# A semantic basis for Quest 

LUCA CARDELLI<br>Digital Equipment Corporation Systems Research Center, 130 Lytton Ave, Palo Alto Ca 94301 (USA)

GIUSEPPE LONGO ${ }^{1}$
LIENS (CNRS), Dept. de Mathématique et Informatique, Ecole Normale Supérieure, 45, Rue d'Ulm 75005 Paris (France)


#### Abstract

Quest is a programming language based on impredicative type quantifiers and subtyping within a three-level structure of kinds, types and type operators, and values. The semantics of Quest is rather challenging. In particular, difficulties arise when we try to model simultaneously features such as contravariant function spaces, record types, subtyping, recursive types and fixpoints.

In this paper we describe in detail the type inference rules for Quest, and give them meaning using a partial equivalence relation model of types. Subtyping is interpreted as in previous work by Bruce and Longo (1989), but the interpretation of some aspects - namely subsumption, power kinds, and record subtyping - is novel. The latter is based on a new encoding of record types.

We concentrate on modelling quantifiers and subtyping; recursion is the subject of current work.


## Capsule review

The language Quest is essentially an extension of Girard's system $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{\omega}}$ with subtyping and recursive types and terms. The paper describes a semantic model for Quest, not taking recursion into account however. The model is based on partial equivalence relations (p.e.r.'s). The paper applies and extends the work reported in [Longo, Moggi 88] and [Bruce, Longo 89] (see the paper for references), but differs from it in aspects concerning subsumption, power kinds and records.

The construction of models for higher-order typed lambda calculi is currently an active research area. The p.e.r.-model approach seems to be a viable one. The paper shows how subtyping and coercion can be interpreted in such a model in an elegant and convincing manner. Considering the relevance of these notions for modelling inheritance, the work reported is a useful contribution to the theory of functional object-oriented programming languages.

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## 1 Introduction

Type theory provides a general framework for studying many advanced programming features including polymorphism, abstract types, modules and inheritance (see Cardelli and Wegner, 1985 for a survey). The Quest programming language (Cardelli, 1989) attempts to take advantage of this general framework to integrate such programming constructs into a flexible and consistent whole.

In this paper we focus on the Quest type system by describing and modelling its most interesting features. At the core of this system is a three-level structure of kinds, types (and type operators) and values. Within this structure we accommodate impredicative type quantifiers and subtyping. Universal type quantifiers can then be used to model type operators, polymorphic functions and ordinary higher-order functions. Existential type quantifiers can model abstract types. Subtyping supports (multiple) inheritance, and in combination with quantifiers results in bounded-
polymorphic functions and partially abstract types. Subtyping is realized in a uniform way throughout the system via a notion of power kind, where $\mathscr{P}(\mathrm{A})$ is the kind of all subtypes of $A$.

Formally, Quest is an extension of Girard's F $\omega$ (Girard, 1972) with additional kind structure, subtyping structure, recursive types, and fixpoints at all types. Alternatively, it is a higher-order extension of the calculus studied in Curien and Ghelli (1990), which is the kernel of the calculus in Cardelli and Wegner, 1985). Recursion is necessary to model programming activities adequately, and causes us to abandon the Curry-Howard isomorphism between formulas and types.

New kinds and types can be easily integrated into the basic Quest system to model various programming aspects. For example, basic types can be added to model primitive values and their relations (Mitchell, 1984); record and variant types can be introduced to model object-oriented programming (Cardelli, 1988; Wand, 1989; Cardelli and Mitchell, 1989; Cook et al., 1990); and set types can be introduced to model relational data bases (Ohori, 1987). In all these cases, subtyping performs a major role. Many of these additional type constructions can, however, be encoded in a very small core system, which is the one we investigate in this paper.

The type rules we consider are very powerful, but not particularly complex or unintuitive from a programming perspective. This contrasts with the semantics of Quest, which is rather challenging. In particular, difficulties arise when we try to model simultaneously features such as contravariant function spaces, record types, subtyping, recursive types and fixpoints. In this paper we concentrate on modelling quantifiers and subtyping; recursive types and values are an active subject of research (Amadio, 1989; Abadi and Plotkin, 1990; Freyd et al., 1990).

The model we present for such advanced constructions is particularly simple; the basic concepts are built on top of elementary set and recursion theory. This model has been investigated recently within the context of Category Theory, in view of the relevance of Kleene's realizability interpretation for Category Theory and Logic. Our presentation applies and further develops, in plain terms and with no general categorical notions, the work carried on in Longo and Moggi (1988) and Bruce and Longo (1989). Our work is also indebted to that by Amadio, Mitchell, Freyd, Rosolini, Scedrov, Luo and others (see references).

The presentation of the formal semantics is divided into two parts, corresponding to Sections 4 and 5, where we discuss variants of the language with and without explicit coercions. However, the underlying mathematical structure is the same and the interpretations are strictly related.

We conclude this section with a few examples, both to introduce our notation and to provide some motivation.

The polymorphic identity function below introduces the universal quantifier over types ( $\Pi$ ) along with $\lambda$-abstraction over types ( $\lambda\left(X_{: \pi} T Y P E\right)$ ) and type application, and the function space operator $(\rightarrow)$ along with $\lambda$-abstraction over values $(\lambda(x: X))$ and value application:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { let } i d \Pi(X: T Y P E)(X \rightarrow X)=\lambda(X: T Y P E) \lambda(x: X) x \\
& \text { id }(\operatorname{Int})(3)=3: \text { Int. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Abstract types are obtained by existential quantification over types $(\Sigma)$（Mitchell and Plotkin，1985）．（As is well known，these existential quantifiers，with their associated primitives，can be defined in terms of $\Pi$ and $\rightarrow$ ．Similarly，cartesian product（ $\times$ ），can be defined from $\Pi$ and $\rightarrow$ ．）The following might be the type of a package providing an abstract type $X$ ，a constant of type $X$ ，and an operation from $X$ to Int：

$$
\Sigma(X: T Y P E)(X \times(X \rightarrow I n t)) .
$$

Bounded universal quantifiers allow us to write functions that are polymorphic with respect to all the subtypes（s：）of a given type．This is particularly useful for subtypes of record types，which are generally meant to model object types in object－ oriented programming languages．Here 《age：Int》 is the type of records that contain a field age of type Int，and $\langle$ age $=5$ ，color $=$ red $\rangle$ is a value of type 《age：Int， color：Color $\rangle$ ，which is a subtype of $<a g e: I n t\rangle$ ．The following ageOf function computes the age of any member of a subtype of $\langle a g e: I n t\rangle$ ．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { let ageOf: } \Pi(X \ll \text { age:Int }\rangle)(X \rightarrow \text { Int })= \\
& \quad \lambda(X<\varangle \text { age:Int } 》) \lambda(x: X) x \text { age } \\
& \text { ageOf }(\mathbb{a g e : I n t , \text { color } : \text { Color } 》 ) ( \langle \text { age } = 5 , \text { color } = \text { red } \rangle ) = 5 : I n t .} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Bounded existential quantifiers are useful for representing types that are partially abstract，in the sense that they are known to be subtypes of a given type，but are not completely specified：

$$
\Sigma(X<: \varangle a \operatorname{lag}: \operatorname{Int}\rangle) \ldots
$$

Bounded existential quantifiers also model types that are subtypes of abstract or partially abstract types：

$$
\Sigma(X \lll \text { age:Int } \gg) \Sigma(Y<: X) \ldots
$$

These last two features are present，in specific forms，in Modula－3（Cardelli et al．， 1988）．

We refer to Cardelli（1989）for detailed programming examples that use the full power of the system．

The paper is organized as follows．Section 2 describes the formal theory of Quest， including its typing rules，and can be understood on its own．Sections 3， 4 and 5 are more technical，and are concerned with semantics．Section 3 provides background material on partial equivalence relation（p．e．r．）models，and more specific material on subtyping．Section 4 gives meaning to Quest ${ }_{c}$（with explicit coercions），while section 5 gives meaning to Quest（with implicit subsumption）．

## 2 Quest rules

In this section we discuss the typing and reduction rules for Quest．We use $K, L, M$ for kinds；$A, B, C$ for types and operators；$a, b, c$ for values；$X, Y, Z$ for type and operator variables；and $x, y, z$ for value variables．We also use $\mathscr{T}$ for the kind of all types，and $\mathscr{P}(B)$ for the kind of subtypes of $B$ ．In general，we use capitalized names for kinds and types，and lower－case names for values．

### 2.1 Terms

The pre-terms are described by the following syntax. Only those pre-terms that are validated by the rules in the following subsections are legal terms:

| $K:=$ | Kinds |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathscr{P}(A)$ | the kind of all subtypes of a type |
| $\Pi(X: K) L$ | the kind of operators between kinds |
| $A:=$ | Types and Operators |
| $X$ | type and operator variables |
| $T o p$ | the supertype of all types |
| $\Pi(X: K) B$ | polymorphic types |
| $A \rightarrow B$ | function spaces |
| $\lambda(X: K) B$ | operators |
| $B(A)$ | operator application |
| $\mu(X) A$ | recursive types |
| $a:=$ | Values |
| $x$ | value variables |
| $t o p$ | the distinguished value of type Top |
| $\lambda(X: K) b$ | polymorphic functions |
| $b(A)$ | polymorphic instantiation |
| $\lambda(x: A) b$ | functions |
| $b(a)$ | function application |
| $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a)$ | coercions |
| $\mu(x: A) a$ | recursive values |

The following abbreviations will be used:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\mathscr{T} & \equiv \mathscr{P}(\text { Top }) & & \text { the kind of all types } \\
\Pi(X) L & \equiv \Pi(X: \mathscr{T}) L & & \Pi(X<A) L \equiv \Pi(X: \mathscr{P}(A)) L \\
\Pi(X) B \equiv \Pi(X: \mathscr{T}) B & & \Pi(X<A) B \equiv \Pi(X: \mathscr{P}(A)) B \\
\lambda(X) B \equiv \lambda(X: \mathscr{T}) B & & \lambda(X<A) B \equiv \lambda(X: \mathscr{P}(A)) B \\
\lambda(X) b \equiv \lambda(X: \mathscr{T}) b & & \lambda(X<A) b \equiv \lambda(X: \mathscr{P}(A)) b
\end{array}
$$

From the abbreviations above we can see that this calculus includes all the terms of F $\omega$ (Girard, 1972) and Fun (Cardelli and Wegner, 1985).

### 2.2 Judgments

The formal rules are based on eight primitive judgment forms plus three derived ones, listed below:

| $\vdash$ Eenv | $E$ is an environment |
| :--- | :--- |
| $E \vdash$ Kkind | $K$ is a kind (in an environment $E$ ) |
| $E \vdash A: K$ | type $A$ has kind $K$ |
| $E \vdash A$ type | $A$ is a type (abbr. for $E \vdash A: \mathscr{T}$ ) |

$E \vdash a: A \quad$ value $a$ has type $A$
$E \vdash K<=L \quad$ kind $K$ is a subkind of kind $L$
$E \vdash A<B \quad$ type $A$ is a subtype of type $B$ (abbr. for $E \vdash A: \mathscr{P}(B)$ )
$E \vdash K<\pi L \quad K$ and $L$ are equivalent kinds
$\mathrm{E} \vdash A \ll B: K \quad A$ and $B$ are equivalent types or operators of kind $K$
$E \vdash A \ll B \quad$ type $A$ and $B$ are equivalent types (abbr. for $E \vdash A \ll B: \mathscr{T}$ )
$E \vdash a \leftrightarrow b: A \quad a$ and $b$ are equivalent values.
A judgment like $\mathrm{E} \vdash a: A$ is interpreted as defining a relation between environments, value terms and type terms. This relation is defined inductively by axioms and inference rules, as described in the following sections. The rules are then summarized in section 2.9.

