1(T)) = (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2(T))\).

**Proof.** By structural induction on \(e\) and \(T\). We mention only the case of casts. We are given \(e = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma'}\) and \(S = \text{AFV}(T_1) \cup \text{AFV}(T_2)\). By definition, \(\sigma_1(e) = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma_1'}\) where \(\sigma_1' = \sigma_1(\sigma) \cup \sigma_1|_{S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)}\). Thus, \(\sigma_2(\sigma_1(e)) = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma_2'}\) where

\[
\sigma_2' = \sigma_2(\sigma_1') \cup \sigma_2|_{S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1')}
\]

Also, we have \(\sigma_2(e) = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma_2'}\) where \(\sigma_2' = \sigma_2(\sigma) \cup \sigma_2|_{S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)}\), and \(\sigma_2(\sigma_1)(\sigma_2(e)) = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma_2'}\) where

\[
\sigma_2' = (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2') \cup \sigma_2|_{S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_2')}
\]

We show that \(\sigma_1' = \sigma_2'\) as follows.

1. We have \(\sigma_2(\sigma_1(\sigma)) = (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2(\sigma))\) because, for any \(x \in \text{dom}(\sigma)\),

\[
\sigma_2(\sigma_1(\sigma))(x) = \sigma_2(\sigma_1(\sigma(x)))
\]

\[
= (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2(\sigma(x))) \quad \text{(by the IH)}
\]

\[
= (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2(\sigma))(x),
\]

and for any \(\alpha \in \text{dom}(\sigma)\), \(\sigma_2(\sigma_1(\sigma))(\alpha) = (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2(\sigma))(\alpha)\), which can be proven similarly to term variables by the IH.

2. We show that \(\sigma_2(\sigma_1)|_{S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)} = \sigma_2(\sigma_1)|_{S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_2)}\), that is, we show that

\[
\text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)) = \text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_2)).
\]

Here, we have

\[
\text{dom}(\sigma_2) = \text{dom}(\sigma) \cup (\text{dom}(\sigma_2) \cap (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)))
\]

\[
= (\text{dom}(\sigma) \cup \text{dom}(\sigma_2)) \cap (\text{dom}(\sigma) \cup (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)))
\]

\[
= (\text{dom}(\sigma) \cup \text{dom}(\sigma_2)) \cap (\text{dom}(\sigma) \cup S)
\]

\[
= \text{dom}(\sigma) \cup (\text{dom}(\sigma_2) \cap S).
\]
Thus,
\[ \text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_2)) = \text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap (S \setminus (\text{dom}(\sigma) \cup (\text{dom}(\sigma_2) \cap S))) = \text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap (S \setminus (\text{dom}(\sigma) \cup \text{dom}(\sigma_2))) = (\text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap S) \setminus (\text{dom}(\sigma) \cup \text{dom}(\sigma_2)) = (\text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap S) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma) \] (since \( \text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma_2) = \emptyset \)) = \text{dom}(\sigma_1) \cap (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)). 

(3) We show that \( \sigma_2|_{S\setminus\text{dom}(\sigma_1)} = (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2)|_{S\setminus\text{dom}(\sigma)} \). Since \( \text{AFV}(\sigma_2) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma_1) = \emptyset \), we have \( (\sigma_2(\sigma_1))(\sigma_2) = \sigma_2 \) by Lemma A.3. Thus, it suffices to show that 
\[ \text{dom}(\sigma_2) \cap (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)) = \text{dom}(\sigma_2) \cap (S \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma)), \]
which can be shown similarly to the above.

A.2. Cotermination

The key observation in proving cotermination is that the relation \( \{([e_1/x], [e_2/x]) | e_1 \rightarrow e_2 \} \) is weak bisimulation. Lemmas A.11 and A.14 show it for cases that left- and right-hand terms first evaluate, respectively; the cases of term and type applications (without reducible subterms) are shown in Lemmas A.7 and A.9 respectively. We show cotermination in the case that substitutions map only one term variable (Lemma A.15), and then show general cases (Lemma A.16).

Throughout the proof, we implicitly make use of the determinism of the semantics.

A.5 Lemma [Determinism]: If \( e \rightarrow e_1 \) and \( e \rightarrow e_2 \) then \( e_1 = e_2 \).

Proof. By case analysis for \( \rightarrow \) and induction on \( e \rightarrow e_1 \).

A.6 Lemma: Suppose that \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \) are closed terms and that \( e'_1, [e_1/x]e'_2 \) and \( [e_2/x]e'_2 \) are values. If \( [e_1/x](e'_1 e'_2) \rightarrow e \), then \( [e_2/x](e'_1 e'_2) \rightarrow [e_2/x]e' \) for some \( e' \) such that \( e = [e_1/x]e' \).

Proof. By case analysis on \( e'_1 \). Here \( e'_1 \) takes the form of either lambda abstraction or cast since the application term \( [e_1/x](e'_1 e'_2) \) takes a step. We give just two emblematic cases: E_FUN and E_PreCheck.

\[ e'_1 = (y:T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \Rightarrow y:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22})^\sigma, \] where \( y:T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \neq y:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22} \). Without loss of generality, we can suppose that \( y \) and variables of \( \text{dom}(\sigma) \) are fresh. Let \( z \) be a fresh variable and \( i, j \in \{1, 2\} \). Moreover, let \( \sigma_i \) be
\[ \sigma_i = e_i/x)](\text{AFV}(y:T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12}) \cup \text{AFV}(y:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22})) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma) \]
and \( \sigma_{ij} \) be \( \sigma_i |_{\text{AFV}(T_{1i}) \cup \text{AFV}(T_{2j})} \). Then, \( [e_i/x]e'_2 = (y:T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \Rightarrow y:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22})^\sigma, \) and, by E_REDUCE/E_FUN, \( [e_i/x](e'_1 e'_2) \rightarrow e''_1 \) where
\[ e''_1 = \lambda y: \sigma_i(T_{21}). \text{let } z : \sigma_i(T_{11}) = (T_{21} \Rightarrow T_{11})^{\sigma_{i1}} \text{ y in } ([z/y]T_{12} \Rightarrow T_{22})^{\sigma_{i2}} ([e_i/x]e'_2 z). \]

Here, let \( \sigma'_j = \sigma_i |_{\text{AFV}(T_{1i}) \cup \text{AFV}(T_{2j})} \) and \( e' \) be
\[ \lambda y: \sigma(T_{21}). \text{let } z : \sigma(T_{11}) = (T_{21} \Rightarrow T_{11})^{\sigma_{i1}} \text{ y in } ([z/y]T_{12} \Rightarrow T_{22})^{\sigma_{i2}} (e'_2 z) \]
for some fresh variable \( z \).
We show \([e_i/x]e' = e''\). By Lemma A.4, \([e_i/x] \sigma(T_{21}) = ([e_i/x] \sigma)([e_i/x] T_{21}) = \sigma_i(T_{21})\) and, similarly, \([e_i/x] \sigma(T_{11}) = \sigma_i(T_{11})\). Also, letting \(S_j = \text{AFV}(T_{1j}) \cup \text{AFV}(T_{2j})\),

\[
[e_i/x] \sigma_j \uplus ([e_i/x]|_{S_j \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_j)}) = \sigma_i(T_{2j}) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_i) \quad \text{(because } S_j \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_j) = S_j \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_i))
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_i & = [e_i/x] \sigma \uplus ([e_i/x]|_{\text{AFV}(T_{1j}) \cup \text{AFV}(\{y:T_{2j} | e\})}) \uplus \text{dom}(\sigma_j) \\
\sigma_{i1} & = \sigma_i|_{\text{AFV}(\{y:T_{2j} | e\})} \\
\sigma_{i2} & = \sigma_i|_{\text{AFV}(T_{1j}) \cup \text{AFV}(T_{2j})}.
\end{align*}
\]

Then, by E_REDUCE/E_PRECHECK, \([e_i/x](e_1' e_2') \rightarrow e_i''\) where

\[
e_i'' = (T_2 \Rightarrow \{y:T_2 | e\})^{i1}_{\sigma_{i1}} ((T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^{(i2)}_{\sigma_{i2}} [e_i/x] e_2').
\]

Letting

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_1' & = \sigma_i|_{\text{AFV}(\{y:T_{2j} | e\})} \\
\sigma_2' & = \sigma_i|_{\text{AFV}(T_{1j}) \cup \text{AFV}(T_{2j})} \\
e' & = (T_2 \Rightarrow \{y:T_2 | e\})^{i1}_{\sigma_1'} ((T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)^{(i2)}_{\sigma_2'} e_2'),
\end{align*}
\]

it suffices to show that \([e_i/x] e' = e''\). We can show that \([e_i/x] \sigma_1' \uplus ([e_i/x]|_{\text{AFV}(\{y:T_{2j} | e\}) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_1)}) = \sigma_{i1}\) and and \([e_i/x] \sigma_2' \uplus ([e_i/x]|_{\text{AFV}(T_{1j}) \cup \text{AFV}(T_{2j}) \setminus \text{dom}(\sigma_2)}) = \sigma_{i2}\) similarly to the above, and so we finish.

\[\square\]

A.7 Lemma: Suppose that \(e_1 \rightarrow e_2\) and that \([e_1/x] e_1', [e_1/x] e_2'\), and \([e_2/x] e_2'\) are values.

1. If \([e_1/x] (e_1' e_2') \rightarrow e\), then \([e_2/x] (e_1' e_2') \rightarrow [e_2/x] e'\) for some \(e'\) such that \(e = [e_1/x] e'\).
2. If \([e_2/x] (e_1' e_2') \rightarrow e\), then \([e_1/x] (e_1' e_2') \rightarrow [e_1/x] e'\) for some \(e'\) such that \(e = [e_2/x] e'\).

PROOF. Since \([e_1/x] e_1'\) is a value, and \(e_1\) is not a value from \(e_1 \rightarrow e_2\), we have \(e_1'\) is not a variable, and thus \(e_1'\) is a value from the assumption that so is \([e_1/x] e_1'\). Since evaluation relation is defined over closed terms, we finish by Lemma A.6. \[\square\]

A.8 Lemma: Suppose that \(e_1\) and \(e_2\) are closed terms and that \(e\) is a value. If \([e_1/x] (e T) \rightarrow e'\), then \([e_2/x] (e T) \rightarrow [e_2/x] e'\) for some \(e''\) such that \(e' = [e_1/x] e''\).

PROOF. Since the type application term \([e_1/x] (e T)\) takes a step, \(e\) takes the form of type abstraction. Let \(e = \Lambda \alpha. e'\). Without loss of generality, we can suppose that \(\alpha\) is fresh. Let \(i \in \{1, 2\}\). By E_REDUCE/E_TBETA, \([e_1/x] (e T) \rightarrow [e_1/x] T/\alpha | e_i/x] e'\). Since
$e_i$ is closed, we have $[e_i/x][T/\alpha][e_i/x]e' = [e_i/x][T/\alpha]e'$ by Lemma A.4 and thus we finish. □

A.9 Lemma: Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$ and that $[e_1/x]e$ is a value.

1. If $[e_1/x][e T] \rightarrow e'$, then $[e_2/x][e T] \rightarrow [e_2/x]e''$ for some $e''$ such that $e' = [e_1/x]e''$.
2. If $[e_2/x][e T] \rightarrow e'$, then $[e_1/x][e T] \rightarrow [e_1/x]e''$ for some $e''$ such that $e' = [e_2/x]e''$.

Proof. By Lemma A.8 because it is found that $e$ is a value and that $e_1$ and $e_2$ are closed terms (evaluation relation is defined over closed terms). □

A.10 Lemma: If $e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$, then $E[e_1] \rightarrow^* E[e_2]$.

Proof. By induction on the number of evaluation steps of $e_1$ with E_COMPAT. □

A.11 Lemma [Weak bisimulation, left side]: (Lemma 5.1) Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$. If $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow e'$, then $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* [e_2/x]e''$ for some $e''$ such that $e' = [e_1/x]e''$.

Proof. By structural induction on $e$. Here $e_1$ is not a value, since $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$.

$e = x$: Since $[e_1/x]e = e_1$ and $[e_2/x]e = e_2$, we finish by Lemma A.3 when letting $e'' = e_2$ because $e_2$ is closed (recall that the evaluation relation is a relation over closed terms).

$e = \text{op}(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$: If all terms $[e_1/x]e_i'$ are values, then they are constants since $[e_1/x]\text{op}(e_1', \ldots, e_n')$ takes a step. Since $e_1$ is not a value, $e_i' = k_i$ for some $k_i$. Thus, $[e_1/x]e = [e_2/x]e = \text{op}(k_1, \ldots, k_n)$ and so we finish.

Otherwise, we suppose that some $[e_1/x]e_i'$ is not a value and all terms to the left of $[e_1/x]e_i'$ are values. From that, we can show that all terms to the left of $[e_2/x]e_i'$ are values since $e_1$ is not a value. If $[e_1/x]e_i'$ gets stuck, then contradiction because $[e_1/x]e$ takes a step. If $[e_1/x]e_i' \rightarrow e''$, then, by the IH, $[e_2/x]e_i' \rightarrow^* [e_2/x]e_i''$ for some $e_i''$ such that $e_i'' = [e_1/x]e_i''$. Thus, we finish by Lemma A.10. Otherwise, if $[e_1/x]e_i' = \uparrow l$, then $[e_2/x]e_i' = \uparrow l$ because $e_i' = \uparrow l$ by $e_1 \neq \uparrow l$, which follows from $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$. Thus, we finish by E_BLAME.

$e = e_i T_2$: We can show the case where either $[e_1/x]e_i'$ or $[e_1/x]e_2'$ is not a value similarly to the above. Otherwise, if they are values, we can find that so are $[e_2/x]e_i'$ and $[e_2/x]e_2'$, and thus we finish by Lemma A.7 (1).

$e = \langle \mathcal{y}: T \mid e_1', e_2', v \rangle^l$: Similarly to the above.

□

A.12 Lemma: If $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$, and $[e_2/x]e$ is a value, then there exists some $e'$ such that

$[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* [e_1/x]e'$.

$[e_1/x]e'$ is a value, and

$[e_2/x]e = [e_2/x]e'$.

Proof. By case analysis on $e$. □

A.13 Lemma: If $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$, and $[e_2/x]e = \uparrow l$, then $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* \uparrow l$.

Proof. By case analysis on $e$. □

A.14 Lemma [Weak bisimulation, right side]: (Lemma 5.2)
Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$. If $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow e'$, then $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* [e_1/x]e''$ for some $e''$ such that $e' = [e_2/x]e''$.

**Proof.** By structural induction on $e$.

- **Case (1):** $e = x$: Since $[e_1/x]e = e_1$ and $[e_2/x]e = e_2$, we finish by Lemma A.3 when letting $e'' = e'$.
- **Case (2):** $e = \sigma$ where $x \neq y$ or $\uparrow l$: Contradiction from $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow e'$.
- **Case (3):** $e = \text{op} (e_1', \ldots, e_n')$: If all terms $[e_2/x]e_i'$ are values, then they are constants since $[e_2/x]e_i'$ takes a step. By Lemma A.12, $[e_2/x]\text{op} (e_1', \ldots, e_n') \rightarrow^*$ $[e_2/x]\text{op} (e_1', \ldots, e_n')$ for some $e''_1, \ldots, e''_n$ such that $[e_2/x]e''_i = [e_2/x]e''_i$ for some $i$. Since $e_1$ is not a value from $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$, $e''_i = k_i$ for some $k_i$. Thus, we finish.

Otherwise, we suppose that some $[e_2/x]e_i'$ is not a value and all terms to the left of $[e_2/x]e_i'$ are values. By Lemma A.12, each term $[e_1/x]e_i'$ to the left of $[e_1/x]e_i'$ evaluates to a value $[e_1/x]e''_i$ for some $e''_i$ such that $[e_2/x]e''_i = [e_2/x]e''_i$. If $[e_2/x]e_i'$ gets stuck, then contradiction because $[e_2/x]e$ takes a step. If $[e_2/x]e' = \uparrow l$, then $[e_1/x]e_i' \rightarrow^* \uparrow l$ by Lemma A.13. Thus, we finish by E_BLAME. Otherwise, if $[e_2/x]e_i' \rightarrow e''$ then we finish by the IH and E_COMPAT.

- **Case (4):** $e = e_1' e_2'$: We can show the case where either $[e_2/x]e_1'$ or $[e_2/x]e_2'$ is not a value similarly to the above. Otherwise, if they are values, we can find, by Lemma A.12, that $[e_1/x]e_1'$ and $[e_1/x]e_2'$ evaluates to values $[e_1/x]e''_1$ and $[e_1/x]e''_2$ for some $e''_1$ and $e''_2$ such that $[e_2/x]e'_i = [e_2/x]e''_i$ and $[e_2/x]e'_i = [e_2/x]e''_i$ for some $i$. Then, we finish by Lemma A.12.

- **Case (5):** $e = (\{y : T \mid e_1', e_2', v\}$: Similarly to the above.

\[\square\]

**A.15 Lemma [Cotermination, one variable]:** (Lemma 5.3)

1. Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$.
   1. If $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$, then $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$.
   2. If $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$, then $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$.

2. Suppose that $e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$.
   1. If $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$, then $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$.
   2. If $[e_2/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$, then $[e_1/x]e \rightarrow^* \text{true}$.

**Proof.**

1. By induction on the number of evaluation steps of $[e_1/x]e$ and $[e_2/x]e$ with Lemma A.11 and Lemmas A.12 and A.14 respectively.

2. By induction on the number of evaluation steps of $e_1$ with the first case.

\[\square\]

**A.16 Lemma [Cotermination]:** (Lemma 5.4) Suppose that $\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2$.

1. If $\sigma_1 (e) \rightarrow^* \text{true}$, then $\sigma_2 (e) \rightarrow^* \text{true}$.

2. If $\sigma_2 (e) \rightarrow^* \text{true}$, then $\sigma_1 (e) \rightarrow^* \text{true}$.

**Proof.** By induction on the size of $\text{dom}(\sigma_1)$ with Lemma A.15. \[\square\]
A.3. Type soundness

We show type soundness in a syntactic manner: progress (Theorem A.39) and preservation (Theorem A.41). Cotermination is used to show value inversion (Lemma A.18), which implies consistency of the contract system of $F_H$ and is used to show progress in the case for $T_{OP}$. After proving properties of convertibility (Lemmas A.19–A.26) and compatibility (Lemmas A.27–A.30), we show progress and preservation, using standard lemmas: weakening lemmas (Lemmas A.31 and A.32), substitution lemmas (Lemmas A.33 and A.34), inversion lemmas (Lemmas A.35–A.37), and canonical forms lemma (Lemma A.38).

A.17 Lemma [Cotermination of refinement types (Lemma 5.5)]: If $\{x: T_1 | e_1\} \equiv \{x: T_2 | e_2\}$ then $T_1 \equiv T_2$ and $[v/x]e_1 \rightarrow^* true$ iff $[v/x]e_2 \rightarrow^* true$, for any closed value $v$.

\[\text{Proof.} \quad \text{By induction on the equivalence. There are three cases.}
\]

\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{(C_REFINE)}: We have $T_1 \equiv T_2$ by assumption. We know that $e_1 = \sigma_1(e)$ and $e_2 = \sigma_2(e)$ for $\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$. It is trivially true that $v \rightarrow^* v$, so $[v/x]e_1 \rightarrow^* [v/x]e_2$. By cotermination (Lemma A.16), we know that $[v/x]e_1 \rightarrow^* true$ iff $[v/x]e_2 \rightarrow^* true$.
  \item \text{(C_SYM)}: By the IH.
  \item \text{(C_TRANS)}: By the IHs and transitivity of $\equiv$ and cotermination.
\end{itemize}

A.18 Lemma [Value inversion (Lemma 5.6)]: If $\emptyset \vdash v : T$ and $\text{unref}_n(T) = \{x: T_n | e_n\}$ then $[v/x]e_n \rightarrow^* true$.

\[\text{Proof.} \quad \text{By induction on the height of the typing derivation; we list all the cases that could type values.}
\]

\begin{itemize}
  \item \text{(T_CONST)}: By assumption of valid typing of constants.
  \item \text{(T_ABS)}: contradictory—the type is wrong.
  \item \text{(T_TABS)}: Contradictory—the type is wrong.
  \item \text{(T_CAST)}: Contradictory—the type is wrong.
  \item \text{(T_FORGET)}: By the IH on $\emptyset \vdash v : \{x: T | e\}$, adjusting each of the $n$ down by one to cover the stack of refinements on $T$.
  \item \text{(T_EXACT)}: By assumption for the outermost refinement; by the IH on $\emptyset \vdash v : T$ for the rest.
\end{itemize}

A.19 Lemma [Reflexivity of conversion]:

$T \equiv T$ for all $T$.

\[\text{Proof.} \quad \text{By induction on } T. \quad \square\]

A.20 Lemma [Like-type arrow conversion]: If $x:T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \equiv T$ then $T = x:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22}$.

\[\text{Proof.} \quad \text{By induction on the conversion relation. Only C_FUN applies, and C_SYM and C_TRANS are resolved by the IH.} \quad \square\]

A.21 Lemma [Conversion arrow inversion]: If $x:T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \equiv x:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22}$ then $T_{11} \equiv T_{21}$ and $T_{12} \equiv T_{22}$.

\[\text{Proof.} \quad \text{By induction on the conversion derivation, using Lemma A.20} \quad \square\]

A.22 Lemma [Like-type forall conversion]: If $\forall \alpha. T_1 \equiv T$ then $T = \forall \alpha. T_2$.

\[\text{Proof.} \quad \text{By induction on the conversion relation. Only C_FORALL applies, and C_SYM and C_TRANS are resolved by the IH.} \quad \square\]

A.23 Lemma [Conversion forall inversion]: If $\forall \alpha. T_1 \equiv \forall \alpha. T_2$ then $T_1 \equiv T_2$.
PROOF. By induction on the conversion derivation, using Lemma A.22.