### 2.3 Environments and variables

An environment $E$ is a finite sequence of type variables associated with kinds, and value variables associated with types. We use $\operatorname{dom}(E)$ for the set of type and value variables defined in an environment.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [Env } \varnothing] \text { [Env X] [Envx] } \\
& \overline{\vdash \varnothing e n v} \frac{E \vdash K \operatorname{kind} X \notin \operatorname{dom}(E)}{\vdash E, X: K e n v} \quad \frac{E \vdash A \text { type } x \notin \operatorname{dom}(E)}{\vdash E, x: A \text { env }}, \\
& \text { [Var } X \text { ] [Varx] } \\
& \frac{\vdash E^{\prime}, X: K, E^{\prime \prime} e n v}{E^{\prime}, X: K, E^{\prime \prime} \vdash X: K} \quad \frac{\vdash E^{\prime}, x: A, E^{\prime \prime} e n v}{E^{\prime}, x: A, E^{\prime \prime} \vdash x_{: ~} A} .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 2.4 Equivalence and inclusion

Equivalence of kinds (<<z) is the least congruence relation over the syntax of kinds that includes the following rule involving type equivalence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[K E q \mathscr{P}]} \\
& \frac{E \vdash A \ll A^{\prime} \text { type }}{E \vdash \mathscr{P}(A)<=\mathscr{P}\left(A^{\prime}\right)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Equivalence of types and operators ( $<>$ ) is the least congruence relation over the syntax of types that includes $\beta$ and $\eta$ type conversions (shown later), and the following rule for recursive types. Here $A \downarrow X$ means that $A$ must be contractive in $X$ in order to avoid non-well-founded recursions; see the definition in Section 2.9. The third rule below claims that every contractive context $C$ has a unique fixpoint:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[T F \mu]} \\
& \frac{E, X: \mathscr{T} \vdash \text { A type } A \downarrow X}{E \vdash \mu(X) \text { A type }} \\
& {[T \mu]} \\
& \frac{E, X:: \mathscr{T} \vdash \text { A type } A \downarrow X}{E \vdash \mu(X) A<: A\{X \leftarrow \mu(X) A\} \text { type }}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [TEq Contract }] \\
& \frac{E \vdash A \ll C\{X \leftarrow A\} \text { type } E \vdash B \ll C\{X \leftarrow B\} \text { type } C \downarrow X}{E \vdash A \leftarrow B \text { type }} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Inclusion of recursive types is given by the following rule, working inductively from the inclusion of the recursive variables to the inclusion of the recursive bodies:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[\text { TIncl } \mu]} \\
E \vdash \mu(X) A \text { type } & E \vdash \mu(Y) B \text { type } \quad E, Y:: \mathscr{T}, X<: Y \vdash A<B \\
E \vdash \mu(X) A<\mu(Y) B
\end{array}
$$

Equivalence of values ( $\leftrightarrow$ ) is the least congruence relation over the syntax of values that includes $\beta$ and $\eta$ value conversions (shown later), together with the following rule for recursive values:

$$
\frac{E \vdash]}{E \vdash \mu(x: A) b \leftrightarrow b(x: A) b: A}
$$

The rules for recursive types and values will not be modelled in the later sections. Nonetheless, we consider them an essential part of the language, and refer the reader to Amadio (1989), Abadi and Plotkin (1990) and Freyd et al. (1990) for related and ongoing work.

The following rules state that the property of having a kind (resp. a type) is invariant under kind (resp. type) equivalence; that is, equivalent kinds and types have the same extensions:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[\text { KExt }] \text { (Kind Extension) }} & [\text { TExt }] \text { (Type Extension }) \\
\frac{E \vdash A: K \quad E \vdash K \ll L}{E \vdash A: L} & \frac{E \vdash a: A E \vdash A<B B \text { type }}{E \vdash a: B} .
\end{array}
$$

The relations of type and kind inclusion are reflexive and transitive:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [KIncl Reff] [KIncl Trans] } \\
& \frac{E \vdash K \lll L}{E \vdash K<: L} \quad \frac{E \vdash K \ll: L \quad E \vdash L<: M}{E \vdash K<: M} \\
& \begin{array}{ll}
{[\text { TIncl Refl] }} & {[\text { TIncl Trans] }} \\
\frac{E \vdash A<B \text { type }}{E \vdash A<B} & \frac{E \vdash A<B \quad E \vdash B<C}{E \vdash A<: C} .
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

We shall see shortly that the subtype relation is actually defined in terms of power kinds, then all the rules written in terms of subtyping are interpreted as rules about power kinds.

### 2.5 Subsumption versus coercion

The following rules reflect the set-theoretical intuitions behind the subtyping relation. We present two alternatives: subsumption and coercion.

Subsumption formalizes a computationally natural way of looking at subtypes. When viewing computations as type-free activities, any element of a type is directly an element of its supertypes:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[\text { TSub }] \text { (Subsumption) }} \\
& \frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A<B}{E \vdash a: B} .
\end{aligned}
$$

A mathematical model of Quest with subsumption is given in part 5. That model is the main semantic novelty of this paper.

Before that, in part 4, we consider a system without subsumption, called Quest ${ }_{c}$. In Quest ${ }_{c}$, subsumption is replaced by a coercion rule, where a value of a type $A$ must be explicitly injected into a supertype $B$ by a coercion function $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}$. Invariance under type inclusion will be true only for modulo coercions in the most straightforward semantics given in part 4.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[\text { TSub }](\text { Coercion })} \\
& \frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A \subset: B}{E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a): B}
\end{aligned}
$$

In the semantics of Quest ${ }_{\mathbf{c}}$ we obtain a single coercion function $\mathbf{c}: \Pi(X:: \mathscr{T}) \Pi(Y<: X)$ $Y \rightarrow X$; then $\mathbf{c}(B)(A)$ gives meaning to $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}$.
Coercions satisfy the following basic rules; more rules will be given later:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [VCoer Id/Quest }{ }_{\mathrm{c}} \text { ] [VCoer Comp/Quest }{ }_{\mathrm{c}} \text { ] } \\
& \frac{E \vdash a: A}{E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{A, A}(a) \leftrightarrow a: A} \quad \frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A<B \quad E \vdash B<C}{E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{B, C}\left(\mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a)\right) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{A, C}(a): C} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The important intuition about coercions is that they involve little, if any, computational work. Often they are introduced as identity functions with the only purpose of 'getting the types right'. In compilation practice they are often removed during code generation. Semantically, this will be understood in the model for Quest ${ }_{c}$ below by observing that they are computed by (indexes of) the identity function. In Quest, the subsumption rule above is a strong (or explicit) way of saying that coercions have no computational relevance.

### 2.6 Power kinds

For each type $A$ there is a kind $\mathscr{P}(A)$ of all subtypes of $A$. The kind $\mathscr{P}(T o p)$ is then the kind of all types, and is called $\mathscr{T}$. Here are the formation and introduction rules for $\mathscr{P}$; the subsumption/coercion rule serves as an elimination rule for $\mathscr{P}$.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[\text { KFOP }]} & {[\text { TIncl Reff }]} \\
\frac{E \vdash \text { A type }}{E \vdash \mathscr{P}(A) \text { kind }} & \frac{E \vdash \text { A type }}{E \vdash A: \mathscr{P}(A)}
\end{array}
$$

The subtype judgment $E \vdash A<B$ is defined as an abbreviation for a judgement involving power kinds:

$$
E \vdash A \subset B \quad \text { iff } \quad E \vdash A \because \mathscr{P}(B) .
$$

The subkind judgment $E \vdash K<=L$ is primitive, but has very weak properties. It is reflexive and transitive, it extends monotonically to $\mathscr{P}$, and it extends to II via a covariant rule:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[\text { KIncl } \mathscr{P}]} \\
\frac{E \vdash A<A^{\prime}}{E \vdash \mathscr{P}(A)<: \mathscr{P}\left(A^{\prime}\right)} & \frac{[\text { KIncl } \Pi]}{}
\end{array}
$$

Note that the first rule above implies $\mathscr{P}(A)<:=\mathscr{T}$.
Moreover, we have a subsumption rule on kinds:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[K S u b] \text { (Kind Subsumption) }} \\
& \frac{E \vdash A: K \quad E \vdash K<: L}{E \vdash A: L} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Unlike type subsumption, kind subsumption is satisfied by both models in Sections 4 and 5.

### 2.7 Operator kinds

The kind of type operators is normally written as $K \Rightarrow L$ in $F \omega$ (operators from kind $K$ to kind $L$ ). In our system, as in the Theory of Constructions, we use a more general construction $\Pi(X: K) L$, since $X$ may actually occur in $L$ within a power operator, for example in $\Pi(X: \mathscr{T}) \mathscr{P}(X)$.

Individual operators are written $\lambda(X: K) A$ with standard introduction, elimination, and computation rules, shown later.

### 2.8 The kind of types

The kind of all types $\mathscr{T}$ contains the type $T o p$, the types of polymorphic functions, the types of ordinary functions, and the recursive types.

The type Top is the maximal element in the subtype order:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[\text { TF Top }]} & {[\text { TIncl Top }]} \\
\frac{\vdash E \text { E env }}{} & \text { E৮A type } \\
\hline E \vdash \text { Top type } &
\end{array}
$$

Hence the power of Top is the collection of all types and, as already mentioned, we can define the kind of all types as follows:

$$
\mathscr{T}=\mathscr{P}(T o p) .
$$

There is a canonical element of type Top, called top. Moreover, any value belonging to Top is indistinguishable from top:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[\text { VITop }]} & {\left[\begin{array}{l}
{\left[V E T T o p^{\prime}\right](\text { Top Collapse })} \\
\vdash \\
\frac{\vdash E \text { Env }}{E \vdash \text { top:Top }}
\end{array}\right.}
\end{array} \begin{aligned}
& E \vdash a: T o p \quad E \vdash b: T o p \\
& E \vdash a \leftrightarrow b: T o p
\end{aligned} .
$$

When using the subsumption rule, we obtain that every value has type Top, since $T o p$ is the largest type. Moreover, every value is equivalent to top when seen as a
member of $T o p$, and hence $\mathbf{c}_{A, T o p}(a) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{B, T_{o p}}(b)$ for any $a: A$ and $b: B$. By this, when using the coercion rule, there is a unique coercion $\mathbf{c}_{A, T o p}(a)$ from $A$ into Top. This rather peculiar situation will be understood in the semantics by the meaning of $<$ and by the interpretation of Top as the terminal object in the intended category. Top and its properties will play a crucial role in the coding of records.

The types of polymorphic functions are modelled by an impredicative generalproduct construction, $\Pi(X: K) B$. Although we do not show it here, from this product we can derive 'weak' general sums, which are used in the Quest language for modelling abstract types.

The standard formation, introduction, elimination and computation rules (shown in Section 2.9) are complemented by rules for subtyping and coercion:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[\text { TIncl } \Pi]} \\
& \frac{E \vdash K^{\prime}<: K \quad}{} \quad E, X: K^{\prime} \vdash B<: B^{\prime} \\
& E \vdash \Pi(X: K) B<\Pi\left(X: K^{\prime}\right) B^{\prime} \\
& \\
& \frac{[V C o e r \Pi]}{E \vdash\left(\mathbf{c}_{\Pi(X: K\rangle B, \Pi\left(X: K^{\prime}\right) B}(b)\right)(A) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{B\{X \times A\}, B^{\prime}\{X<A\}}(B(A)): B^{\prime}\{X \leftarrow A\}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ordinary higher-type functions are modelled by a function space construction $(\rightarrow)$. We avoid first-order dependent types $(\Pi(x: A) B$, which generalize $A \rightarrow B)$, because in practice they are hard to typecheck and compile. Again, most rules are standard, but we may want to notice subtyping and coercion:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[\text { TIncl } \rightarrow \mathrm{]}} \\
& \frac{E \vdash A^{\prime}<A \quad E \vdash B<B^{\prime}}{E \vdash A \rightarrow B<A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}} \\
& \frac{E \vdash b: A \rightarrow B \quad E \vdash a: A^{\prime} \quad E \vdash A \rightarrow B<A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}}{E \vdash\left(\mathbf{c}_{A \rightarrow B, A^{\prime} \rightarrow B}(b)\right)(a) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{B, B}\left(b\left(\mathbf{c}_{A, A}(a)\right): B^{\prime}\right.} .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 2.9 Formal system

In this section we summarize the formal systems for both Quest and Quest ${ }_{c}$. The rules of these systems are presented simultaneously as they largely coincide.

Rules are named, for example [TExt/Quest](Type Extension) extra. Here TExt is the proper name of the rule. The notation /Quest means that this rule applies only to Quest, while the notation /Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{c}}$ applies only to Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{c}}$; otherwise, the rule applies to both systems. This rule is sometimes called Type Extension in the text. Finally, extra means that this rule is actually derivable or admissible and is listed for symmetry with other rules or for emphasis (for example [KEq Reff] and [TEq Refl] are provable by simultaneous induction on the derivations).

The rules grouped as 'computation' rules may be oriented in order to provide reduction strategies.

A recursive type $\mu(X) C$ is legal only if $C$ is contractive in $X$, written $C \downarrow X$ (MacQueen et al., 1986). A type $C$ is contractive in a (free) type variable $X$ if and only
if $C$ has one of the following six forms: a type variable different from $X$; Top; $\Pi\left(X^{\prime}: K\right) C^{\prime}$ with $X \notin$ free-variables $(K)$ and $C^{\prime} \downarrow X ; A \rightarrow B ;\left(\lambda\left(X^{\prime}: K\right) B\right)(A)$ with $B\left\{X^{\prime} \leftarrow A\right\} \downarrow X$; or $\mu\left(X^{\prime}\right) C^{\prime}$ with $C^{\prime} \downarrow X$ (as well as $C^{\prime} \downarrow X^{\prime}$ ).

We are conservative about the contractiveness conditions on $\Pi\left(X^{\prime}:: K\right) C$, and these deserve further study. The condition $X \notin$ free-variables $(K)$ prevents constructions such as $\mu(X) \Pi(Y<X) X \rightarrow X$, whose semantics is unclear. The condition $C^{\prime} \downarrow X$ agrees with one of the semantics we give to $\Pi$ as a non-expansive intersection, although syntactically this restriction seems unnecessary.