A.24 Lemma [Term substitutivity of conversion (Lemma 5.7)]:
If $T_1 \equiv T_2$ and $e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$ then $[e_1/x]T_1 \equiv [e_2/x]T_2$.

PROOF. By induction on $T_1 \equiv T_2$.
(C_VAR): By C_VAR.
(C_BASE): By C_BASE.
(C_REFINE): $T_1 = \{ y: T'_1 \mid \sigma_1(e) \}$ and $T_2 = \{ y: T'_2 \mid \sigma_2(e) \}$ such that $T'_1 \equiv T'_2$ and $\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2$. By the IH on $T'_1 \equiv T'_2$, we know that $[e_1/x]T'_1 \equiv [e_2/x]T'_2$. Since $e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$, we know that $\sigma_1 \uplus [e_1/x] \rightarrow^* \sigma_2 \uplus [e_2/x]$, and we are done by C_REFINE.
(C_FUN): By the IHs and C_FUN.
(C_FORALL): By the IH and C_FORALL.
(C_TRANS): By the IHs and C_TRANS.
(C_SYM): By the IHs and C_SYM.

A.25 Lemma [Type substitutivity of conversion (Lemma 5.8)]:
If $T_1 \equiv T_2$ then $[T/\alpha]T_1 \equiv [T/\alpha]T_2$.

PROOF. By induction on $T_1 \equiv T_2$.
(C_VAR): If $T_1 = T_2 = \alpha$, then by reflexivity (Lemma A.19). Otherwise, by C_VAR.
(C_BASE): By C_BASE.
(C_REFINE): $T_1 = \{ y: T'_1 \mid \sigma_1(e) \}$ and $T_2 = \{ y: T'_2 \mid \sigma_2(e) \}$ such that $T'_1 \equiv T'_2$ and $\sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma_2$. By the IH on $T'_1 \equiv T'_2$, we know that $[T/\alpha]T'_1 \equiv [T/\alpha]T'_2$. Since $[T/\alpha]\sigma_1 = \sigma_1$ and $[T/\alpha]\sigma_2 = \sigma_2$, we are done by C_REFINE.
(C_FUN): By the IHs and C_FUN.
(C_FORALL): By the IH and C_FORALL, possibly varying the bound variable name.
(C_SYM): By the IH and C_SYM.
(C_TRANS): By the IHs and C_TRANS.

A.26 Lemma [Conversion of unrefined types]: If $T_1 \equiv T_2$ then $\text{unref}(T_1) \equiv \text{unref}(T_2)$.

PROOF. By induction on the derivation of $T_1 \equiv T_2$.

A.27 Lemma [Compatibility is symmetric]: $T_1 \parallel T_2$ iff $T_2 \parallel T_1$.

PROOF. By induction on $T_1 \parallel T_2$.
(SIM_VAR): By SIM_VAR.
(SIM_BASE): By SIM_BASE.
(SIM_REFINE): By SIM_REFINE and the IH.
(SIM_REFINER): By SIM_REFINE and the IH.
(SIM_FUN): By SIM_FUN and the IHs.
(SIM_FORALL): By SIM_FORALL.

A.28 Lemma [Substitution preserves compatibility]:
If $T_1 \parallel T_2$, then $[e/x]T_1 \parallel T_2$.

PROOF. By induction on the compatibility relation.
(SIM_VAR): By SIM_VAR.
(SIM_BASE): By SIM_BASE.
(SIM_REFINE): By SIM_REFINE and the IH.
(SIM_REFINER): By SIM_REFINER and the IH.
(SIM_FUN): By SIM_FUN and the IHs.
(SIM_FORALL): By SIM_FORALL and the IH.
A.29 Lemma [Type substitution preserves compatibility]: If $T_1 \parallel T_2$ then $[T'/\alpha]T_1 \parallel [T'/\alpha]T_2$.

**Proof.** By induction on the compatibility relation.

1. (SIM_VAR): By SIM_VAR or reflexivity of the compatibility (proved easily).
2. (SIM_BASE): By SIM_BASE.
3. (SIM_REFERIEL): By SIM_REFERIEL and the IH.
4. (SIM_REFERINER): By SIM_REFERINER and the IH.
5. (SIM_FUN): By SIM_FUN and the IHs.

A.30 Lemma [Identity type substitution on one side preserves compatibility]: If $T_1 \parallel T_2$ then $[\alpha/\alpha]T_1 \parallel T_2$.

**Proof.** Similar to Lemma A.29.

A.31 Lemma [Term weakening (Lemma 5.10)]: If $x$ is fresh and $\Gamma \vdash T'$ then

1. $\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash e : T$ implies $\Gamma, x:T', \Gamma' \vdash e : T$, 
2. $\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash T$ implies $\Gamma, x:T', \Gamma' \vdash T$, and 
3. $\Gamma \vdash \Gamma'$ implies $\vdash \Gamma, x:T', \Gamma'$.

**Proof.** By induction on $e$, $T$, and $\Gamma'$. The only interesting case is for terms where a runtime rule applies:

1. (T_CONV,T_EXACT,T_FORGET): The argument is the same for all terms, so: since $\vdash \Gamma, x:T', \Gamma'$, we can reapply T_CONV, T_EXACT, or T_FORGET, respectively. In the rest of this proof, we will not bother considering these rules.

A.32 Lemma [Type weakening (Lemma 5.11)]: If $\alpha$ is fresh then

1. $\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash e : T$ implies $\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash e : T$, 
2. $\Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash T$ implies $\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash T$, and 
3. $\vdash \Gamma, \Gamma'$ implies $\vdash \Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma'$.

**Proof.** By induction on $e$, $T$, and $\Gamma'$. The proof is similar to term weakening, Lemma A.31.

A.33 Lemma [Term substitution (Lemma 5.11)]: If $\Gamma \vdash e' : T'$, then

1. if $\Gamma, x:T', \Gamma' \vdash e : T$ then $\Gamma, [e'/x]\Gamma' \vdash [e'/x]e : [e'/x]T$, 
2. if $\Gamma, x:T', \Gamma' \vdash T$ then $\Gamma, [e'/x]\Gamma' \vdash [e'/x]T$, and 
3. if $\vdash \Gamma, x:T', \Gamma' \vdash \Gamma, [e'/x]\Gamma'$.

**Proof.** By induction on $e$, $T$, and $\Gamma'$. In the first two clauses, we are careful to leave $\Gamma'$ as long as it is well formed.

A.34 Lemma [Type substitution (Lemma 5.12)]: If $\Gamma \vdash T'$ then

1. if $\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash e : T$, then $\Gamma, [T'/\alpha]\Gamma' \vdash [T'/\alpha]e : [T'/\alpha]T$, 
2. if $\Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma' \vdash T$, then $\Gamma, [T'/\alpha]\Gamma' \vdash [T'/\alpha]T$, and 
3. if $\vdash \Gamma, \alpha, \Gamma'$, then $\vdash \Gamma, [T'/\alpha]\Gamma'$.

**Proof.** By induction on $e$, $T$, and $\Gamma'$.

A.35 Lemma [Lambda inversion (Lemma 5.13)]: If $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x:T_1. e_{12} : T$, then there exists some $T_2$ such that

1. $\Gamma \vdash T_1$, 
2. $\Gamma, x:T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2$, and
(3) \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \text{unref}(T) \).

**Proof.** By induction on the typing derivation. Cases not mentioned only apply to terms which are not lambdas.

(T\_ABS): By inversion, we have \( \Gamma \vdash T_1 \) and \( \Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2 \). We find conversion immediately by reflexivity (Lemma A.19), since \( \text{unref}(T) = T = x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \).

(T\_CONV): We have \( \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_{12} : T' \); by inversion, \( T \equiv T' \) and \( \emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_{12} : T' \). By the IH on this second derivation, we find \( \emptyset \vdash T_1 \) and \( x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2 \) where, \( \text{unref}(T') \equiv \text{unref}(T) = T \). By weakening, we have \( \Gamma \vdash T_1 \) and \( \Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2 \). Since \( T' \equiv T \), we have \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \text{unref}(T') \equiv \text{unref}(T) \) by C\_TRANS.

(T\_EXACT): \( T = \{ x : T' \mid e \} \), and we have \( \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_{12} : \{ x : T' \mid e \} \); by inversion, \( \emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_{12} : T' \). By the IH, \( \emptyset \vdash T_1 \) and \( x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2 \), where \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \text{unref}(T') \). By weakening, \( \Gamma \vdash T_1 \) and \( \Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2 \). Since \( \text{unref}(T') = \text{unref}(\{ x : T' \mid e \}) \), we have the conversion by C\_TRANS: \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \text{unref}(T') \equiv \text{unref}(\{ x : T' \mid e \}) \).

(T\_FORGET): We have \( \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_{12} \vdash T ; \) by inversion, \( \emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_{12} : \{ x : T \mid e \} \). By the IH on this latter derivation, we have \( \emptyset \vdash T_1 \) and \( x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2 \), where \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \text{unref}(\{ x : T \mid e \}) \). By weakening, \( \Gamma \vdash T_1 \) and \( \Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2 \). Since \( \text{unref}(\{ x : T \mid e \}) = \text{unref}(T) \), we have by C\_TRANS that \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \text{unref}(\{ x : T \mid e \}) = \text{unref}(T) \).  

**A.36 Lemma [Cast inversion]:** If \( \Gamma \vdash (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_\sigma : T \), then

1. \( \Gamma \vdash \sigma(T_1) \)
2. \( \Gamma \vdash \sigma(T_2) \)
3. \( T_1 \parallel T_2 \)
4. \( \sim \sigma(T_1) \rightarrow \sigma(T_2) \equiv \text{unref}(T) \) (i.e., \( T_2 \) does not mention the dependent variable), and
5. \( \text{AFV}(\sigma) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Gamma) \).

**Proof.** By induction on the typing derivation, as for A.35.

**A.37 Lemma [Type abstraction inversion]:** If \( \Gamma \vdash \Lambda \alpha . e : T \), then

1. \( \Gamma, \alpha \vdash e : T' \)
2. \( \forall \alpha . T' \equiv \text{unref}(T) \)

**Proof.** By induction on the typing derivation, as for A.35.

**A.38 Lemma [Canonical forms (Lemma 5.14)]:** If \( \emptyset \vdash v : T \), then:

1. If \( \text{unref}(T) = B \) then \( v = k \in K_B \) for some \( k \).
2. If \( \text{unref}(T) = x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \) then
   - (a) \( v \equiv \lambda x : T'_1, e_{12} \) and \( T'_1 \equiv T_1 \) for some \( x, T'_1 \) and \( e_{12} \), or
   - (b) \( v \equiv (T'_1 \Rightarrow T'_2)_\sigma \) and \( T'_1 \equiv T_1 \) and \( \sigma(T'_2) \equiv T_2 \) for some \( T'_1, T'_2, \sigma, \) and \( l \).
3. If \( \text{unref}(T) = \forall \alpha . T' \) then \( v = \Lambda \alpha . e \) for some \( e \).

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

(T\_VAR): Contradictory: variables are not values.

(T\_CONST): \( \emptyset \vdash k : T \) and \( \text{unref}(T) = B \); we are in case 1. By assumption, \( k \in K_B \).

(T\_OP): Contradictory: \( \text{op}(e_1, \ldots, e_n) \) is not a value.

(T\_ABS): \( \emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_{12} : T \) and \( T \equiv \text{unref}(T) = x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \); we are in case 2a. Conversion is by reflexivity (Lemma A.19).

(T\_APP): Contradictory: \( e_1, e_2 \) is not a value.

(T\_CAST): \( \emptyset \vdash (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_\sigma : \forall \alpha . T \); we are in case 3. It is immediate that \( v = \Lambda \alpha . e \), and conversion is by reflexivity (Lemma A.19).

(T\_TAPP): Contradictory: \( e \) \( T \) is not a value.

(T\_CAST): \( \emptyset \vdash (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_\sigma : \forall \alpha . T \); we are in case 2b. It is immediate that \( v = (T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_\sigma \). Conversion is by reflexivity (Lemma A.19).
**A.39 Theorem [Progress (Theorem 5.15)]:** If $\emptyset \vdash e : T$, then either

1. $e \rightarrow e'$, or
2. $e$ is a result $r$, i.e., a value or blame.

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

- **(T.VAR):** Contradictory: there is no derivation $\emptyset \vdash x : T$.
- **(T.CO:NT):** $\emptyset \vdash k : ty(k)$. In this case, $e = k$ is a result.
- **(T.OP):** $\emptyset \vdash op(e_1, \ldots, e_n) : \sigma(T)$, where $ty(op) = x_1 : T_1 \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow x_n : T_n \rightarrow T$. By inversion, $\emptyset \vdash e_i : \sigma(T_i)$. Applying the IH from left to right, each of the $e_i$ either steps or is a result.

Suppose everything to the left of $e_i$ is a value. Then either $e_i$ steps or is a result. If $e_i \rightarrow e'_i$, then $op(e_1, \ldots, v_{i-1}, e'_i, \ldots, e_n) \rightarrow op(v_1, \ldots, v_{i-1}, e'_i, \ldots, e_n)$ by E.COMPAT. One the other hand, if $e_i$ is a result, there are two cases. If $e_i = \uparrow i$, then the original expression steps to $\uparrow i$ by E.BLAKE. If $e_i$ is a value, we can continue this process for each of the operation’s arguments. Eventually, all of the operations arguments are values. By value inversion (Lemma A.18), we know that we can type each of these values at the exact refinement types we need by T.EXACT. We assume that if $op(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ is well defined on values satisfying the refinements in its type, so $E.OP$ applies.

- **(T.ABS):** $\emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T_1, e_1 : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2)$. In this case, $e = \lambda x : T_1, e_1$ is a result.

- **(T.APP):** $\emptyset \vdash e_1 e_2 : [e_2]x : T_2$; by inversion, $\emptyset \vdash e_1 : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2)$ and $\emptyset \vdash e_2 : T_1$.

By the IH on the first derivation, $e_1$ steps or is a result. If $e_1$ steps, then the entire term steps by E.COMPAT. In the latter case, if $e_1$ is blame, we step by E.BLAKE. So $e_1$ is a value, $v_1$.

By the IH on the second derivation, $e_2$ steps or is a result. If $e_2$ steps, then by E.COMPAT. Otherwise, if $e_2$ is blame, we step by E.BLAKE. So $e_2$ is a value, $v_2$.

By canonical forms (Lemma A.38) on $\emptyset \vdash e_1 : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2)$, there are two cases:

$$(e_1 = \lambda x : T'_1, e_{12} \text{ and } T_1 = T_1')$$

In this case, $(\lambda x : T'_1, e_{12}) v_2 \rightarrow [v_2/x]e_{12}$ by E.BETA.
\[(e_1 = \langle T'_1 \Rightarrow T''_2 \rangle) \text{ and } \sigma(T'_1) \equiv T_1 \text{ and } \sigma(T''_2) \equiv T_2): \text{ We know that } T'_1 \parallel T''_2 \text{ by cast inversion (Lemma A.36)}. \]

We determine which step is taken by cases on \(T'_1 \) and \(T''_2\).

\((T'_1 = B)\):
\[
\begin{align*}
(T''_2 = B') & : \text{ It must be the case that } B = B', \text{ since } B \parallel B'. \text{ By E_REFL, } \langle B \Rightarrow B' \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow v_2. \\
(T'_2 = B) & : \text{ or } x:T_21 \rightarrow T_{22} \text{ or } \forall \alpha. T_{22}: \text{ Incompatible; contradictory.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\((T''_2 = \{x:T'_2 \mid e\})\): If \(T''_2 = B\), then by E_CHECK, \(\langle B \Rightarrow \{x:B \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \langle \sigma(\{x:B \mid e\}) \sigma([v_2/x]e), v_2 \rangle^t. \) Otherwise, by E_PRECHECK, we have:
\[
\langle B \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \langle T''_2 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma_1}^t ((B \Rightarrow T''_2)_{\sigma_2} v_2)
\]
where \(\sigma_1 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}\{x:T''_2 \mid e\}}\) and \(\sigma_2 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T''_2)}\), by E_PRECHECK.

\((T'_1 = \alpha)\):
\[
(T''_2 = \alpha') : \text{ It must be the case that } \alpha = \alpha', \text{ since } \alpha \parallel \alpha'. \text{ By E_REFL, } \langle \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha' \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow v_2. \\
(T'_2 = B) : \text{ or } x:T_21 \rightarrow T_{22} \text{ or } \forall \alpha. T_{22}: \text{ Incompatible; contradictory.} \\
\]

\((T''_2 = \{x:T'_2 \mid e\})\): If \(T''_2 = \alpha\), then by E_CHECK, \(\langle \alpha \Rightarrow \{x: \alpha \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \langle \sigma(\{x: \alpha \mid e\}), \sigma([v_2/x]e), v_2 \rangle^t. \) Otherwise, \(\langle \alpha \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \langle T''_2 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma_1}^t ((\alpha \Rightarrow T''_2)_{\sigma_2} v_2)\)
where \(\sigma_1 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}\{x:T''_2 \mid e\}}\) and \(\sigma_2 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T''_2)}\), by E_PRECHECK.

\((T'_1 = x:T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12})\):
\[
\begin{align*}
(T''_2 = B) & : \text{ or } x:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22} \text{ or } \forall \alpha. T_{22}: \text{ Incompatible; contradictory.} \\
(T''_2 = \{x:T''_2 \mid e\}) & : \text{ If } T'_1 = T''_2, \text{ then } \langle T'_1 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \langle \sigma(\{x:T''_2 \mid e\}), \sigma([v_2/x]e), v_2 \rangle^t \text{ by E_CHECK.} \text{ If not, then} \\
\langle T'_1 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 & \rightarrow \langle T''_2 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma_1}^t ((T'_1 \Rightarrow T''_2)_{\sigma_2} v_2), \text{ where } \sigma_1 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}\{x:T''_2 \mid e\}} \text{ and } \sigma_2 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T''_2)}, \text{ by E_PRECHECK.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\((T'_1 = \forall \alpha. T_{12})\):
\[
\begin{align*}
(T''_2 = B) & : \text{ or } x:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22} \text{ or } \forall \alpha. T_{22}: \text{ Incompatible; contradictory.} \\
(T''_2 = \forall \alpha. T_{22}) & : \text{ If } T'_1 = T''_2, \text{ then } \langle T'_1 \Rightarrow T''_2 \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \langle \sigma(\{x:T''_2 \mid e\}), \sigma([v_2/x]e), v_2 \rangle^t \text{ by E_CHECK.} \text{ If not, then} \\
\forall \alpha. T_{12} & \Rightarrow \forall \alpha. T_{22} \langle T'_1 \Rightarrow T''_2 \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \Lambda \alpha. \langle ([\alpha/\alpha] T_{11} \Rightarrow T_{22})_{\sigma}^t (v_2 \alpha) \rangle \text{ by E_FORALL.} \\
(T''_2 = \{x:T''_2 \mid e\}) & : \text{ If } T'_1 = T''_2, \text{ then } \langle T'_1 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \rightarrow \langle \sigma(\{x:T''_2 \mid e\}), \sigma([v_2/x]e), v_2 \rangle^t \text{ by E_CHECK.} \text{ If not, then} \\
\langle T'_1 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 & \rightarrow \langle T''_2 \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e\} \rangle_{\sigma_1}^t ((T'_1 \Rightarrow T''_2)_{\sigma_2} v_2) \text{ where } \sigma_1 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}\{x:T''_2 \mid e\}} \text{ and } \sigma_2 = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T''_2)} \text{, by E_PRECHECK.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\((T'_1 = \{x:T''_2 \mid e'\})\):
\[
\begin{align*}
(T''_2 = B) & : \text{ or } x:T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22} \text{ or } \forall \alpha. T_{22}: \text{ We see} \\
\langle \{x:T''_2 \mid e'\} \Rightarrow \{x:T''_2 \mid e'\} \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 & \rightarrow \langle T''_2 \Rightarrow T''_2 \rangle_{\sigma}^t v_2 \text{ where } \sigma' = \sigma|_{\text{AFV}(T''_2)} \text{, by E_FORGET.} \\
\end{align*}
\]
A.40 Lemma [Context and type well formedness (Lemma 5.16)]: (1) If \( \Gamma \vdash e : T \), then \( \Gamma \vdash \Gamma \) and \( \Gamma \vdash T \); and (2) if \( \Gamma \vdash T \) then \( \Gamma \).}

**Proof.** By induction on the typing and well formedness derivations. 

A.41 Theorem [Preservation (Theorem 5.17)]: If \( \emptyset \vdash e : T \) and \( e \rightarrow e' \), then \( \emptyset \vdash e' : T \).

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

(T_VAR): Contradictory—we cannot have \( \emptyset \vdash x : T \).

(T_CONST): \( \emptyset \vdash k : ty(k) \). Contradictory—values do not step.