## Judgments

| $\vdash$ Eenv | $E$ is an environment |
| :---: | :---: |
| $E \vdash$ Kkind | $K$ is a $k$ ind (in an environment $E$ ) |
| $E \vdash A: K$ | type $A$ has kind $K$ |
| $E \vdash A$ type | $A$ is a type (abbr. for $E \vdash A: \mathscr{T}$ ) |
| $E \vdash a: A$ | value $a$ has type $A$ |
| $E \vdash K \ll: L$ | kind $K$ is a subkind of kind L |
| $E \vdash A<B$ | type $A$ is a subtype of type $B$ (abbr. for $E \vdash A: \mathscr{P}(B)$ ) |
| $E \vdash K<\pi>L$ | $K$ and $L$ are equivalent kinds |
| $E \vdash A \ll B: K$ | $A$ and $B$ are equivalent types or operators of kind $K$ |
| $E \vdash A \ll B$ type | $A$ and $B$ are equivalent types (abbr. for $E \vdash A \ll B: \mathscr{T}$ ) |
| $E \vdash a \leftrightarrow b: A$ | $a$ and $b$ are equivalent values. |

## Environments



| $\left[\begin{array}{ll}{[\text { Var } X]}\end{array}\right.$ | $[$ Var $x]$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\frac{\vdash E^{\prime}, X: K, E^{\prime \prime} e n v}{}$ | $\vdash E^{\prime}, x: A, E^{\prime \prime} e n v$ |
| $E^{\prime}, X: K, E^{\prime \prime} \vdash X: K$ |  |

## Kind formation

| $[K F \mathscr{P}]$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\frac{E \vdash \text { A type }}{E \vdash \mathscr{P}(A) \text { kind }}$ | $[K F \Pi]$ <br> $E \vdash K$ kind $\quad E, X: K \vdash L$ kind <br> $E \vdash \Pi(X: K) L$ kind |

## Kind equivalence

| [KEq Refl extra | [KEq Symm] | [KEq Trans] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $E \vdash$ Kkind | $E \vdash K \ll>L$ | $E \vdash K \ll L \quad E \vdash L \lll M$ |
| $E \vdash K \lll K$ | $E \vdash L \lll K$ |  |

[KEq $\mathscr{P}] \quad[K E q$ П]
$\frac{E \vdash A \Leftrightarrow A^{\prime} \text { type }}{E \vdash \mathscr{P}(A) \ll \mathscr{P}\left(A^{\prime}\right)} \frac{E \vdash K \Leftrightarrow K^{\prime} \quad E, X: K \vdash L \Leftrightarrow<L^{\prime}}{E \vdash \Pi(X: K) L \ll \Pi\left(X: K^{\prime}\right) L^{\prime}}$
[KExt](Kind Extension) extra
$\frac{E \vdash A: K \quad E \vdash K \ll L}{E \vdash A: L}$.

## Kind inclusion

[KIncl Refl] [KIncl Trans]
$\frac{E \vdash K \lll L}{E \vdash K \ll: L} \quad \frac{E \vdash K<: L \quad E \vdash L<:: M}{E \vdash K \ll: M}$
[KIncl $\mathscr{P}] \quad[$ KIncl $\Pi]$
$\frac{E \vdash A<: A^{\prime}}{E \vdash \mathscr{P}(A)<:: \mathscr{P}\left(A^{\prime}\right)} \quad \frac{E \vdash K k i n d}{E \vdash \Pi(X: K) L<:: \Pi(X:: K) L^{\prime}}$
[KSub](Kind Subsumption)
$\frac{E \vdash A: K \quad E \vdash K<: L}{E \vdash A: L}$.

## Type and Operator formation

| [ TF Top] | [TF $\mu$ ] |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\vdash$ Eenv | $E, X: \mathrm{T} \vdash$ A type | $A \downarrow X$ |  |
| E-Top type | $E \vdash \mu(X)$ A type |  |  |
| [TFП] |  | [ $T F \rightarrow$ ] |  |
| $\underline{E \vdash \text { Kkind }}$ | E, $X: K \vdash$ B type | $\underline{E} \vdash$ A type | EトB B type |
| $E \vdash \Pi(X: K)$ B type |  | $E \vdash A \rightarrow B$ type |  |

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
{[T I \Pi]} & {[T E \Pi]} \\
\frac{E \vdash K \text { kind }}{} \quad E, X: K \vdash B: L & E \vdash B: \Pi(X: K) L \quad E \vdash A: K \\
E \vdash B(A): L\{X \leftarrow A\}
\end{array}
$$

## Type and Operator equivalence

[TEq Refl] extra [TEq Symm] [TEq Trans]

| $E \vdash-A=K$ | $E \vdash A \ll B: K$ | $E \vdash A \ll B: K \quad E \vdash B \ll C: K$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $E \vdash A<A: K$ | $E \vdash B<\cdot A: K$ | $E \vdash A \ll C: K$ |

$[T E q X] \quad[T E q$ Top $]$
$\frac{E \vdash X:: K}{E \vdash X \ll X:: K} \quad \frac{\vdash E e n v}{E \vdash \text { Top } \ll>\text { Top type }}$
[TEq I]]

$$
[T E q \rightarrow]
$$

$\frac{E \vdash K \ll K^{\prime} \quad E, X: K \vdash B<>B^{\prime} \text { type }}{E \vdash \Pi(X: K) B<\Pi\left(X: K^{\prime}\right) B^{\prime} \text { type }} \quad \frac{E \vdash A<>A^{\prime} \text { type } \quad E \vdash B \ll B^{\prime} \text { type }}{E \vdash A \rightarrow B<>A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime} \text { type }}$

[ $T E q \mu$ ]
$\frac{E, X:: \mathscr{T} \vdash B \ll>B^{\prime} \text { type } \quad B, B^{\prime} \downarrow X}{E \vdash \mu(X) B \ll>\mu(X) B^{\prime} \text { type }}$
[TEq Contract]
$E \vdash A \ll>C\{X \leftarrow A\}$ type $\quad E \vdash B \ll>C\{X \leftarrow B\}$ type $\quad C \downarrow X$ $E \vdash A$ <: $B$ type
[TExt/Quest] (Type Extension) extra [TExt/Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{c}}$ (Type Extension)
$\frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A \ll B \text { type }}{E \vdash a: B} \quad \frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A \ll B \text { type }}{E \vdash a: B}$
$[T \Pi \eta]$
$\frac{E \vdash B: \Pi(X:: K) L \quad X \notin \operatorname{dom}(E)}{E \vdash(\lambda(X: K) B(X)) \ll>B: \Pi \Pi(X:: K) L}$.

## Type and Operator computation

[ $T \Pi \beta$ ]
$\frac{E \vdash(\lambda(X:: K) B)(A): L}{E \vdash(\lambda(X:: K) B)(A) \ll B\{X \leftarrow A\}:: L}$
[ $T \mu$ ]
$\frac{E, X:: \mathscr{T} \vdash \text { A type } \quad A \downarrow X}{E \vdash \mu(X) A \ll A\{X \leftarrow \mu(X) A\} \text { type }}$.

## Type inclusion

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { [TIncl Reft] } & \text { [TIncl Trans] } \\ \frac{E \vdash A \ll B \text { type }}{E \vdash A<B} & \frac{E \vdash A<: B \quad E \vdash B<: C}{E \vdash A<: C}\end{array}$

| $[$ TIncl Top $]$ | $[$ TIncl $\Pi]$ | $[$ TIncl $\rightarrow]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\frac{E \vdash \text { A type }}{E \vdash A<T o p}$ | $\frac{E \vdash K^{\prime}<: K}{E \vdash \Pi(X:: K) B<: \Pi\left(X:: K^{\prime}\right) B^{\prime}}$ | $E, X: K^{\prime} \vdash B<: B^{\prime}$ |
| $E \vdash A^{\prime}<: A$ | $E \vdash B<: B^{\prime}$ |  |
| $E \vdash A \rightarrow B<A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ |  |  |

[TIncl $\mu$ ]
$\frac{E \vdash \mu(X) \text { A type } \quad E \vdash \mu(Y) \text { B type } \quad E, Y:: \mathscr{T}, X<: Y \vdash A<: B}{E \vdash \mu(X) A<: \mu(Y) B}$
[TSub/Quest] (Subsumption) [TSub/Quest ${ }_{\mathbf{c}}$ ](Coercion)
$\frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A<: B}{E \vdash a: B} \quad \frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A<: B}{E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a): B}$.

## Value formation

$\begin{aligned} & {[\text { VI Top }]} \\ & \\ & \qquad \text { Eenv } \\ & E \vdash t o p: T o p\end{aligned}$

| $[V I \Pi]$ | $[V E \Pi]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $E \vdash K k i n d$ | $E, X: K \vdash b: B$ |
| $E \vdash \lambda(X: K) b: \Pi(X: K) B$ | $\frac{E \vdash b: \Pi(X: K) B \quad E \vdash A: K}{E \vdash b(A): B\{X \leftarrow A\}}$ |

[ $V I \rightarrow$ ]
[ $V E \rightarrow$ ]
$\frac{E \vdash A \text { type } \quad E, x: A \vdash b: B}{E \vdash \lambda(x: A) b: A \rightarrow B} \quad \frac{E \vdash b: A \rightarrow B \quad E \vdash a: A}{E \vdash b(a): B}$
$\left[V I \mathrm{c} /\right.$ Quest $\left._{\mathrm{c}}\right]$
$\frac{E \vdash A<: B \vdash a: A}{E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a): B}$
$\frac{[V \vdash \mu]}{} \frac{E \vdash \text { type } \quad E, x: A \vdash b: A}{E \vdash \mu(x: A) b: A}$.

## Value equivalence

[VEq Refl] extra [VEq Symm] [VEq Trans]
$\frac{E \vdash a: A}{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow a: A} \quad \frac{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow b: A}{E \vdash b \leftrightarrow a: A} \quad \frac{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow b: A \quad E \vdash b \leftrightarrow c: A}{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow c: A}$
[VEqSub/Quest] (Subsumption Eq)
$\frac{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow a^{\prime}: A \quad E \vdash A<B}{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow a^{\prime}: B}$
[VEqSub/Quest ${ }_{\text {d }}$ (Coercion Eq)
$\begin{array}{cc}E \vdash a \leftrightarrow a^{\prime}: A & E \vdash A<B \quad E \vdash A<>A^{\prime} \text { type } \quad E \vdash B \ll B^{\prime} \text { type } \\ E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{A, B^{\prime}}(a) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}}\left(a^{\prime}\right): B\end{array}$

| $[V E q x]$ | $[V E q$ top $]$ | $[V E q T o p]($ Top Collapse) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\frac{E \vdash x: A}{E \vdash x \leftrightarrow x: A}$ | $\frac{\vdash E \text { env }}{E \vdash \text { top } \leftrightarrow \text { top:Top }}$ | $\frac{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow a: T o p \quad E \vdash b \leftrightarrow b: T o p}{E \vdash a \leftrightarrow b: T o p}$ |


| $[V E q T A b s]$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\frac{E \vdash K \lll K^{\prime}}{} \quad E, X: K \vdash b \leftrightarrow b^{\prime}: B$ | $[V E q T A p p l]$ |
| $E \vdash \lambda(X: K) b \leftrightarrow \lambda\left(X: K^{\prime}\right) b^{\prime}: \Pi(X: K) B$ | $\frac{E \vdash b \leftrightarrow b^{\prime}: \Pi(X: K) B \quad E \vdash A \leftrightarrow A^{\prime}: K}{E \vdash b(A) \leftrightarrow b^{\prime}\left(A^{\prime}\right): B\{X \leftarrow A\}}$ |


| [ $V E q$ Abs] |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\underline{E \vdash A \ll>A^{\prime} \text { type }}$ | $E, x: A \vdash b \leftrightarrow b^{\prime}: B$ |
| $E \vdash \lambda(x: A) b \leftrightarrow$ | $\lambda\left(x: A^{\prime}\right) b^{\prime}: A \rightarrow B$ |
| ${ }^{\text {V }}$ VEq $\mu$ ] |  |
| $\underline{E \vdash A<>} A^{\prime}$ type | $E, x: A \vdash b \leftrightarrow b^{\prime}: A$ |
| $E \vdash \mu(x: A) b$ | $\mu\left(x: A^{\prime}\right) b^{\prime}: A$ |

\(\left[\begin{array}{l}\left.\eta / Quest_{\mathrm{c}}\right] <br>
<br>

\frac{E \vdash b: \Pi(X: K) B}{}\end{array} \quad X \notin \operatorname{dom}(E)\right.\) | $\left[\rightarrow \eta /\right.$ Quest $\left._{\mathrm{c}}\right]$ |
| :--- |
|  |
| $\frac{E \vdash b: A \rightarrow B}{} \quad x \notin \operatorname{dom}(E)$ |
| $\vdash(X: K) b(X)) \leftrightarrow b: \Pi(X: K) B$ |

## Value coercion

|  | [VCoer Comp/Quest ${ }_{\text {c }}$ ] |
| :---: | :---: |
| $E \vdash a: A$ | $E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A<B \quad E \vdash B<C$ |
| $E \vdash \boldsymbol{c}_{\text {a }}(a) \leftrightarrow a / A$ | E |

[VCoer Top/Quest ${ }_{c}$ ] extra
$\frac{E \vdash a: A}{E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{A, T o p}(a) \leftrightarrow t o p: T o p}$
[VCoer $\Pi$ /Quest ${ }_{c}$ ]
$\frac{E \vdash b: \Pi(X: K) B \quad E \vdash A: K^{\prime} \quad E \vdash \Pi(X: K) B \subset \Pi\left(X: K^{\prime}\right) B^{\prime}}{E \vdash\left(\mathbf{c}_{\Pi(X: K) B, \Pi\left(X: K^{\prime}\right) B}(b)\right)(A) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{B\{X \leftarrow A\}, B^{\prime}(X \leftarrow A\}}(b(A)): B^{\prime}\{X \leftarrow A\}}$
[VCoer $\rightarrow$ /Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{c}}$ ]
$\frac{E \vdash b: A \rightarrow B \quad E \vdash a: A^{\prime} \quad E \vdash A \rightarrow B<: A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}}{E \vdash\left(\mathbf{c}_{A \rightarrow B, A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}}(b)\right)(a) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{B, B^{\prime}}\left(b\left(\mathbf{c}_{A^{\prime}, A}(a)\right): B^{\prime}\right.}$
[ VCoer $\mu /$ Quest ${ }_{c}$ ]
$\frac{E \vdash a: \mu(X) A \quad E \vdash A: K^{\prime} \quad E \vdash \mu(X) A<\mu(Y) B}{E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{\mu(X) A, \mu(Y) B}(a) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{c}_{A(X \leftarrow \mu(X) A\}, B\{Y \leftarrow \mu(Y)\}}(a) \mu(Y) B}$.