(T_OP): \( \emptyset \vdash op(e_1, ..., e_n) : \sigma(T) \). By cases on the step taken:

1. \( (E \_REDUCE/E \_OP) \): \( op(v_1, ..., v_n) \rightarrow [op] (v_1, ..., v_n) \). This case is by assumption.
2. \( (E \_BLAME) \): \( e_i \rightarrow \emptyset \), and everything to its left is a value. By context and type well formedness (Lemma A.40), \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(T) \). So by (E \_BLAME), \( \emptyset \vdash \emptyset : \sigma(T) \).
3. \( (E \_COMPAT) \): Some \( e_i \rightarrow e_i' \). By the IH and (T \_OP), using T \_CONV to show that \( \sigma(T) \equiv \sigma'(T) \) (Lemma A.24).

(T \_ABS): \( \emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T_1 \vdash e_1 : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \). Contradictory—values do not step.

(T \_APP): \( \emptyset \vdash e_1 e_1 : (e_2 / x) \vdash e_2 : T_2 \). With \( \emptyset \vdash e_1 : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \) and \( \emptyset \vdash e_2 : T_1 \), by inversion. By cases on the step taken:

1. \( (E \_REDUCE/E \_BETA) \): \( \lambda x : T_1 \vdash e_1 \rightarrow [v_2 / x] e_1 \). First, we have \( \emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T_1 \vdash e_1 : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \). By inversion for lambdas (Lemma A.35), \( x : T_1 \vdash e_1 : T_2 \). Moreover, \( x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \equiv \{ x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \} \), which means \( T_2 \equiv T_2' \) (Lemma A.21).
2. By substitution, \( \emptyset \vdash [v_2 / x] e_1 \vdash [v_2 / x] T_2 \). We then see that \( [v_2 / x] T_2 \equiv [v_2 / x] T_2' \) (Lemma A.24), so T \_CONV completes this case.

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(E_REDUCE/E_REFL): \( \langle T \Rightarrow T \rangle_0 v_2 \rightarrow v_2 \). By cast inversion (Lemma A.36), we have \( \preceq \sigma(T) \rightarrow \sigma(T) \equiv T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \) and \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(T) \). In particular, we have \( \sigma(T) \equiv T_2 \) and \( \sigma(T) \equiv T_1 \) (Lemma A.21). By substitutivity of conversion (Lemma A.24), \( [v_2/x] \sigma(T) \equiv [v_2/x] T_2 \). Since \( \sigma(T) \) is closed, we really know that \( \sigma(T) \equiv [v_2/x] T_2 \).

By C_SYM and C_TRANS, we have \( T_1 \equiv \sigma(T) \equiv [v_2/x] T_2 \). By T_CONV on \( \emptyset \vdash v_2 : T_1 \), we have \( \emptyset \vdash v_2 : [v_2/x] T_2 \).

(E_REDUCE/E_FORGET): \( \langle \{ x \vdash T_1 \mid e \} \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 v_2 \rightarrow \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 \sigma v_2 \) where \( \sigma' = \sigma | AFV(T_1) \cup AFV(T_2) \). We have \( \sigma(T_1) = \sigma'(T_1) \) and \( \sigma(T_2) = \sigma'(T_2) \). We restate the typing judgment and its inversion:

\[
\emptyset \vdash \{ x : T_1 \mid e \} \Rightarrow T_2 ; \sigma \vdash v_2 : [v_2 / y] T_2'
\]

By cast inversion (Lemma A.36), we know that \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(T_1) \) from \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(\{ x : T_1 \mid e \}) \) and \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(T_2) \)—as well as \( \preceq \sigma(\{ x : T_1 \mid e \}) \rightarrow \sigma(T) = y : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \) and \( \{ x : T_1 \mid e \} \parallel T_2 \) and \( AFV(\sigma) \subseteq \emptyset \). Inverting this conversion (Lemma A.21), finding \( \sigma(\{ x : T_1 \mid e \}) = T_1 \) and \( \sigma(T_2) = T_2 \). Then by T_CONV and C_SYM, \( \emptyset \vdash v_2 : \sigma(\{ x : T_1 \mid e \}) \); by T_FORGET, \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(T_1) \).

By T_CAST, we have \( \emptyset \vdash \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 \sigma : y : \sigma(T_1) \rightarrow \sigma(T_2) \), with \( T_1 \parallel T_2 \) if \( \{ x : T_1 \mid e \} \parallel T_2 \) and \( AFV(\sigma') \subseteq AFV(T_2) \). (Note, however, that \( y \) does not appear in \( \sigma(T_2) \)—we write it to clarify the substitutions below.)

By T_APP, we find \( \emptyset \vdash \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 \sigma v_2 : [v_2/y] \sigma(T_2) \). Since \( \sigma(T_2) \equiv T_2 \), we have \( [v_2/y] \sigma(T_2) = [v_2/y] T_2 \) by Lemma A.24. We are done by T_CONV.

(E_REDUCE/E_PRECHECK):

\[
\begin{align*}
\emptyset & \vdash \langle T_1 \Rightarrow \{ x : T_2 \mid e \} \rangle_0 v_2 \longrightarrow \\
\emptyset & \vdash \langle T_2 \Rightarrow \{ x : T_2 \mid e \} \rangle_0 \sigma \vdash \langle \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 \sigma \rangle_0 v_2 \\
\emptyset & \vdash v_2 : T_1
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \sigma_1 = \sigma | AFV(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \) and \( \sigma_2 = \sigma | AFV(T_1) \cup AFV(T_2) \). We have \( \sigma(T_1) = \sigma_2(T_1) \) and \( \sigma(T_2) = \sigma_2(T_2) = \sigma(T_2) \) and \( \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) = \sigma_1(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \). We restate the typing judgment and its inversion:

\[
\emptyset \vdash \langle T_1 \Rightarrow \{ x : T_2 \mid e \} \rangle_0 v_2 : [v_2 / y] T_2'
\]

By cast inversion (Lemma A.36), \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(T_1) \) and \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \), and \( y : \sigma(T_1) \rightarrow \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \equiv y : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \). Also, \( T_1 \parallel \{ x : T_2 \mid e \} \) and \( AFV(\sigma) \subseteq \emptyset \).

By inversion on \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \), we find \( \emptyset \vdash \sigma(T_2) \). Next, \( T_1 \parallel T_2 \) if \( \{ x : T_2 \mid e \} \), and \( AFV(\sigma_2) \subseteq AFV(\sigma) \subseteq \emptyset \). Now by T_CAST, we find \( \emptyset \vdash \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 \sigma_2 : y : \sigma(T_1) \rightarrow \sigma(T_2) \). Note, however, that \( y \) does not occur in \( \sigma(T_2) \).

We can take the convertible function types and see that their parts are convertible: \( \sigma(T_1) = \sigma(T_2) \equiv T_1 \) and \( \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \equiv T_2 \). Using the first conversion, we find \( \emptyset \vdash v_2 : \sigma(T_1) \) by T_CONV. By T_APP, \( \emptyset \vdash \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 \sigma v_2 : [v_2 / y] \sigma(T_2) \), where \( [v_2/y] \sigma(T_2) = \sigma(T_2) \).

By reflexivity of compatibility (easily proved) and SIM_REFINER, \( \sigma(T_2) \parallel \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \). We have well formedness derivations for both types and \( AFV(\sigma_1) \subseteq AFV(\sigma) \) as well, so \( \emptyset \vdash \langle T_2 \Rightarrow \{ x : T_2 \mid e \} \rangle_0 \sigma : y : \sigma(T_2) \rightarrow \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \) by T_CAST. Again, \( y \) does not appear in \( \sigma(e) \) or \( \sigma(T_2) \). By T_APP, we have \( \emptyset \vdash \langle T_2 \Rightarrow \{ x : T_2 \mid e \} \rangle_0 \sigma v_2 : [v_2 / y] \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \).

Since \( y \) is not in \( \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) \), we can see:

\[
\langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_0 \sigma v_2 / y \rangle \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) = \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \}) = [v_2/y] \sigma(\{ x : T_2 \mid e \})
\]
By substitutivity of conversion (Lemma A.24), we have \([v_2/y][\sigma(x:T_2 \mid e)] = [v_2/y] T_2\). We can now apply T_CONV to find \(\emptyset \vdash (T_2 \Rightarrow (x:T_2 \mid e) T_2)_{\sigma_1} ((T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma_2} : (v_2/y) T_2)
\)

**E.REDUCE/E.CHECK**: \((T \Rightarrow (x:T \mid e)) y, v_2 \rightarrow (\sigma(x:T \mid e)), \sigma([v_2/x] e), v_2)\).

Without loss of generality, we can suppose that \(x\) is fresh for \(\sigma\). We restate the typing judgment with its inversion:

\[
\emptyset \vdash (T \Rightarrow (x:T \mid e))_\sigma v_2 : [v_2/y] T_2'
\]

By cast inversion (Lemma A.36), \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(x:T \mid e)\) and \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(T)\) and AFV(\(\sigma\)) \(\subseteq\) \(\emptyset\). By weakening (Lemma A.31), we have \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(x:T \mid e)\). By cast inversion (Lemma A.36), \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma([v_2/x] e)\). Moreover, \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(T)\) and C_SYM with the first conversion shows \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(T)\).

Using T_CONV and C_SYM with the first conversion shows \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(T)\). By inversion on \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(x:T \mid e)\), we see \(x:\sigma(T) \vdash \sigma(e) : \text{Bool}\). By term substitution (Lemma A.33), we find \(\emptyset \vdash [v_2/x][\sigma(e) : \text{Bool}\). Since \([v_2/x][\sigma = \sigma\), by Lemma A.4, \([v_2/x][\sigma = \sigma(v_2/x)(e)\). Finally, \(\sigma([v_2/x] e) \rightarrow^{\ast} \sigma(v_2/x)(e)\) by reflexivity (Lemma A.19).

T_CHECK (with WF_EMPTY) shows \(\emptyset \vdash (\sigma(x:T \mid e)), \sigma([v_2/x] e), v_2)_{\sigma} : \sigma(x:T \mid e)\). By substitutivity of conversion (Lemma A.24), \([v_2/y][\sigma(x:T \mid e)] = [v_2/y] T_2\). Since \(y\) does not occur in \(\sigma(x:T \mid e)\), we know that \(\emptyset \vdash \sigma(x:T \mid e)\) and \(\emptyset \vdash (\sigma(x:T \mid e)), \sigma([v_2/x] e), v_2)_{\sigma} : (v_2/y) T_2\) by C_SYM, and now \(\emptyset \vdash (\sigma(x:T \mid e)), \sigma([v_2/x] e), v_2)_{\sigma} : (v_2/y) T_2\) by T_CONV.

**E.REDUCE/E.FUN**:

\[
(x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \Rightarrow (x:T_2 \rightarrow T_2)) : v_2 \rightarrow
\lambda x: \sigma(T_1). \text{let } z : \sigma(T_1) = (T_2 \Rightarrow T_1)_{\sigma}, x \text{ in } ((\langle x/z \rangle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma} : (v_2/z))
\]

for some fresh variable \(z\), where \(\sigma_i = \sigma |_{AFV(T_{1i}) \cup AFV(T_{2i})} (i \in \{1, 2\})\). Without loss of generality, we can suppose that \(x\) is fresh for \(\sigma\). We have \(\sigma(T_{ji}) = \sigma_i(T_{ji}) (j \in \{1, 2\})\).

We restate the typing judgment with its inversion:

\[
\emptyset \vdash (x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \Rightarrow x:T_2 \rightarrow T_2)_{\sigma}, v_2 : [v_2/y] T_2'
\]

By cast inversion on the first derivation:

\[
\emptyset \vdash \sigma(x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \quad \emptyset \vdash \sigma(x:T_2 \rightarrow T_2)
\]

\[
x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \parallel x:T_2 \rightarrow T_2 \
\text{AFV}(\sigma) \subseteq \emptyset \
\neg \sigma(x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \Rightarrow \sigma(x:T_2 \rightarrow T_2) \equiv y: T_1 \rightarrow T_2'
\]

By inversion of this last (Lemma A.21),

\[
\sigma(x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2) \equiv T_1' \
\sigma(x:T_2 \rightarrow T_2) \equiv T_2'
\]

So by T_CONV and C_SYM, we have \(\emptyset \vdash v_2 : \sigma(x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2)\). By weakening (Lemma A.31), \(x: \sigma(T_1), x: \sigma(T_1) \vdash v_2 : \sigma(x:T_1 \rightarrow T_1)\).

By inversion of the well formedness of the function types:

\[
\emptyset \vdash \sigma(T_{1i}) \
x: \sigma(T_{1i}) \vdash \sigma(T_{1i}) \
\emptyset \vdash \sigma(T_{2i}) \
x: \sigma(T_{2i}) \vdash \sigma(T_{2i})
\]

By weakening (Lemma A.31), we find \(x: \sigma(T_{2i}) \vdash \sigma(T_{1i})\) and \(x: \sigma(T_{2i}) \vdash \sigma(T_{2i})\). By compatibility:

\[
T_{1i} \parallel T_{2i} \
T_{1i} \parallel T_{2i}
\]

Since \(AFV(\sigma) \subseteq AFV(\sigma) \subseteq \emptyset\), we have \(x: \sigma(T_{2i}) \vdash (T_{2i} \Rightarrow T_{1i})_{\sigma_i}, (\neg \sigma(T_{2i}) \rightarrow \sigma(T_{1i}))\) by T_CAST (compatibility is symmetric, per Lemma A.27). By T_APP and
By T.CAST and Lemma [A.28]
\[ x:\sigma(T_21), z:\sigma(T_{11}) \vdash \langle [z/x]T_{12} \Rightarrow T_{22}\rangle_{\sigma_2} : \langle y;z/x\rangle\sigma(T_{12}) \rightarrow \sigma(T_{22}) \]

Noting that \( y \) is free here. By T.APP:
\[ x:\sigma(T_21), z:\sigma(T_{11}) \vdash \langle [z/x]T_{12} \Rightarrow T_{22}\rangle_{\sigma_2} (v_2\, z) : [v_2\, z/y]T_{22} (= T_{22}) \]

Finally, by T.ABS and T.APP:
\[ \emptyset \vdash \lambda x:\sigma(T_21). \quad \text{let } z : \sigma(T_{11}) = \langle T_21 \Rightarrow T_{11}\rangle_{\sigma_1} x \text{ in } x:\sigma(T_21) \rightarrow \sigma(T_{22}) \]

since \( \langle T_21 \Rightarrow T_{11}\rangle_{\sigma_1} x/z\sigma(T_{22}) = \sigma(T_{22}). \)

Since \( y \) is not in \( x:\sigma(T_21) \rightarrow \sigma(T_{22}) \), we can see that \( x:\sigma(T_21) \rightarrow \sigma(T_{22}) = [v_2\, y/(x:\sigma(T_21)) \rightarrow \sigma(T_{22})]. \) Using this fact with substitutivity of conversion (Lemma A.24), we find \( x:\sigma(T_21) \rightarrow \sigma(T_{22}) \equiv [v_2\, y]T_2'. \) So—finally—by T_CONV we have:
\[ \emptyset \vdash \lambda x:\sigma(T_21). \quad \text{let } z : \sigma(T_{11}) = \langle T_21 \Rightarrow T_{11}\rangle_{\sigma_1} x \text{ in } \langle [z/x]T_{12} \Rightarrow T_{22}\rangle_{\sigma_2} (v_2\, z) : [v_2\, y]T_2' \]

(E.REDUCE/E.FORALL): \( \forall \alpha. T_1 \Rightarrow \forall \alpha. T_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \forall \alpha. T_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \forall \alpha. \langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \langle v \,\alpha \rangle \)

Without loss of generality, we can suppose that \( \alpha \) is fresh for \( \sigma \). We restate the typing and its inversion:
\[ \emptyset \vdash \forall \alpha. T_1 \Rightarrow \forall \alpha. T_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \forall \alpha. T_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \forall \alpha. \langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \langle v \,\alpha \rangle \]

By cast inversion (Lemma A.36):
\[ \emptyset \vdash \sigma(\forall \alpha. T_1) \quad \emptyset \vdash \sigma(\forall \alpha. T_2)
\forall \alpha. T_1 \parallel \forall \alpha. T_2 \quad \text{AFV}(\sigma) \subseteq \emptyset
_{-\alpha;\sigma(\forall \alpha. T_1)} \rightarrow \sigma(\forall \alpha. T_2) \equiv x : T_1' \rightarrow T_2'
\]

By inversion of this last \( \sigma(\forall \alpha. T_1) \equiv T_1' \) and \( \sigma(\forall \alpha. T_2) \equiv T_2' \) (Lemma A.21). By T_CONV and C_SYM, \( \emptyset \vdash v_2 : \sigma(\forall \alpha. T_1) = \forall \alpha. \sigma(T_1). \) By type variable weakening (Lemma A.32), WF.TVAR, and T.TAPP, we have:
\[ \alpha \vdash v_2 : \alpha : \langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1 \Rightarrow \sigma(\forall \alpha. T_1) \]

. Note that \( \sigma(\langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1) \) may be syntactically different from \( \sigma(T_1). \) By inversion of the universal type's well formedness, compatibility, type weakening (Lemma A.32), type substitution (Lemma A.34) and Lemma A.30:
\[ \alpha \vdash \sigma(\langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1) \quad \alpha \vdash \sigma(T_2) \quad \alpha \vdash \sigma(T_1 || T_2) \]

So by T.CAST, \( \alpha \vdash \langle \langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1 || T_2 \rangle_{\sigma_1} : \langle x : \sigma(\langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1) \rightarrow \sigma(T_2) \rangle_{\sigma_1}, \) noting that \( x \) does not occur in \( \sigma(T_2). \) By T.APP, \( \alpha \vdash \langle \langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_{\sigma_2} (v_2\, \alpha) : [v_2\, \alpha/x]\sigma(T_2) = \sigma(T_2). \)

By T.TABS, \( \emptyset \vdash \Lambda \alpha. \langle \langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_{\sigma_2} (v \,\alpha) : \forall \alpha. \sigma(T_2). \)

We know that \( \forall \alpha. \sigma(T_2) \equiv T_2', \) so by term substitutivity of conversion (Lemma A.24), \( [v_2/x]\forall \alpha. \sigma(T_2) \equiv [v_2/x]T_2'. \) Since \( x \) is not in \( \forall \alpha. \sigma(T_2) \), we know that \( \forall \alpha. \sigma(T_2) \equiv [v_2/x]T_2'. \) Now we can see by T_CONV that \( \emptyset \vdash \Lambda \alpha. \langle \langle \alpha/\alpha \rangle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_{\sigma_2} (v \,\alpha) : [v_2/x]T_2'. \)

(E.COMPAT): \( E \left[ e \right] \rightarrow E \left[ e' \right] \) when \( e \rightarrow e' \) By cases on \( E: \)
\[ (E = \left[ e_2, e_1 \rightarrow e \right]) \text{: By the IH and T.APP.} \]
Polymorphic Manifest Contracts

A.4. Parametricity

This section proves parametricity; an outline of the proof is described in Section 6.2.

We write \(R_{T, \theta, \delta}\) for \(\{(r_1, r_2) \mid r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta; \delta\}\).

A.42 Lemma (Term compositionality (Lemma 6.1)): If \(\theta_1(\delta_1(e)) \rightarrow^* v_1\) and \(\theta_2(\delta_2(e)) \rightarrow^* v_2\) then \(r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta; \delta((v_1, v_2)/x)\) iff \(r_1 \sim r_2 : [e/x] T; \theta; \delta\).

Proof. By induction on the (simple) structure of \(T\), proving both directions simultaneously. We treat the case where \(r_1 = r_2 = \uparrow l\) separately from the induction, since it
is the same easy proof in all cases: \( \uparrow l \sim \uparrow l : T; \theta; \delta \) irrespective of \( T \) and \( \delta \). So for the rest of proof, we know \( r_1 = v_1 \) and \( r_2 = v_2 \). Only the refinement case is interesting.

\( \langle T = \{ y:T' | e \} \rangle \): We show both directions simultaneously, where \( x \neq y \), i.e., \( y \) is fresh. By the IH for \( T' \), we know that

\[
v_1 \sim v_2 : T'; \theta; \delta([e_1, e_2]/x) \text{ iff } v_1 \sim v_2 : [e/x] T'; \theta; \delta.
\]

It remains to show that the values satisfy their refinements.

That is, we must show:

\[
\theta_1(\delta_1([v_1/y]/e_1)) \rightarrow^* \text{ true} \iff \theta_1(\delta_1([v_1/y]/e/x)) \rightarrow^* \text{ true}
\]

\[
\theta_2(\delta_2([v_2/y]/e_1)) \rightarrow^* \text{ true} \iff \theta_2(\delta_2([v_2/y]/e/x)) \rightarrow^* \text{ true}
\]

So let:

\[
\sigma_1 = \theta_1 \delta_1 [[e_1]/x, v_1/y] \rightarrow^* \theta_1 \delta_1 [[e_1/x, v_1/y] = \sigma'_1
\]

\[
\sigma_2 = \theta_2 \delta_2 [[e_2]/x, v_2/y] \rightarrow^* \theta_2 \delta_2 [[e_2/x, v_2/y] = \sigma'_2
\]

We have \( \sigma_1 \rightarrow^* \sigma'_1 \) by reflexivity except for \( \delta_1(e) \rightarrow^* e_1 \), which we have by assumption; likewise, we have \( \sigma_2 \rightarrow^* \sigma'_2 \). Then \( \sigma_1(e') \) and \( \sigma'_1(e') \) coterminate (Lemma A.16), and we are done. \( \square \)

**A.43 Lemma [Term Weakening/Strengthening]:** If \( x \notin T \), then \( r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta; \delta([e_1, e_2]/x) \) iff \( r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta; \delta \).