## Value computation


[ $\mu$ ]

$$
\frac{E \vdash \mu(x: A) b: A}{E \vdash \mu(x: A) b \leftrightarrow b\{x \leftarrow \mu(x: A) b\}: A} .
$$

### 2.10 Records and other encodings

Record types are one of the main motivations for studying type systems with subtyping (Cardelli, 1988). However, in this paper we do not need to model them directly (as already done in Bruce and Longo, 1989), since they can be syntactically encoded to a great extent.

More precisely, we show how to encode the record calculus of Cardelli and Wegner (1985), although we do not yet know how to encode the more powerful calculi of Wand (1989) and Cardelli and Mitchell (1989). Moreover, we show how to encode the functional update problem discussed in Cardelli and Mitchell; this problem cannot be represented in the calculus of Cardelli and Wegner (1985).

In this section we discuss these encodings, and then we feel free to ignore records in the rest of the paper.

We start by encoding product types, in the usual way:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \times B & \equiv \Pi(C)(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow C \\
\text { pair } & : \Pi(A) \Pi(B) A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A \times B \\
& \equiv \lambda(A) \lambda(B) \lambda(a: A) \lambda(b: B) \lambda(C) \lambda(f: A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C) f(a)(b) \\
f s t & : \Pi(A) \Pi(B) A \times B \rightarrow A \\
& \equiv \lambda(A) \lambda(B) \lambda(c: A \times B) c(A)(\lambda(x: A(\lambda(y: B) x) \\
\text { snd } & : \Pi(A) \Pi(B) A \times B \rightarrow B \\
& \equiv \lambda(A) \lambda(B) \lambda(c: A \times B) c(B)(\lambda(x: A) \lambda(y: B) y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We often use a more compact notation:

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
a, b & \equiv a_{A \times B} b & \equiv \operatorname{pair}(A)(B)(a)(b) \\
f s t(c) & \equiv f s t_{A \times B}(c) & \equiv \operatorname{stt}(A)(B)(c) \\
\operatorname{snd}(c) \equiv \operatorname{snd} d_{A \times B}(c) & \equiv \operatorname{snd}(A)(B)(c) .
\end{array}
$$

The expected rules for products are now derivable:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{E \vdash A<A A^{\prime} \quad E \vdash B<: B^{\prime}}{E \vdash A \times B<A^{\prime} \times B^{\prime}} \\
& \frac{E \vdash P<A \times B \quad E \vdash p: P}{E \vdash f s t_{A \times B}(p): A} \quad \frac{E \vdash P<A \times B \quad E \vdash p: P}{E \vdash s n d_{A \times B}(p): B} .
\end{aligned}
$$

As a first step toward records, we define extensible tuple types as iterated products ending with Top, and extensible tuple values as iterated pairs ending with top. A similar encoding appears in Fairbairn (1989):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Tuple}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}\right) & \equiv A_{1} \times\left(\ldots \times\left(A_{n} \times \text { Top }\right) . .\right) \\
\operatorname{tuple}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) & \equiv a_{1},\left(\ldots,\left(a_{n}, \text { top }\right) . .\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{E \vdash a_{1}: A_{1} \ldots E \vdash a_{n}: A_{n}}{E \vdash \operatorname{tuple}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right): T u p l e\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}\right)} \\
& E \vdash A_{1}<B_{1} \ldots E \vdash A_{n}<B_{n} \ldots E \vdash A_{m} \text { type } \\
& \frac{E \vdash \operatorname{Tuple}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, \ldots, A_{m}\right)<\operatorname{Tuple}\left(B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}\right)}{} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For example: Tuple $(A, B)<$ Tuple $(A)$ since $A<A, B \times T o p<T o p$, and $\times$ is monotonic.
We now need to define tuple selectors (corresponding to product projections). This would be a family $\operatorname{sel}_{i}{ }^{n}$ of terms selecting the $i$ th components of a tuple of length $n$. In fact, by using subtyping it is sufficient to define a family $\operatorname{sel}_{i}$ of terms for extracting the $i$ th component of any tuple of sufficient length:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{sel}_{1}: & \Pi\left(A_{1}\right) A_{1} \times T o p \rightarrow A_{1} \\
\equiv & \lambda\left(A_{1}\right) \lambda\left(t: A_{1} \times T o p\right) f s t_{A_{1} \times T o p}(t), \\
s e l_{2}: & \Pi\left(A_{2}\right) T o p \times A_{2} \times T o p \rightarrow A_{2} \\
\equiv & \lambda\left(A_{2}\right) \lambda\left(t: T o p \times A_{2} \times T o p\right) \\
& f s t_{A_{2} \times T o p}\left(s n d_{T o p \times A_{2} \times T o p}(t)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

etc.

We can also define tuple updators, that is, terms that replace the $i$ th component of a tuple with a given value. The crucial point here is that these updators do not forget information about the type of the components that are not affected by the update. To achieve this effect, we must use knowledge of the encoding of tuples as pairs. Again, we can define a family $u p d_{i}$ instead of a family $u p d_{i}{ }^{n}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
u p d_{1}: & \Pi\left(B_{1}\right) \Pi\left(B_{t l}\right) \Pi\left(A_{1}\right) B_{1} \times B_{t l} \rightarrow A_{1} \rightarrow A_{1} \times B_{t l} \\
\equiv & \lambda\left(B_{1}\right) \lambda\left(B_{t l}\right) \lambda\left(A_{1}\right) \\
& \lambda\left(t: B_{1} \times B_{t l}\right) \lambda\left(a_{1}: A_{1}\right) a_{1}, A_{1} \times B_{t l} s n d_{B_{1} \times B_{t l}}(t), \\
u p d_{2}: & \Pi\left(B_{1}\right) \Pi\left(B_{2}\right) \Pi\left(B_{t l}\right) \Pi\left(A_{2}\right) B_{1} \times B_{2} \times B_{t l} \rightarrow A_{2} \rightarrow B_{1} \times A_{2} \times B_{t l} \\
\equiv \quad & \lambda\left(B_{1}\right) \lambda\left(B_{2}\right) \lambda\left(B_{t l}\right) \lambda\left(A_{2}\right) \\
& \lambda\left(t: B_{1} \times B_{2} \times B_{t l}\right) \lambda\left(a_{2}: A_{2}\right) f s t(t),\left(a_{2}, \operatorname{snd}(\operatorname{snd}(t))\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

etc.
These definitions solve the functional update problem (Cardelli and Mitchell, 1989) for tuples. This problem can be explained by the following example, where we update a field of a tuple in such a way that the updating function works equally well on subtypes of the stated tuple type.

We have a type of geometric points defined as Point $=$ Tuple( $\operatorname{Int}$,Int), where the integers represent respectively the $x$ and $y$ components. Since these are tuples, a point can have additional components, for example a color; then it is a member of ColorPoint $=$ Tuple(Int,Int,Color). We further assume that the subrange type $0 . .9$ is a subtype of Int.

The problem consists in defining a function move $X$ that increments the $x$ component of a point, returning another Point. Moreover, when applied to a ColorPoint (with adequate type parameters) this function should return a ColorPoint, and not just a Point.

One might think that move $X$ has type $\Pi(A<$ Point $) A \rightarrow A$. This is not the case; we show that the parameter type $A$ must change appropriately from input to output:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Point } \equiv & \text { Tuple }(\text { Int }, \text { Int }) \\
\text { moveX }: & \Pi\left(B_{1} \varangle \operatorname{Int}\right) \Pi\left(B_{t \iota}<\text { Tuple }(\operatorname{Int})\right) B_{1} \times B_{t l} \rightarrow \operatorname{Int} \times B_{t l} \\
\equiv & \lambda\left(B_{1} \varangle \operatorname{Int}\right) \lambda\left(B_{t t}<\text { Tuple }(\operatorname{Int})\right) \lambda\left(p: B_{1} \times B_{t l}\right) \\
& \quad u p d_{1}\left(B_{1}\right)\left(B_{t l}\right)(\operatorname{Int})(p)\left(\text { sel } l_{1}(\operatorname{Int})(p)+1\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously, we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p: \text { Point } \equiv \text { tuple }(9,0) \\
& \text { moveX }(\operatorname{Int})(\text { Tuple }(\text { Int }))(p) \equiv \text { tuple }(10,0): \text { Point } .
\end{aligned}
$$

However, note that in the following example the result does not, and must not, have type Tuple(0..9,Int):

$$
\begin{aligned}
p: \text { Tuple }(0 . .9, \text { Int })<\text { Point } & \equiv \text { tuple }(9,0) \\
\text { moveX }(0 . .9)(\text { Tuple }(\text { Int }))(p) & \equiv \text { tuple }(10,0): \text { Point } .
\end{aligned}
$$

We can also verify that color is preserved:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p: \text { Tuple }(0 . .9, \text { Int }, \text { Color }): \text { ColorPoint } \equiv \text { tuple }(9,0, \mathrm{red}) \\
& \text { moveX }(0 . ~ .9)(\text { Tuple }(\text { Int }, \text { Color }))(p) \equiv \text { tuple }(10,0, \mathrm{red}): \text { ColorPoint } .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, we obtain a move $X$ function with the desired properties, but only by taking advantage of the encoding of tuples as products. Note that in the input type of move $X$, Point is split into Int and Tuple(Int).

Now we turn to the encoding of records $\operatorname{Rcd}\left(l_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}: A_{n}\right)$; these are unordered product types with components indexed by distinct labels $l_{i}$.

We fix a standard enumeration of labels $\ell^{1}, \ell^{2}, \ldots$. Then a record type is the shortest tuple type where the type component of label $\ell^{i}$ is found in the tuple slot of index $i$, for each $i$. The remaining slots are filled with Top. For example:

$$
\operatorname{Rcd}\left(\ell^{3}: C, \ell^{1}: A\right) \equiv \operatorname{Tuple}(A, T o p, C)
$$

Under this encoding, record types that differ only on the order of components are equivalent, and we have the familiar:

$$
\frac{E \vdash A_{1}<B_{1} \ldots E \vdash A_{n}<B_{n} \ldots E \vdash A_{m} \text { type }}{E \vdash \operatorname{Rcd}\left(l_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}: A_{n}, \ldots, l_{m}: A_{m}\right)<\operatorname{Rcd}\left(l_{1}: B_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}: B_{n}\right)} .
$$

Record values are similarly encoded, for example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r c d\left(\ell^{3}=c, \ell^{1}=a\right) \equiv \text { tuple( }(a, \text { top }, c) \\
& \frac{E \vdash a_{1}: A_{1} \ldots E \vdash a_{n}: A_{n}}{E \vdash r c d\left(l_{1}=a_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}=a_{n}\right): \operatorname{Rcd}\left(l_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}: A_{n}\right)} \\
& \frac{E \vdash r: R c d\left(l_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, l_{1}: A_{n}\right)}{E \vdash r . l_{i} A_{i}} \quad \frac{E \vdash r: R c d\left(l_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, l_{i} A_{i}, \ldots, l_{1}: A_{n}\right) \quad E \vdash b: B}{E \vdash r . l_{i} \leftarrow b: R c d\left(l_{1}: A_{1} \ldots, l_{i} B, \ldots \cdot l_{n}: A_{n}\right)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here record selection $r . l_{i}$ is defined via $\operatorname{sel}_{i}(r)$, and record update $r . l_{i} \leftarrow b$ is defined via $u p d_{i}(r)(b)$.