**Proof.** Similar to Lemma A.42 \( \square \)

**A.44 Lemma [Type Weakening/Strengthening]:** If \( \alpha \notin T \), then \( r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T', \theta, \delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta \) iff \( r_1 \sim r_2 : [T'/\alpha] T; \theta; \delta \).

**Proof.** Similar to Lemma A.42 \( \square \)

**A.45 Lemma [Type compositionality (Lemma 6.2)]:**

\( r_1 \sim r_2 : T; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T', \theta, \delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta \) iff \( r_1 \sim r_2 : [T'/\alpha] T; \theta; \delta \).

**Proof.** By induction on the (simple) structure of \( T \), proving both directions simultaneously. As for Lemma A.42, we treat the case where \( r_1 = r_2 = \uparrow l \) separately from the induction, since it is the same easy proof in all cases: \( \uparrow l \sim \uparrow l : T; \theta; \delta \) irrespective of \( T \) and \( \delta \). So for the rest of proof, we know \( r_1 = v_1 \) and \( r_2 = v_2 \). Here, the interesting case is for function types, where we must deal with some asymmetries in the definition of the logical relation. We also include the case for quantified types.

\( (\Rightarrow) \) Given \( v_1 \sim v_2 : (x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2); \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T'}, \theta, \delta, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta \), we wish to show that \( v_1 \sim v_2 : [T'/\alpha](x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2); \theta; \delta \). Let \( v'_1 \sim v'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_1; \theta; \delta(x v'_1 v'_2 /x) \). By the IH on \( T_1 \), \( v'_1 \sim v'_2 : T_1; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T', \theta, \delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta(x v'_1 v'_2 /x). \)

These normalize to \( r'_1 \sim r'_2 : T_2; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T', \theta, \delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta(x v'_1 v'_2 /x). \)

Since \( x \notin T' \), Lemma A.43 gives \( R_{T', \theta, \delta} = R_{T', \theta, \delta}(x v'_1 v'_2 /x) \) and so

\[
r'_1 \sim r'_2 : T_2; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T', \theta, \delta}(x v'_1 v'_2 /x), \theta_1(\delta_1([v'_1/x] T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2([v'_2/x] T'))]; \delta(x v'_1 v'_2 /x).
\]

By the IH on \( T_2 \), \( r'_1 \sim r'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_2; \theta; \delta(x v'_1 v'_2 /x). \) By expansion, \( v_1 v'_1 \sim v_2 v'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_2; \theta; \delta(x v'_1 v'_2 /x). \)

\( (\Leftarrow) \) This case is similar: Given \( v_1 \sim v_2 : [T'/\alpha](x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2); \theta; \delta \), we wish to show that \( v_1 \sim v_2 : (x:T_1 \rightarrow T_2); \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R_{T', \theta, \delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta \). Let \( v'_1 \sim v'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_1; \theta; \delta(x v'_1 v'_2 /x). \)

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\[ T_1: \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta. \] We must show that
\[ v_1 v'_1 \simeq v_2 v'_2 : T_2; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta((v_1', v_2'); x). \]
By the IH on \( T_1, v'_1 \sim v'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_2; \theta, \delta((v_1', v_2'); x). \) These normalize to \( v'_1 \simeq v'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_2; \theta, \delta((v_1', v_2'); x). \)
By the IH on \( T_2,\]
\[ r'_1 \simeq r'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_2; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta((v_1', v_2'); x). \]
Since \( x \not\in T', \) Lemma \ref{A.43} gives
\[ r'_1 \simeq r'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_2; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta((v_1', v_2'); x). \]
Finally, by expansion
\[ v_1 v'_1 \simeq v_2 v'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_2; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta((v_1', v_2'); x). \]
(\( T = \forall \alpha'. T_0)\): There are two cases:

(\(\Rightarrow\)): Given \( v_1 \sim v_2 : \forall \alpha'. T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta), we wish to show that \( v_1 \sim v_2 : \forall \alpha'. ([T'/\alpha] T_0); \theta, \delta. \) Let a relation \( R \) and closed types \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) be given. By assumption, we know that \( v_1 T_1 \sim v_2 T_2 : T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta. \) They normalize to \( r'_1 \sim r'_2 : T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta \rightarrow R, T_1, T_2); \theta, \delta. \) By the IH, \( r'_1 \sim r'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T_1, T_2); \delta. \) By expansion, \( v_1 T_1 \sim v_2 T_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T_1, T_2); \theta, \delta. \) Then, \( v_1 \sim v_2 : \forall \alpha'. ([T'/\alpha] T_0); \theta, \delta. \)

(\(\Leftarrow\)): This case is similar: given \( v_1 \sim v_2 : \forall \alpha'. ([T'/\alpha] T_0); \theta, \delta, \) we wish to show that \( v_1 \sim v_2 : \forall \alpha'. T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta. \) Let a relation \( R \) and closed types \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) be given. By assumption, we know that \( v_1 T_1 \sim v_2 T_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T_1, T_2); \theta, \delta. \) They normalize to \( r'_1 \sim r'_2 : [T'/\alpha] T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T_1, T_2); \theta, \delta. \) By the IH, \( r'_1 \sim r'_2 : T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T_1, T_2); \theta, \delta. \) By expansion, \( v_1 T_1 \sim v_2 T_2 : T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T_1, T_2); \theta, \delta. \) Then, \( v_1 \sim v_2 : \forall \alpha'. T_0; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T',\theta,\delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T'))], \theta_2(\delta_2(T'))]; \delta. \)

\[ \square \]

A.46 Lemma [Convertibility (Lemma \ref{6.3})]: If \( T_1 \equiv T_2 \) then \( r_1 \sim r_2 : T_1; \theta, \delta \) iff \( r_1 \sim r_2 : T_2; \theta, \delta \).

Proof. By induction on the conversion relation, leaving \( \theta \) and \( \delta \) general. The case where \( r_1 = r_2 = \perp I \) is immediate, so we only need to consider the case where \( r_1 = v_1 \) and \( r_2 = v_2 \).
(C \_VAR): It must be that \( T_1 = T_2 = \alpha \), so we are done immediately.
(C \_BASE): It must be that \( T_1 = T_2 = B \), so we are done immediately.
(C \_REPLACE): We have that \( T_1 = \{ x : T'_1 | \sigma_1(\alpha) \} \) and \( T_2 = \{ x : T'_2 | \sigma_2(\alpha) \} \), where \( T'_1 \equiv T'_2 \) and \( \sigma_1 \mapsto \sigma_2 \).

By coterminality (Lemma \ref{A.16}):
\[ v_1/x[\theta_1(\delta_1(\sigma_1(\alpha)))] \rightarrow^* \text{true iff } v_1/x[\theta_1(\delta_1(\sigma_2(\alpha)))] \rightarrow^* \text{true} \]
\[ v_2/x[\theta_2(\delta_2(\sigma_1(\alpha)))] \rightarrow^* \text{true iff } v_2/x[\theta_2(\delta_2(\sigma_2(\alpha)))] \rightarrow^* \text{true}. \]

We have \( v_1/x[\theta_1(\delta_i(\sigma_j(\alpha)))) \rightarrow^* \text{true iff } v_2/x[\theta_1(\delta_2(\sigma_i(\alpha))) \rightarrow^* \text{true for } i, j \in \{1, 2\} \) since all substitutions here are closing.
(C_FUN): We have that $T_1 = x : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \equiv x : T_{21} \rightarrow T_{22} = T_2$.

Let $v'_1 \sim v'_2 : T_{21}; \theta; \delta$ be given; we must show that $v_1 v'_1 \simeq v_2 v'_2 : T_{22}; \theta; \delta((v'_1, v'_2)/x)$.

By the IH, we know that $v'_1 \sim v'_2 : T_{11}; \theta; \delta$, so we know that $v_1 v'_1 \simeq v_2 v'_2 : T_{12}; \theta; \delta((v'_1, v'_2)/x)$. We are done by another application of the IH.

The other direction is similar.

(C_FORALL): We have that $T_1 = \forall \alpha . T'_1 \equiv \forall \alpha . T'_2 = T_2$.

Let $R, T,$ and $T'$ be given. We must show that $v_1 T \simeq v_2 T' : T_2 \Rightarrow T; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T, T']; \delta$.

We know that $v_1 T \simeq v_2 T' : T'_1; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R, T, T']; \delta$, so we are done by the IH.

The other direction is similar.

(C_SYM): By the IH.

(C_TRANS): By the IHs. □

A.47 Lemma [Cast reflexivity (Lemma 6.4)]: If $\vdash \Gamma \vdash T_1 \equiv T_2$ and $\Gamma \vdash \sigma(T_1) \simeq \sigma(T_2)$ : $\sigma$ and $\Gamma \vdash \sigma(T_2) \simeq \sigma(T_1)$ : $\sigma$ and $\text{AFV}(\sigma) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Gamma)$, then $\Gamma \vdash (\Gamma \Rightarrow T_2) : \sigma \simeq (\Gamma \Rightarrow T_1) ; \theta; \delta$.

PROOF. By induction on $\text{cc}(T_1 \Rightarrow T_2)$. We omit the majority of this proof, but we leave in the case when $T_1 = T_2$ to highlight the need for the E_REFL reduction rule.

$(T_1 = T_2)$: Given $\Gamma \vdash \theta; \delta$, we wish to show that $\langle \theta_1(\delta_1(T_1)) \Rightarrow \theta_2(\delta_2(T_1)) \rangle_\sigma : \theta(\delta_1(T_1)) \Rightarrow \theta(\delta_2(T_1)) : \sigma(T_1 \Rightarrow T_1)$.

Let $v_1 \sim v_2 : \sigma(T_1); \theta; \delta$. We must show that

\[ \langle \theta_1(\delta_1(T_1)) \Rightarrow \theta_2(\delta_2(T_1)) \rangle_\sigma : v_1 \simeq \langle \theta_2(\delta_2(T_1)) \Rightarrow \theta_2(\delta_2(T_1)) \rangle_\sigma : v_2 : \sigma(T_1); \theta; \delta((v_1, v_2)/z) \]

for fresh $z$. By E_REFL, these normalize to $v_1 \sim v_2 : \sigma(T_1); \theta; \delta[(v_1, v_2)/z]$. Lemma A.43 finishes the case. □

A.48 Theorem [Parametricity (Theorem 6.5)]: (1) If $\Gamma \vdash e : T$ then $\Gamma \vdash e \simeq e : T$, and

(2) If $\Gamma \vdash T$ then $\Gamma \vdash T \simeq T : *$.

PROOF. By simultaneous induction on the derivations with case analysis on the last rule used.

(T_VAR): Let $\Gamma \vdash \theta; \delta$. We wish to show that $\theta_1(\delta_1(x)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(x)) : T; \theta; \delta$, which follows from the assumption.

(T_CONST): By the assumption that constants are assigned correct types.

(T_OP): By the assumption that operators are assigned correct types (and the IHs for the operator’s arguments).

(T_ABS): We have $e = \lambda x : T_1. e_{12}$ and $T = x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ and $\Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} : T_2$. Let $\Gamma \vdash \theta; \delta$. We wish to show that $\theta_1(\lambda x : T_1. e_{12}) \simeq \theta_2(\lambda x : T_1. e_{12}) : (x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2); \theta; \delta$.

Let $v_1 \sim v_2 : T_1; \theta; \delta$. We must show that

\[ (\lambda x : \theta_1(\delta_1(T_1)), \theta_1(\delta_1(e_{12}))) v_1 \simeq (\lambda x : \theta_2(\delta_2(T_1)), \theta_2(\delta_2(e_{12}))) v_2 : T_2; \theta; \delta((v_1, v_2)/x) \]

Since

\[ (\lambda x : \theta_1(\delta_1(T_1)), \theta_1(\delta_1(e_{12}))) v_1 \rightarrow [v_1/x] \theta_1(\delta_1(e_{12})) \]

\[ (\lambda x : \theta_2(\delta_2(T_1)), \theta_2(\delta_2(e_{12}))) v_2 \rightarrow [v_2/x] \theta_2(\delta_2(e_{12})) \],

it suffices to show

\[ [v_1/x] \theta_1(\delta_1(e_{12})) \simeq [v_2/x] \theta_2(\delta_2(e_{12})) : T_2; \theta; \delta((v_1, v_2)/x). \]
By the IH, $\Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash e_{12} \simeq e_{12} : T_2$. The fact that $\Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash \theta ; \delta[(v_1, v_2)/x]$ finishes the case.

(T_APP): We have $e = e_1 e_2$ and $\Gamma \vdash e_1 : x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ and $\Gamma \vdash e_2 : T_1$ and $T = [e_2/x] T_2$. Let $\Gamma \not\vdash \theta ; \delta$. We wish to show that
\[
\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1 e_2)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_1 e_2)) : \Gamma \vdash [e_2/x] T_2 ; \theta ; \delta.
\]

By the IH,
\[
\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_1)) : x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 ; \theta, \delta, \text{ and}
\theta_1(\delta_1(e_2)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_2)) : T_1 ; \theta, \delta.
\]

These normalize to $r_{11} \sim r_{12} : x : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 ; \theta, \delta$ and $r_{21} \sim r_{22} : T_1 ; \theta, \delta$, respectively. If $r_{11} = r_{12} = \uparrow l$ or $r_{21} = r_{22} = \uparrow l$ for some $l$, then we are done:
\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1 e_2)) & \rightarrow^* \uparrow l \\
\theta_2(\delta_2(e_1 e_2)) & \rightarrow^* \uparrow l.
\end{align*}
\]

So let $r_{ij} = v_{ij}$. By definition,
\[
v_{11} v_{21} \simeq v_{12} v_{22} : T_2 ; \theta ; \delta[(v_{21}, v_{22})/x].
\]

These normalize to $r_1' \sim r_2' : T_2 ; \theta ; \delta[(v_{21}, v_{22})/x]$. By Lemma A.42
\[
r_1' \sim r_2' : [e_2/x] T_2 ; \theta, \delta.
\]

By expansion, we can then see
\[
\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1 e_2)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_1 e_2)) : [e_2/x] T_2 ; \theta, \delta.
\]

(T_TABS): We have $e = \Lambda \alpha. e_0$ and $T = \forall \alpha. T_0$ and $\Gamma, \alpha \vdash e_0 : T_0$. Let $\Gamma \vdash \theta ; \delta$. We wish to show that
\[
\theta_1(\delta_1(\Lambda \alpha. e_0)) \sim \theta_2(\delta_2(\Lambda \alpha. e_0)) : \forall \alpha. T_0 ; \theta, \delta.
\]

Let $R, T_1, T_2$ be given. We must show that
\[
\theta_1(\delta_1(\Lambda \alpha. e_0)) T_1 \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(\Lambda \alpha. e_0)) T_2 : T_0 ; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R, T_1, T_2] ; \delta.
\]

Since
\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_1(\delta_1(\Lambda \alpha. e_0)) T_1 & \rightarrow [T_1/\alpha] \theta_1(\delta_1(e_0)) \\
\theta_2(\delta_2(\Lambda \alpha. e_0)) T_2 & \rightarrow [T_2/\alpha] \theta_2(\delta_2(e_0))
\end{align*}
\]

it suffices to show that
\[
[T_1/\alpha] \theta_1(\delta_1(e_0)) \simeq [T_2/\alpha] \theta_2(\delta_2(e_0)) : T_0 ; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R, T_1, T_2] ; \delta.
\]

Since $\Gamma, \alpha \vdash \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R, T_1, T_2] ; \delta$, the IH finishes the case with $\Gamma, \alpha \vdash e_0 : T_0$.

(T_TAPP): We have $e = e_1 T_2$ and $\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \forall \alpha. T_0$ and $\Gamma \vdash T_2$ and $T = [T_2/\alpha] T_0$. Let $\Gamma \vdash \theta ; \delta$. We wish to show that
\[
\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1 T_2)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_1 T_2)) : [T_2/\alpha] T_0 ; \theta, \delta.
\]

By the IH,
\[
\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_1)) : \forall \alpha. T_0 ; \theta, \delta.
\]

These normalize to $r_1 \sim r_2 : \forall \alpha. T_0 ; \theta, \delta$. If both results are blame, $\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1 T_2))$ and $\theta_2(\delta_2(e_1 T_2))$ also normalize to blame, and we are done. So let $r_1 = v_1$ and $r_2 = v_2$. Then, by definition,
\[
v_1 T_1' \simeq v_2 T_2' : T_0 ; \theta[\alpha \rightarrow R, T_1', T_2'] ; \delta
\]
for any $R, T'_1, T'_2$. In particular,
$$v_1 \theta_1(\delta_1(T_2)) \simeq v_2 \theta_2(\delta_2(T_2)) : T_0 ; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T_2, \theta, \delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T_2)), \theta_2(\delta_2(T_2))]; \delta.$$  

These normalize to
$$r'_1 \sim r'_2 : T_0 ; \theta[\alpha \mapsto R_{T_2, \theta, \delta}, \theta_1(\delta_1(T_2)), \theta_2(\delta_2(T_2))]; \delta.$$  

By Lemma A.45, $r'_1 \sim r'_2 : [T_2/\alpha]T_0 ; \theta ; \delta$. By expansion,
$$\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1 \rightarrow \cdot \rightarrow) T_2) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_1 \rightarrow \cdot \rightarrow) T_2) : [T_2/\alpha]T_0 ; \theta ; \delta.$$  

(T_CAST): We have $e = \langle T_1 \Rightarrow T_2 \rangle_{\sigma}$ and $\Gamma \vdash T_1 \parallel T_2$ and $\Gamma \vdash T_1$, $\Gamma \vdash T_2$ and $T = T_1 \Rightarrow T_2$. By the IH, $\Gamma \vdash T_3 \bowtie T_3 : *$ and $\Gamma \vdash T_2 \bowtie T_2 : *$. By Lemma A.47
$$\Gamma \vdash [T_1 \Rightarrow T_2]_{\sigma} \bowtie [T_1 \Rightarrow T_2]_{\sigma} : \sigma(T_1 \Rightarrow T_2),$$  

which is exactly what we were looking for.

(T_CHECK): We have $e = \langle \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}, e_2, v\rangle^l$ and $\emptyset \vdash v : T_1$ and $\emptyset \vdash e_2 : \text{Bool}$, $\emptyset \vdash \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}$ and $[v/x]e_1 \mapsto^* e_2$ and $T = \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}$. Let $\Gamma \vdash \theta ; \delta$. We wish to show that
$$\theta_1(\delta_1(\{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}, e_2, v^l)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(\{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}, e_2, v^l)) : \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}; \theta ; \delta.$$  

By the IH,
$$\theta_1(\delta_1(e_2)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(e_2)) : \text{Bool}; \theta ; \delta$$
and these normalize to the same result. If the result is false or $\uparrow l'$ for some $l'$, then, for some $l''$,
$$\theta_1(\delta_1(\{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}, e_2, v^l)) \mapsto^* \uparrow l''$$
$$\theta_2(\delta_2(\{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}, e_2, v^l)) \mapsto^* \uparrow l''.$$  

Otherwise, the result is true. Then, by the IH, $v \sim v : T_1 ; \theta ; \delta$ and $\emptyset \vdash \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\} \bowtie \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\} : *$. By definition,
$$[v/x]\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1)) \simeq [v/x]\theta_2(\delta_2(e_1)) : \text{Bool}; \theta ; \delta[(v, v)/x].$$  

Then, we have
$$[v/x]\theta_1(\delta_1(e_1)) = [v/x]e_1 \mapsto^* \text{true}$$
$$[v/x]\theta_2(\delta_2(e_1)) = [v/x]e_1 \mapsto^* \text{true}.$$  

By definition, $v \bowtie v : \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}; \theta ; \delta$. By expansion,
$$\theta_1(\delta_1(\{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}, e_2, v^l)) \simeq \theta_2(\delta_2(\{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}, e_2, v^l)) : \{x : T_1 \mid e_1\}; \theta ; \delta.$$  

(T_CONV): By Lemma A.48
(T_EXACT): We have $e = v$ and $\emptyset \vdash v : T$ and $\emptyset \vdash \{x : T_0 \mid e_0\}$ and $[v/x]e_0 \mapsto^* \text{true}$ and $T = \{x : T_0 \mid e_0\}$. Let $\Gamma \vdash \theta ; \delta$. We wish to show that
$$v \sim v : \{x : T_0 \mid e_0\}; \theta ; \delta.$$  

By the IH, $v \sim v : T_0 ; \theta ; \delta$. Since $\emptyset \vdash \{x : T_0 \mid e_0\}$, the only free variable in $e_0$ is $x$ and
$$[v/x]\theta_1(\delta_1(e_0)) = [v/x]e_0 \mapsto^* \text{true}$$
$$[v/x]\theta_2(\delta_2(e_0)) = [v/x]e_0 \mapsto^* \text{true}.$$  

By definition, $v \sim v : \{x : T_0 \mid e_0\}; \theta ; \delta$.  

(T_FORGET): By the IH, $\emptyset \vdash v \bowtie v : \{x : T \mid e\}$, which implies $\Gamma \vdash v \bowtie v : T$.  

(WF_BASE): Trivial.
(WF_TVAR): Trivial.
(WF_FUN): By the IH.
(WF_FORALL): By the IH.
(WF_REFINE): By the IH.