Note that it is not possible to write a version of move $X$ for records solely by using the derived operators above. The functional update problem can be solved only by using knowledge of the encodings, as was done for tuples. In this respect (an encoding of) a calculus like the one in Cardelli and Mitchell (1989) is still to be preferred, since it can express the move $X$ functions independently of encodings.

Under the encodings above, more programs are typable than we would normally desire; this is to be expected of any encoding strategy. The important point here is that the familiar typing and computation rules are sound.

## 3. PER and $\omega$-Set

The rest of the paper describes the mathematical meaning of the Quest system described in the previous section. The goal here is to guarantee the (relative) consistency of Quest's type and equational theories. The model, though, is also meant to suggest consistent extensions. This is one of the reasons why we construct a specific (class of) model(s), instead of suggesting general definitions. These may be obtained by slight modifications of the work in Bruce and Longo (1988), or even better, by
following the categorical approach in Asperti and Longo (1991). Indeed, in the latter case, the invention of a general categorical meaning for subtyping and subkinds would be a relevant contribution.

In this part, we first try to give the structural (and partly informal) meaning of kinds, types and terms, as well as their crucial properties. The reader will find the properties formally described in part 2 reflected over sets and functions, and should grasp the essence of the translation. Part 4 develops further the details of the interpretation of Quest ${ }_{c}$ that the experienced reader could give by himself, at that point. Part 5 describes Quest with the subsumption rule, instead of with coercions.

Because of the presence of type operators, the structure of kinds is at least as rich as the type-structure of typed $\lambda$-calculus. Thus, kinds needs to be interpreted as objects of a Cartesian Closed Category (CCC). The category we will be using is $\omega$ Set below. Its objects must, of course, include the kind of types, which in turn must be structured as a CCC.

In a sense, we need a frame (or global) category, inside which we may view the category of types as an object. More precisely, we need a frame category and an internal category, but we will not go into this here, except in Remark 3.1.5. The general approach by internal categories was suggested by Moggi, and has been developed by several authors (see Remark 3.1.5 for references).

The specific structures used here, that is $\omega$-Set and PER below, are described in Longo and Moggi (1988), where their main categorical properties are also given. The approach in Longo and Moggi is elementary: indeed, these categories may be seen as subcategories of Hyland's Effective Topos (see Hyland, 1982, 1987) for the topos theoretic approach). The idea of interpreting subtypes as subrelations is borrowed from Bruce and Longo (1989), where the semantics of Quest's progenitor system, Bounded Fun (with coercions), was first given.

### 3.1 Semantics of kinds and types

The key idea in the underlying mathematical construction is to use a set-theoretic approach where the addition of some effectiveness prevents the difficulties discussed in Reynolds (1984). In this regard, the blend of set-theoretic intuition and elementary computability provides a simple but robust guideline for the interpretation of programming constructs.

The construction is based on Kleene's applicative structure ( $\omega, \cdot$ ), where $\omega$ is the set of natural numbers, together with a standard gödelization $\phi_{n}$ of the computable functions in $\omega \rightarrow \omega$, and where • is the operator such that $n \cdot m=\phi_{n}(m)$. However, the same mathematical construction works for any (possibly partial) combinatory algebra, in particular on any model of type-free $\lambda$-calculus. We prefer, in this part, Kleene's $(\omega, \cdot)$ in view of everybody's familiarity with elementary recursion theory. In part 5 , though, we will base our construction on models of the type-free $\lambda$-calculus.

Definition 3.1.1
The category $\boldsymbol{\omega}$-Set has:
objects: $\left\langle A, \mathbb{I}_{A}\right\rangle \in \omega$-Set iff
$A$ is a set and $\mathbb{t}_{A} \subseteq \omega \times A$ is a relation, such that $\forall a \in A . \exists n . n \Vdash_{A} a$ morphisms: $f \in \omega$-Set $[A, B] \quad$ iff
$\mathbf{f}: A \rightarrow B$ and $\exists n . n \Vdash_{A \rightarrow B} f$,
where $n \Vdash_{A \rightarrow B} f \Leftrightarrow \forall a \in A . \forall p \cdot p \Vdash_{A} a \Rightarrow n \cdot p \Vdash_{B} f(a)$
Thus, each morphism in $\omega$-Set is 'computable' in the sense that it is described by a partial recursive function that is total on $\left\{p \mid p \Vdash_{A} a\right\}$, for each $a \in A$. If $p \Vdash a$ (we may omit the subscripts), we say that $p$ realizes a (or $p$ computes $a$ ).

We next define the category of types. When $A$ is a symmetric and transitive relation on $\omega$, we set:
$\mathbf{n A m}$ iff $n$ is related to $m$ by $A$,
$\operatorname{dom}(\mathbf{A})=\{n \mid n A n\}$,
$\Gamma_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{A}}=\{m \mid m A n\}$ the equivalence class of $n$ with respect to $A$,
$\left.\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{A})=\left\{\Gamma_{n}\right\rceil_{A} \mid n \in \operatorname{dom}(A)\right\}$ the quotient set of $A$.

Definition 3.1.2
The category PER (of Partial Equivalence Relations) has objects : $A \in \mathbf{P E R}$ iff $A$ is a symmetric and transitive relation on $\omega$, morphisms: $f \in \mathbf{P E R}[A, B]$ iff

$$
f: Q(A) \rightarrow Q(B) \quad \text { and } \quad \exists n . \forall p .\left(p A p \Rightarrow f\left(\ulcorner p\urcorner_{A}\right)=\ulcorner n \cdot p\urcorner_{B}\right) .
$$

PER is a category where the identity map, in each type, is computed by (at least) any index of the identity function on $\omega$.

The category PER can be fully and faithfully embedded into $\omega$-Set. In fact, for every partial equivalence relation (p.e.r) $A$, define the $\omega$-set $\operatorname{In}(A)=\left\langle Q(A), \epsilon_{A}\right\rangle$, where $Q(A)$ are the equivalence classes of $A$ as subsets of $\omega$, and $\epsilon_{A}$ is the usual membership relation restricted to $\omega \times Q(A)$. Clearly, $\epsilon_{A}$ defines a realizability relation in the sense of Definition 3.1.1 and the functor In is full and faithful. Note that $\epsilon_{A}$ is a single-valued relation, as equivalence classes are disjoint subsets of $\omega$.

The following simple fact may help in identifying which are the maps in PER, by viewing them also as morphisms in $\omega$-Set. (The reader should practice going from one category to the other; the next proposition is just an exercise with this purpose.)

Proposition 3.1.3
Let $f \in \mathbf{P E R}[A, C]$, then

$$
\left.p \Vdash_{A \rightarrow C} f(\text { in } \omega \text {-Set }) \Leftrightarrow \forall r .\left(r A r \Rightarrow{ }^{\ulcorner } p \cdot r\right\urcorner_{C}=f\left(\ulcorner r\urcorner_{A}\right)\right)
$$

Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p \Vdash_{A \rightarrow C} f \Leftrightarrow \forall a \in Q(A) \cdot \forall r \Vdash_{A} a \cdot p \cdot r \Vdash_{C} f(a) \\
& \Leftrightarrow \forall r \cdot r A r \Rightarrow p \cdot r \in f\left(\ulcorner r\urcorner_{A}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

since If coincides with $\in$ (with respect to an equivalence class).

Hence we must show:

$$
\left.\forall r .\left(r A r \Rightarrow p \cdot r \in f\left(\ulcorner r\urcorner_{A}\right)\right) \Leftrightarrow \forall r .\left(r A r \Rightarrow\ulcorner p \cdot r\rceil_{C}=f\left(\Gamma^{\Gamma}\right\urcorner_{A}\right)\right) .
$$

Case $\Leftarrow$ ) Obvious, since $p \cdot r \in\ulcorner p \cdot r\rceil_{C}$
Case $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose $\ulcorner p \cdot r]_{C} \neq f\left({ }^{r} r_{A}\right)$, then $\left\ulcorner p \cdot r{ }^{7}{ }_{C} \cap f\left(\ulcorner r]_{A}\right)=\varnothing\right.$ since $Q(C)$ is a quotient, but $p \cdot r \in^{\ulcorner } p \cdot r^{\top}$, and by hypothesis $p \cdot r \in f\left({ }^{(r)^{1}}\right)$. Contradiction.

What is relevant for us, though, is that PER may be viewed also as an object of $\omega$ Set; this interprets the fact that $\mathscr{T}$ is a kind. The point is that the objects of PER form a set and every set may be viewed as an $\omega$-set:

## Definition 3.1.4

Let $\Delta$ : Set $\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\omega}$-Set be given by $\Delta(S)=\left\langle S, \Vdash_{s}\right\rangle$, where $\mathbb{F}_{S}=\omega \times S$, that is, $\forall n \forall s n \Vdash_{s} s$ (the full relation). The function $\Delta$ is extended to a functor by setting $\Delta(f)=f$, the identity on morphism.

In particular, set $\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{0}}=\Delta(\mathbf{P E R}) \in \omega$-Set, the $\omega$-set of types.
Remark 3.1.5 (For readers with some experience in Category Theory.)
$\omega$-Set was equivalently defined in Hyland (1982) as the ' $\sim \sim$ separated objects' in his Effective Topos, Eff. The category $\omega$-Set has all finite limits and is a locally CCC (see below for the cartesian closure). The embedding $\Delta$ above preserves exponents and limits. Moreover, one may embed $\boldsymbol{\omega}$-Set into Eff by a functor which preserves limits and the ICCC structure.

By this, the present approach applies in a simple set-theoretic framework the results in Hyland (1987), Pitts (1987), Hyland and Pitts (1987), Carboni et al. (1987) and Bainbridge et al. (1987). The general treatment of models, as internal categories of categories with finite limits, which was suggested by Moggi, is given in Asperti and Martini (1989) and Asperti and Longo (1991). The elegant presentation in Meseguer (1988) compares various approaches. We use here the fact that $\omega$-Set is closed under products indexed over itself and, in particular, we use the completeness of PER as an internal category. The categorical products are exactly those naively defined below (to within isomorphism). Both the explicit definition of PER as an internal category and the required (internal) adjunctions are given in detail in Longo and Moggi (1988), which is also written for non category-theorists. (See also Asperti and Longo, 1991.)

The reason for the next definitions is that we need to be able to give meaning, over these structures, to kinds and types constructed as products, as expressed in rules [ $K F \Pi$ ] and $[T F \Pi]$ in section 2.9. We take care of this point first, since it deals with the crucial aspect of impredicativity in Quest. A first idea is to try to understand those rather complex kinds and types as indexed products, in the naive sense of set theory. Namely, given a set $A$ and a function $G: A \rightarrow$ Set, define as usual:

$$
\times_{a \in A} G(a)=\left\{f \mid f: A \rightarrow \bigcup_{a \in A} G(a) \quad \text { and } \quad f(a) \in G(a)\right\}
$$

This product would not work, but the following simple restriction to realizable maps $f$, will work.

## Definition 3.1.6

Let $\left\langle A, \|_{A}\right\rangle \in \omega$-Set. and $G: A \rightarrow \omega$-Set. Define the $\omega$-set $\left\langle\Pi_{a \in A} G(a)\right.$, $\left.\Vdash_{\Pi G}\right\rangle$ by
(1) $f \in \Pi_{a \in A} G(a)$ iff $f \in \times_{a \in A} G(a)$ and $\exists n . \forall a \in A . \forall p \Vdash_{A} a . n \cdot p \Vdash_{G(a)} f(a)$,
(2) $n \Vdash_{\Pi G} f$ iff $\quad \forall a \in A . \forall p \Vdash_{A} a . n \cdot p \Vdash_{G(a)} f(a)$

When the range of $G$ is restricted to PER we obtain a product in PER:

## Definition 3.1.7

Let $\left\langle A, \mathbb{H}_{A}\right\rangle \in \omega$-Set and $G: A \rightarrow$ PER. Let $\Pi_{a \in A} G(a)_{\text {PER }} \in$ PER be defined by

$$
n\left(\Pi_{a \in A} G(a)_{\mathrm{PER}}\right) m \quad \text { iff } \quad \forall a \in A \cdot \forall p, q \Vdash_{A} a . n \cdot p G(a) m \cdot q
$$

A crucial property of $\omega$-Set is that the products defined in 3.1.6 and 3.1.7 are isomorphic for $G: A \rightarrow$ PER.

Theorem 3.1.8 (Bruce and Longo, 1989)
Let $\left\langle A, \mathbb{H}_{A}\right\rangle \in \omega$-Set and $G: A \rightarrow$ PER. Then

$$
\left\langle\Pi_{a \in A} \operatorname{In}(G(a)), \Vdash_{\Pi G}\right\rangle \cong \operatorname{In}\left(\Pi_{a \in A} G(a)_{\mathrm{PER}}\right) \text { in } \omega \text {-Set. }
$$

Proof
Let $\Vdash_{\Pi G}$ be defined as in 3.1.6. We first prove that $\Vdash_{\Pi G}$ is a single-valued relation. Assume that $n \Vdash_{\Pi G} f \wedge n \Vdash_{\Pi G} h$. We show that $\forall a \in A . f(a)=h(a)$ and thus, that $f=h$. By definition $\forall a \in A . \forall p \Vdash_{A} a \cdot n \cdot p \Vdash_{G(a)} f(a) \wedge n \cdot p \Vdash_{G(a)} h(a)$, and thus $f(a)=h(a)$ since, for all $a$, the relation $\Vdash_{G(a)}$ is single valued (and any $a$ in $A$ is realized by some natural number).

The isomorphism is given by $J(f)=\left\{n|n| \vdash_{n c} f\right\}$; thus the range of $J$ is a collection of disjoint sets in $\omega$ (equivalence classes). The isomorphism $J$ and its inverse are realized by the (indices for the) identity function.

The existence in PER of 'products' indexed over arbitrary $\omega$-sets is a very relevant fact. The point is to show that these objects are real products, in a precise categorical sense; this is hinted in Remark 3.15. What we can do here, in our elementary approach, is to use the idea in Definition 3.1.7, in order to construct exponents as particular cases of products.

Corollary 3.1.9
$\omega$-Set and PER are CCCs. Moreover, the embedding In:PER $\rightarrow \boldsymbol{\omega}$-Set is full, faithful and preserves the structure of CCC.

Proof
Observe that if $G: A \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\omega}$-Set is a constant function, $G(a)=\left\langle B, \vdash_{B}\right\rangle$ for all $a \in A$, say, then $\left\langle\Pi_{a \in A} G(a), \Vdash_{\Pi G}\right\rangle=\left\langle B^{A}, \Vdash_{A \rightarrow B}\right\rangle$ is the exponent representing $\omega$-Set $[A, B]$ in $\omega$-Set. Clearly, in that case, $n \mathbb{H}_{A \rightarrow B} f$ iff $\forall a \in A . \forall p \Vdash_{A} a . n \cdot p \Vdash_{B} f(a)$. Products are
defined by using any bijective pairing functions from $\omega \times \omega$ to $\omega$. Any singleton set $S$ gives a terminal object $\Delta(S)$. Eval and the currying operation $\Lambda$ are defined as in Set and are realized by (the indexes of) the universal function and the function $s$ of the $s-m-n$ theorem. (The reader may check this as an exercise, or see Asperti and Longo, 1991 for details.)

The same argument applies to PER by taking, for $A \in$ PER, $G: A \rightarrow$ PER constant in 3.1.8. (Just recall that PER may be viewed as the $\omega$-set $\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{0}}=\Delta$ (PER) and set $\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle=\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{0}}$.) Or also, by embedding PER in $\omega$-Set by $I n$, the corresponding $\omega$-sets give exponents, products, and terminal objects (up to isomorphisms), as In trivially satisfies the properties stated.

To clarify the construction, let us look more closely to exponent objects in PER. Take, say, $A \rightarrow B$, that is, the representative of $\operatorname{PER}[A, B]$. Then by definition each map $f \in \operatorname{PER}[A, B]$ is uniquely associated with the equivalence class of its realizers, ${ }^{\ulcorner } p^{1_{A \rightarrow B} \in A \rightarrow B \text {, say, in the sense of 3.1.3. }}$

It should be clear that the notion of realizer, or 'type-free computation' computing the typed function, is made possible by the underlying type-free universe, ( $\omega, \cdot$ ). As we will discuss later, this gives mathematical meaning to the intended type-free computations of a typed program after compilation. As for now, this feature of the realizability model suggests a distinction between isomorphisms in our categories, which does not need to make sense in other frames (and is relevant for the intuition on which our mathematical understanding is based):

## Definition 3.1.10

An isomorphism $f: A \cong B$ in $\omega$-Set is identical (or is an identical isomorphism) if both $f$ and its inverse $f^{-1}$ are realized by the indices of the identity function.

It is easy to rephrase this notion for objects in PER. Note though that $A \cong B$ in PER via an identical isomorphism iff $A=B$ (that is, $A$ and $B$ are equal).

In $\omega$-Set, though, the isomorphism in 3.1.8 is identical (but it is not an identity).

## Proposition 3.1.11

In:PER $\rightarrow \omega$-Set preserves produces and exponents to within identical isomorphism.

## Proof

Exercise. (The category oriented reader may check these preservation properties also for equalizers, limits ... and observe that they are generally not on the nose.)

In summary, our types may be essentially viewed as kinds, by a very natural (and strong) embedding. We applied this embedding in Theorem 3.1.8, and gave there a unified understanding of various products and arrows in the syntax. However, Theorem 3.1.8 really leads to much more than the cartesian closure of PER, which is shown in Corollary 3.1.9. In plain terms, 3.1.8 is the crucial step towards the meaning of the second-order (polymorphic) types, namely of the types obtained by
indexing a collection of types over a kind, possibly over the collection of all types (an impredicative construction, see Longo, 1988).

### 3.2 Inclusion and power kinds

The purpose of this section is to set the basis for the semantics of the subkind and subtype relations in Quest.

Definition 3.2.1 (subkinds)
Let $\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle,\left\langle B, \Vdash_{B}\right\rangle \in \boldsymbol{\omega}$-Set. Define:

$$
\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle \leqslant\left\langle B, \Vdash_{B}\right\rangle \quad \text { iff } \quad A \subseteq B \quad \text { and } \quad \forall a \in A . \forall n .\left(n \Vdash_{A} a \Rightarrow n \Vdash_{B} a\right) \quad \square
$$

The idea in this definition is that kinds may be related by the $\leqslant$ relation in $\omega$-Set only when they are actually subsets, and when the realizability relation is defined in accordance with this. Thus there is no need of coercions (equivalently, coercions are just identity functions). Hence, the subsumption rule [ $K S u b$ ] for kinds is realized. Subtyping will be interpreted in PER in a more subtle way, which allows a closer look at the computational properties of the types of programs.

Definition 3.2.2 (subtypes)
Let $A, B \in$ PER. Define:

$$
A \leqslant B \quad \text { iff } \quad \forall n, m .(n A m \Rightarrow n B m)
$$

Both $\leqslant$ relations in $\omega$-Set and PER are reflexive and transitive. They are even antisymmetric, because for $\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle,\left\langle B, \Vdash_{b}\right\rangle \in \omega$-Set we have $\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle=\left\langle B, \Vdash_{B}\right\rangle \Leftrightarrow$ $\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle \leqslant\left\langle B, \Vdash_{B}\right\rangle \wedge\left\langle B, \Vdash_{B}\right\rangle \leqslant\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle$. Similarly, for $C, D \in \mathbf{P E R}$ we have $C=D \Leftrightarrow C \leqslant D \wedge D \leqslant C$.

The semantic notion of subtype we are using here is the one defined in Bruce and Longo (1989). However, we differ from that approach for subkinds, in order to model the strong relation we formalized in the syntax of Quest.

Clearly, ' $\leqslant$ ' is a partial order which turns the objects of PER into an algebraic complete lattice. When $A$ and $B$ are in PER and $A \leqslant B$, then there is a coercer $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}$ from $A$ to $B$. It is defined by the map $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}: Q(A) \rightarrow Q(B)$ such that $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}\left({ }^{\Gamma} n_{A}\right)=\left\ulcorner{ }^{\prime}\right\rceil_{B}$, which is computed by any index of the identity function. By definition, $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}$ is uniquely determined by $A$ and $B$. (We may omit the subscripts, if there is no ambiguity.)

Intuitively, given $n$ such that $n A n$, the coercion $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}$ takes its $A$-equivalence class,
 morphism, is computed by all the indices of the identity function. Note that in general $\left.{ }{ }_{n}\right\rceil_{A}$ is smaller than $\left.{ }{ }^{n}\right\rceil_{B}$; they coincide just when $Q(A) \subseteq Q(B)$, a special case of $A \leqslant B$. Note also that for $A, B \in \mathbf{P E R}$, if $\operatorname{In}(A) \leqslant \operatorname{In}(B)$ regarded as $\omega$-sets, then $A \leqslant B$. The reverse implication holds only when $Q(A) \subseteq Q(B)$. The result is that, here, $\leqslant$ is used with a slightly different meaning in the two categories, in contrast to the approach in Bruce and Longo (1989). The advantage is given by the construction of a model of the current rich kind and type theory.

The power operation is expressed in terms of quasi-functors, a weak notion of categorical transformation between categories, widely used in several settings (see Martini 1988 for recent applications to the semantics of the $\lambda$-calculus). This interpretation is due to the blend of set-theoretical and categorical intuition at the base of the current model of subtyping in a higher-order language. Quasi-functors take morphisms to sets of morphisms which behave consistently with respect to application (see below), and are such that the image of each identity map contains the identity in the target category.

## Definition 3.2.3

The power quasi-functor $\mathscr{P}: \mathbf{P E R} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\omega}$-Set is given by: on objects: $\mathscr{P} A=\langle\{B \in \mathbf{P E R} \mid B \leqslant A\}$, $\Vdash\rangle$, where $\forall B \leqslant A \forall n n \Vdash B$;
on morphisms: for $f: A \rightarrow C$ and $p \Vdash f$, define $\mathscr{P}_{p}(f): \mathscr{P} A \rightarrow \mathscr{P} C$ pointwise by

$$
m \mathscr{P}_{p}(f)(B) n \quad \text { iff } \quad \exists m^{\prime}, n^{\prime} \cdot m^{\prime} B n^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad m=p \cdot m^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad n=p \cdot n^{\prime}
$$

Set then $\mathscr{P}(f)=\left\{\mathscr{P}_{p}(f) \mid p \Vdash f\right\}$.
For each $f: A \rightarrow C$ and $p \Vdash f$, one has $\mathscr{P}_{p}(f) \in \omega$-Set $[\mathscr{P} A, \mathscr{P} C]$ since $\omega$-Set $[\mathscr{P} A, \mathscr{P} C]=$ $\operatorname{Set}[\mathscr{P} A, \mathscr{P} C]$ in view of the full realizability relation given to the $\omega$-set $\mathscr{P} C$. (More generally, each set-theoretic function which has as its target an object in the range of $\Delta$ Set $\rightarrow \omega$-Set is realizable by all indices.)

It is also easy to observe that $\mathscr{P}(f \circ g) \subseteq \mathscr{P}(f) \circ \mathscr{P}(g)$ and $i d \in \mathscr{P}(i d)$ for $f, g$ and $i d$ in the due types. This proves that $\mathscr{P}$ is a quasi-functor.

We claim that the interpretation of subtyping we are using, faithfully corresponds to the intuitive semantics of subtyping (or is 'compelling', as suggested in Mitchell, 1988 with reference to Bruce and Longo, 1989).

Note first that the coercion $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}$ in general is not a mono (or injective map) in PER. It happens to be so only when $Q(A) \subseteq Q(B)$, that is, when one also has $\operatorname{In}(A) \leqslant \operatorname{In}(B)$, as $\omega$-sets. Indeed, the topos theoretic notion of subobject as mono from $A$ to $B$, given by $Q(A) \subseteq Q(B)$, would not be able to give us the antimonotonicity of ' $\rightarrow$ ' in the first argument, and thus the simple but important Theorems 3.4.1 and 3.4.2.

Moreover, in categories (and toposes) one usually works 'to within isomorphisms', while the programming understanding of subtypes and inheritance is surely not 'to within isomorphism'. At most, the programming understanding is 'to within identical isomorphisms', as a general isomorphism may be a very complicated program and is not likely to be computationally irrelevant.

In conclusion, we want a mathematical semantics which reflects the intuition of the programmer, who views a subtype almost as a subset, but not exactly, as some coercion may be allowed. Our model suggests what sort of coercions may be generally natural: they must be computed by the type-free identical maps and preserved by identical isomorphisms.

This interpretation explains why coercions may disappear in the description of the programming language and why they do not show up at compile time, even though they do not need to be exactly the identity. In our understanding, the compilation of
a typed program into its type-free version corresponds to the passage from a morphism in the category of types or kinds, PER or $\omega$-Set, to its type-free realizers. Type coercions, in particular, are realized by identical computations.

Because of this interplay between sets, computations and categories, the present approach to subtypes is halfway between the set-theoretic notion of subset and the category (or topos) theoretic subobjects. We claim that this is a suitable mathematical understanding of the programmer's attitude.

We interpret now the formal equivalence of kinds and types as the equality in the model. It is then easy to prove that the relations $\leqslant$ in 3.2.1-3.2.2, and the quasifunctor $\mathscr{P}$ in 3.2.3, satisfy the applicable properties listed under 'Kind inclusion' and 'Type inclusion', in section 2.9. We are then left with justifying subsumption and coercion, described in section 2.5 . We have already discussed the meaning of coercions; these ideas will lead to the formal interpretation of Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{c}}$ in part 4. Subsumption and Quest will be dealt with in part 5. As already mentioned, recursive types and functions are not considered.

### 3.3 Operator kinds

The formation, introduction and elimination rules for operators ([KFП], [TIT], and [TEП]) are easily taken care of. Definition 3.1.6 tells us that we can form a kind, the $\omega$-set $\left\langle\Pi_{a \in A} G(a), \Vdash_{\Pi G}\right\rangle$, out of any kind ( $\omega$-set) $\langle A, \Vdash$, $\rangle$ and any function $G: A \rightarrow \omega$-Set $[K F \Pi]$. By definition, the elements of $\left\langle\Pi_{a \in A} G(a), \Vdash_{\Pi G}\right\rangle$ are the (computable) functions $f$ such that, when fed with $a \in A$ give as output elements $f(a)$ of $G(a)$. This is exactly what rules [ $T I \Pi$ ] and [ $T E \Pi$ ] formalize.

Rule $[T \Pi \beta]$ is understood in the model by the behaviour of a $\lambda$-term as a function. Indeed, $[T \Pi \eta]$ stresses that in any model, functions are interpreted extensionally.

### 3.4 The kinds of types

The lattice PER has $\underline{\omega}=(\omega, \omega \times \omega)$ as largest element, that is, $\omega$ with the full relation. Clearly, $\underline{\omega}$ contains just one equivalence class, $\omega$. Thus $\underline{\omega}$ gives meaning to Top, and $\omega$ to top. Moreover, the $\omega$-set of all p.e.r.'s is given by $\mathbf{M}_{\mathrm{o}}=\mathscr{P}(\underline{\omega})$.

Rule [TFП] here is given meaning by Definition 3.1.7. The interpretation is apparently very simple, but there is a crucial asymmetry with respect to [ $K F \Pi$ ]. Rule [ $K F \Pi]$ has the structure:

$$
\frac{\text { kind kind }}{\text { kind }}
$$

Rule [TFП], instead, looks like:

$$
\frac{\text { kind type }}{\text { type }}
$$

In particular, the kind on the left may be $\mathscr{T}$, the kind of types.
The schema is the crucial type construction in explicit polymorphism. It is impredicative in that, in order to know what types are, one must already know their
entire collection, $\mathscr{T}$. (Feferman, 1987, 1988, and Longo, 1988 provide further discussions.) This peculiar type construction is reflected in the related rules.

In [VIП] one allows the formation of terms where abstraction is not done with respect to variables ranging over a type, as in the first-order case. Instead, they range over a kind (possibly $\mathscr{T}$, again). By this, it makes sense by rule [VEП] to apply a term to an element of a kind (possibly a type, and even the type of that very term). This is the dimensional clash which is hard to justify mathematically, and is a central difficulty in the semantics of polymorphism.

Theorem 3.1.8 relates $[K F \Pi$ ] and [ $T F \Pi$ ] by telling us that they are interpreted by the same construction, in the universe of $\omega$-sets. This gives mathematical unity and clarify of meaning. In particular, it says that the interpretations of terms constructed by $[V I \Pi]$ are going to be computable functions which may be fed with elements of an $\omega$-set and which then output a term of the expected type, as required by [VE $\Pi$ ] and as modelled in the structure by Definition 3.1.6.

Rule $[\operatorname{TInc} / \Pi]$ is validated by the following theorem:

## Theorem 3.4.1

Let $\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle,\left\langle A^{\prime}, \Vdash_{A^{\prime}}\right\rangle \in \omega$-Set and $G: A \rightarrow$ PER, $G^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow$ PER. Assume $A^{\prime} \leqslant A$ in $\omega$-Set and that $\forall a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}, G\left(a^{\prime}\right) \leqslant G^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$, in PER. Then:

$$
\Pi_{a \in A} G(a) \leqslant \Pi_{a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}} G^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { in PER. }
$$

## Proof

Recall that $n\left(\Pi_{a \in A} G(a)_{\text {PER }}\right) m$ iff $\forall a \in A . \forall p, q \Vdash_{A} a . n \cdot p G(a) m \cdot q$. Then $\forall a \in A^{\prime} . \forall p, q$ $\mathbb{H}_{A^{\prime}} a . n \cdot p G(a) m \cdot q$. Since $n \cdot p G(a) m \cdot q$ implies $n \cdot p G^{\prime}(a) m \cdot q$, we are done.

With reference to the discussion on rules $[K F \Pi]$ and $[T F \Pi]$ above, a type formation rule for products with the structure:

$$
\frac{\text { type type }}{\text { type }}
$$

would be a first-order rule and may be soundly interpreted over PER (Ehrhard, 1988). Quest ${ }_{(c)}$ has nothing of this structure for products, as it complicates typechecking and compilation. An implicit use of it is the formal description and the semantics of records given in Bruce and Longo (1989). In the current paper we could avoid any reference to first-order constructs by coding record types in the second-order language (section 2.10). More on their interpretation will be given in section 3.5 .

As for ordinary higher type functions, the interpretation of their rules, by Corollary 3.1.9, is given as a special case of the meaning of the rules above, except for [TIncl $\rightarrow$ ], since in this specific model types happen to be kinds (by the embedding In). The arrow types are just degenerated products (that is, products defined by a constant function, as in 3.1.9).

As an exercise, let us see what happens to the exponents in PER and their elements (the equivalence classes). This may be done by a little theorem, which proves the validity of rule [ $\mathrm{TIncl} \rightarrow$ ] in Section 2.8.

## Proposition 3.4.2

Let $A, A^{\prime}, B, B^{\prime} \in \mathbf{P E R}$ be such that $A^{\prime} \leqslant A$ and $B \leqslant B^{\prime}$. Then $A \rightarrow B \leqslant A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}$. In particular, for $n(A \rightarrow B) n,\left\ulcorner{ }^{\ulcorner }\right\urcorner_{A \rightarrow B} \subseteq\left\ulcorner{ }^{\ulcorner }\right\urcorner_{A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}}$

Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n(A \rightarrow B) m \Leftrightarrow \forall p, q \cdot(p A q \Rightarrow n \cdot p B m \cdot q) \\
& \Rightarrow \forall p, q \cdot\left(p A^{\prime} q \Rightarrow n \cdot p B^{\prime} m \cdot q\right), \\
& \quad \text { as } p A^{\prime} q \Rightarrow p A q \Rightarrow n \cdot p B m \cdot q \Rightarrow n \cdot p B^{\prime} m \cdot q \\
& \Leftrightarrow n\left(A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}\right) m
\end{aligned}
$$

The rest is obvious.
Proposition 3.4.2 gives the antimonotonicity of $\rightarrow$ in its first argument, as formalized in the rules of Quest [TIncl $\rightarrow$ ], and required by inheritance. Moreover, and more related to the specific nature of this interpretation of $\rightarrow$, Proposition 3.4.2 reveals a nice interplay between the extensional meaning of programs and the intensional nature of the underlying structure.

Indeed, typed programs are interpreted as extensional functions in their types, as we identify each morphism in PER with the equivalence class of its realizers. That is, if $n \therefore_{A \rightarrow B} f$, then $\left\ulcorner{ }^{\wedge}\right\urcorner_{A \rightarrow B} \in A \rightarrow B$ represents $f \in \operatorname{PER}[A, B]$ in the exponent object $A \rightarrow B$. Assume for example that $M: A \rightarrow B$ is interpreted by $f \in \operatorname{PER}[A, B]$. (For the moment we will call $A$ both a type and that type's interpretation as a p.e.r.; see part 4 where the interpretation of terms and types is given.) In the assumption of the proposition, $f \in \mathbf{P E R}[A, B]$ and $c(f) \in \operatorname{PER}\left[A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right]$ are distinct elements, and live in different function spaces. The element $c(f)$ is uniquely obtained by the coercion $c$, which gives meaning to adjusting the types in $M$ in order to obtain a program in $A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}$. Also, when viewed as equivalence classes of realizers, $f$ and $c(f)$ are different sets of numbers.

However, the intended meaning of inheritance is that one should be able to run any program in $A \rightarrow B$ on terms of type $A^{\prime}$ also, as $A^{\prime}$ is included in $A$. When $n \Vdash_{A \rightarrow B} f$, this is exactly what $\left.\left.{ }^{\ulcorner }\right\urcorner_{A \rightarrow B} \subseteq{ }^{\ulcorner }{ }^{\prime}\right\urcorner_{A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}}$ expresses: any computation which realizes $f$ in the underlying type-free universe actually computes $c(f)$ also. Of course, there may be more programs for $c(f)$, in particular if $A^{\prime}$ is strictly smaller than $A$. Thus, even though $f$ and $c(f)$ are distinct maps (at least because they have different types) and interpret different programs, their type-free computations are related by a meaningful inclusion, namely $\left.{ } n^{7_{A \rightarrow B}} \subseteq{ }^{\ulcorner }\right\urcorner^{\urcorner_{A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}}}$ in this model.

This elegant interplay between the extensional collapse, which is the key step in the hereditary construction of the types as partial equivalence relations, and the intensional nature of computations is a fundamental feature of the realizability models.

### 3.5 Records

Formally, there is nothing to be said about the semantics of records, as they are a derived notion. However, we mention one crucial merit of the coding proposed and its meaning.

Record types should not be understood simply as cartesian products. The main reason is that the meaning of a record type $R^{\prime}$ with more fields than a record type $R$ (but where all the fields in $R$ are in $R^{\prime}$ ) should be smaller than the meaning of $R$. Indeed, $R^{\prime}$ contains fewer record realizers. This situation was obtained, say, in the PER interpretation of Bruce and Longo (1989) by understanding record types as indexed, first-order products. That is, if $I$ is a (finite) set of (semantic) labels, then $\Pi_{i \in I} A_{i}$ would interpret a record whose fields are interpreted by the $A_{i}$ 's. By Theorem 3.4.1, $\Pi_{i \in I} A_{i}$ gives the required contravariance in the meaning of records.

In the present approach, we can use the expressive power of Quest as a higher-order language with a Top type, and model records with little effort. Record types are coded as ordered tuples. Top is the last factor of the product and replaces missing fields (with respect to the order), and by doing so it guarantees contravariance. This intuition is precisely reflected in the model, by interpreting Top as the largest p.e.r. Thus, any extension of a given record type by informative fields, that is, by fields whose meaning is different from the full relation on $\omega$, gives smaller p.e.r.'s.

## 4 Semantic interpretation of Quest ${ }_{c}$

In this section we give the formal semantics of Quest ${ }_{c}$ over the $\omega$-Set/PER model. The basic idea, for the inductive definition, is to interpret type environments as $\omega$-sets with a realizability notion which codes pairs as elements of a dependent sum. In this way, if for example $E=(\varnothing, y: B, x: A)$, then $\llbracket E \rrbracket$ contains all pairs:

$$
\langle\mathrm{e}, a\rangle \text { with } \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket \varnothing, y: B \rrbracket \text { and } a \in \llbracket \varnothing, y: B \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e}
$$

In this approach one has to interpret judgments, not just terms, as judgments contain the required information to interpret (free) variables. For example, the variable $x$ is given meaning within the judgment $E \vdash x: A$, say, for $E$ as above. In particular, its interpretation $\llbracket E \vdash x: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e}^{\prime}$, for a fixed environment value $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}=\langle\mathrm{e}, a\rangle \in \llbracket E \rrbracket$, is the second projection, and gives $a \in \llbracket \varnothing, y: B \vdash A$ type $\rrbracket$. (See also Scedrov, 1988, and Luo, 1988.) The projection is clearly a realizable map, that is, it is computed by the index of a partial recursive function. Note that the interpretation of closed terms depends on the judgments they appear in, in particular on the types they are assigned to.

Moreover, the meaning of a judgment gives, simultaneously, the interpretation of a construct (kind, type, or term) and makes a validity assertion; for example, it says that a given term actually lives in the given type, under the given assumptions.

Kinds, types and terms are interpreted as maps from the $\omega$-set interpreting the given environment to $\omega$-Set, PER, and the intended type, respectively. As our morphisms are extensional functions, the interpretation is uniquely determined by their behaviour on the elements of the environment. The indexes realizing these maps may be computed by induction, using as base the indexes for the projection functions. The crucial step is the interpretation of lambda abstraction and application for terms. For example, given a realizer $p$ for the map $\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle \mapsto \llbracket E, X: K \vdash b: B \rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle$, a realizer for $\mathrm{e} \mapsto \llbracket E \vdash \lambda(X: K) b: \Pi(X: K) B \rrbracket \mathrm{e}$ is obtained by the recursive function $s$ of the $s-m-n$ (or iteration) theorem, namely by an index for $n \mapsto s(\langle p, n\rangle)$, where $s(\langle p, n\rangle)(m)=$ $p(\langle n, m\rangle)$. Similarly, any index for the universal partial recursive function gives the
realizers for an applicative term. We prefer to leave to the reader the intensional details of the computations and focus on the extensional presentation of the interpretation maps. These maps already require a fair amount of detail for a full description, and should not be further obscured by the explicit mention of the indexes of the realizable functions.

Observe that, in a fixed environment, kinds are interpreted as $\omega$-sets, while types are p.e.r.'s. More precisely, operator kinds are functions which take an element of a kind (possibly a type) as input and give an element of a kind (possibly a type) as output. Also, these functions live in an $\omega$-set, which is obtained as an indexed product in the sense of 3.1.6.

As is common when dealing with CCCs, we make no distinction between an exponent object, the p.e.r. $A \rightarrow B$, say, and the set of morphisms, PER $[A, B]$, it represents. Thus, the meaning of a term in $\operatorname{PER}[A, B]$, say, may be viewed either as a function from the p.e.r. $A$ to the p.e.r. $B$, or as the equivalence class of its realizers in the p.e.r. $A \rightarrow B$ (see also Definition 4.1.1.(1) below). This poses no problem with regard to $\omega$-Set, since an exponent object is exactly an ( $\omega$-) set of (realizable) functions, as in the category of sets.

### 4.1 Interpretation

We interpret, in order, environments, kinds, types and terms.

## Environments

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
E=\varnothing & \llbracket E \rrbracket=\langle\{1\}, \Vdash\rangle \text { where } \forall n \in \omega n \Vdash 1 \\
E=E^{\prime}, X: K & \llbracket E \rrbracket=\left\langle\left\{\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle \mid \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E^{\prime} \rrbracket \wedge A \in \llbracket E^{\prime} \vdash-K k i n d \rrbracket \mathrm{e}\right\}, \Vdash_{E}\right\rangle \\
& \text { where }\langle n, m\rangle \Vdash_{E}\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle \text { iff } n \Vdash_{E^{\prime}} \mathrm{e} \text { and } m \Vdash_{\left[E^{\prime} \vdash K k i n a\right] \mathrm{e}} A \\
E=E^{\prime}, x: A & \llbracket E \rrbracket=\left\langle\left\{\langle\mathrm{e}, a\rangle \mid \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E^{\prime} \rrbracket \wedge a \in \llbracket E^{\prime} \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e}\right\}, \mathbb{H}_{E}\right\rangle \\
& \text { where }\langle n, m\rangle \Vdash_{E}\langle\mathrm{e}, a\rangle \text { iff } n \Vdash_{E^{\prime}} \mathrm{e} \text { and } m \Vdash_{\left[E^{\prime} \vdash\right. \text { Atype]e }} a
\end{array}
$$

## Kinds

Types

| $\vdash E=$ | $\begin{aligned} & \forall \mathrm{e}=\left\langle\ldots\left\langle\mathrm{e}_{n}, A_{n}\right\rangle, \ldots \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash X_{n}: K_{n} \rrbracket \mathrm{e}\right. \\ & =A_{n} \in \llbracket E^{\prime} \vdash K_{n} \text { kind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e}_{n} \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\vdash$ Eenv | $\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket .[E \vdash$ Top type $\rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\underline{\omega}=(\omega, \omega \times \omega)$ |
| $\vdash$ Eenv | $\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash \Pi(X: K) B$ type $]$ e |
| $\vdash$ Eenv | $\begin{aligned} & =\Pi_{A \in[E \vdash \kappa \text { kind]e }} \llbracket E, X: K \vdash B \text { type } \rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle \\ & \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket \llbracket E \vdash A \rightarrow B \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\llbracket E \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \rightarrow \llbracket E \vdash B \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \end{aligned}$ |

## Terms


$\vdash$ Eenv $\quad \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket \cdot \llbracket E \vdash b(A): B\{X \leftarrow A\} \rrbracket \mathrm{e}$
$=(\llbracket E \vdash b: \Pi(X: K) B \rrbracket \mathrm{e})(\llbracket E \vdash A$ type $\rrbracket \mathrm{e})$
$\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash \lambda(x: A) b: A \rightarrow B \llbracket \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \vdash$ A type $\rrbracket \mathrm{e} \rightarrow \llbracket E \vdash B$ type】e
such that $\forall a \in \llbracket E \vdash A$ type $\rrbracket$.
$(\llbracket E \vdash \lambda(x: A) b: A \rightarrow B \rrbracket \mathrm{e})(a)=\llbracket E, x: A \vdash b: B \rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, a\rangle$
$\vdash$ Eenv
$\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash b(a): B \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=(\llbracket E \vdash b: A \rightarrow B \rrbracket \mathrm{e})(\llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e})$
In view of the interpretation of kinds, types and terms, the meaning of the judgments is the obvious one. The : and : relations go to $\in$ for $\omega$-sets and p.e.r.'s, respectively; the relations <: and « are interpreted as subkind and subtype in $\omega$-Set and PER; finally, $\ll$ and $<\gg$ are just equality.

Indeed, by induction on types and terms, one may check directly that this is a good interpretation. In particular, one can check that all the given functions are actually realized, as mentioned above, and hence that types and terms inhabit the intended function and product spaces; see 4.1.2. (For example, $\llbracket E \vdash \lambda(X: K) b: \Pi(X: K) B \rrbracket e$ is actually in $\Pi_{A \in\lfloor E \vdash K \text { kind] } \mathrm{e}} \llbracket E, X: K \vdash B$ type $\rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle$.) However, this also follows from general categorical facts, namely the cartesian closure of $\omega$-Set and the observation that PER, viewed as $\mathbf{M}_{0}$, is an internal CCC of $\omega$-Set where the internal product $\Pi$ is right adjoint to the diagonal functor. (We obtain an internal model of Girard's F $\omega$; see Asperti and Longo, 1991, where the general categorical meaning of $F \omega$ is given.)

The next theorem, whose proof is left to the reader, summarizes all these facts, and states the soundness of the interpretation. Before stating it, though, we set a better foundation for the interplay of the interpretations of 'terms as functions' and 'terms as equivalence classes'. This is done by the following definition which extends the applicative structure of ( $\omega, \cdot$ ) to equivalence classes, and also to the application of an equivalence class to an element of an $\omega$-set (cf. 3.1.7).

Definition 4.1.1
(1) Let $A$ and $B$ be p.e.r.'s. Define then, for $n(A \rightarrow B) n$ and $m A m$,

$$
\ulcorner n\urcorner_{A \rightarrow B} \cdot\ulcorner m\urcorner_{A}=\ulcorner n \cdot m\urcorner_{B}
$$

(2) Let $\left\langle K, \Vdash_{K}\right\rangle \in \omega$-Set and $G: K \rightarrow$ PER. Set, for short, $\Pi=\Pi_{A \in K} G(A)_{\text {PER }}$ and define, for $n \Pi n, A \in K$, and $p \Vdash A: \quad{ } \quad\urcorner_{n} \cdot A=\ulcorner n \cdot p\urcorner_{G(A)}$
(Note that ' $\cdot$ ' $\Pi \times K \rightarrow U_{A \in K} G(A)$ depends on $K$ and $G$.) This is well defined as ${ }^{\ulcorner } \cdot p \cdot{ }^{7}{ }_{G(A)}$ does not depend on the choice of the number $p$, which realizes $A$.

By this explicit reconstruction of the applicative behaviour, one may more clearly understand equivalence classes in the p.e.r.'s $A \rightarrow B$ and $\Pi_{A \in K} G(A)_{\text {PER }}$ as functions in the due types.

## Theorem 4.1.2

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \vdash \text { Eenv } \quad \Rightarrow \llbracket E \rrbracket \text { is a well-defined } \omega \text {-set } \\
& E \vdash K \text { kind } \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash K \text { kind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \text { is a well-defined } \omega \text {-set } \\
& E \vdash A: K \quad \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash A: K \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \vdash \text { Kkind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \\
& E \vdash \text { A type } \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket \cdot \llbracket E \vdash \text { A type】e } \in \mathbf{M}_{0} \\
& E \vdash a: A \quad \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \\
& E \vdash K<: L \quad \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash K \text { kind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \leqslant \llbracket E \vdash L \text { kind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \text { in } \omega \text {-Set } \\
& E \vdash A<B \quad \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \leqslant \llbracket E \vdash B \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \text { in PER } \\
& E \vdash K \lll L \quad \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash \text { Kkind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\llbracket E \vdash \text { Lkind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \\
& E \vdash A \Leftrightarrow B \quad \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\llbracket E \vdash B \text { type } \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \\
& E \vdash a \leftrightarrow b \quad \Rightarrow \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket \cdot \llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\llbracket E \vdash b: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 4.2 Emulating coercions by bounded quantification

In Quest ${ }_{c}$ and in its current interpretation we have no subsumption, but instead we have coercions. This means that programs of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\lambda(x: B) d)(a) \quad \text { where } \quad a: A<B \text { (with } A \neq B) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

are not legal: an explicit coercion has to be applied, as in

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\lambda(x: B) d)\left(\mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a)\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this latter case, one may avoid both subsumption and coercions and recast (1) via an additional bounded quantifier:

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\lambda(X<B) \lambda(x: X) d)(A)(a) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that (3) has the same effect as (1) or as (2), since this is how (1) can be correctly expressed in our current framework, by coercions. The fact that (2) and (3) are equivalent is a fairly deep property of the semantics, relating a bounded quantifier to a coercion. In general, this is not derivable from the syntax.

The following theorem states that, semantically, coercions can be removed in favour of bounded quantifiers.

Recall that $E \vdash a: A \wedge E \vdash A<B \Rightarrow E \vdash \mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a): B$.

Theorem 4.2.1
Assume that $E \vdash d: D, E \vdash a: A$ and $E \vdash A<B$. Then, in PER one has

$$
(\lambda(X<B) \lambda(x: X) d)(A)(a)=(\lambda(x: B) d)\left(\mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a)\right)
$$

Proof
For simplicity, we fix an environment $e$ and identify types $A, B$ and $D$ with their meanings as p.e.r. in e.

Set $\Pi=\Pi_{X \leqslant B} X \rightarrow D$ and let ${ }{ }^{n}{ }^{7}{ }_{n}=\llbracket E \vdash(\lambda(X<B) \lambda(x: X) d): \Pi(X<B)(X \rightarrow D) \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \in \Pi$. Then $\left.{ }{ }^{n}\right\urcorner_{\Pi} \cdot C=\left\ulcorner n \cdot p{ }^{\prime}{ }_{C \rightarrow D}\right.$ for any $C$, such that $E \vdash C<B$, and any $p$, since any number $p$ realizes $C$, when $C \leqslant B$, by definition of the power quasi-functor.

Let $m$ now be such that $\llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket e=\left\ulcorner{ }_{m}{ }^{7}{ }_{A}\right.$. Then $\mathbf{c}_{A, B}\left(\left\ulcorner{ }^{\prime}\right\rceil_{A}\right)=\left\ulcorner{ }^{\prime}\right\rceil_{B}$ and:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \llbracket E \vdash(\lambda(X<: B) \lambda(x: X) d)(A)(a): D \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \\
& =\ulcorner n\urcorner_{\Pi} \cdot A \cdot\left\ulcorner_{m}\right\urcorner_{A}=\left\ulcorner_{n} \cdot p\right\urcorner_{A \rightarrow D} \cdot\left\ulcorner_{m}\right\urcorner_{A}=\left\ulcorner_{n} \cdot p \cdot m\right\urcorner_{D} \\
& =\left\ulcorner_{n} \cdot p\right\urcorner_{B \rightarrow D} \cdot\left\ulcorner_{m}\right\urcorner_{B} \text { where } n \cdot p(B \rightarrow D) n \cdot p \text { by 4.1.1(1) } \\
& =\left\ulcorner_{n}\right\urcorner_{\Pi} \cdot B \cdot\left\ulcorner_{m}\right\urcorner_{B} \text { by 4.1.1(2) } \\
& =\llbracket E \vdash(\lambda(X<B) \lambda(x: X) d)(B) \mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a): D \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \\
& =\llbracket E \vdash(\lambda(x: B) d) \mathbf{c}_{A, B}(a): D \rrbracket \mathrm{e} \text { by the syntax. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In Quest ${ }_{e}$, we dropped the subsumption rule in favour of coercions. However, there is also a proof-theoretic reason to warn the programmer about the use of subsumption in connection with ( $\eta$ ); namely, the equational system of typed terms would not be Church-Rosser any more (with respect to the obvious reduction rules). Consider, say:

$$
\lambda(x: A)(\lambda(y: B) e) x \quad(\text { with } x \notin F V(\lambda(y: B) \mathrm{e}))
$$

where $x$ is not free in $\lambda(y: B)$ e, and let $A<B$.
In the presence of subsumption, this program would type-check, for any e and $C$ such that e:C. However,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\lambda(x: A)(\lambda(y: B) \mathrm{e}) x \leadsto \lambda(y: B) \mathrm{e}: B \rightarrow C & \text { by }(\eta) \\
\lambda(x: A)(\lambda(y: B) \mathrm{e}) x \leadsto \lambda(x: A) \mathrm{e}: A \rightarrow C & \text { by }(\beta)
\end{array}
$$

and confluence would be lost. Because of this, we abandon $(\eta)$ in part 5.
In Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{c}}$, the program one has in mind when writing $\lambda(x: A)(\lambda(y: B) \mathrm{e}) x$, is actually described by the polymorphic term:

$$
\lambda(x: A)(\lambda(X<B) \lambda(y: X) \mathrm{e})(A)(x)
$$

which yields confluent reductions.
For this reason, $(\eta)$ is adopted in Quest as an equality rule, but not as a computation rule.

## 5 Semantic interpretation of Quest

In this section we model the original version of Quest, namely the language based on the subsumption rule [TSub/Quest] of section 2.9, instead of on coercions.

Subsumption is important for at least two reasons. First, programming with explicit coercions becomes too cumbersome; much of the appeal of subtyping has to
do with the flexibility and compactness provided by subsumption. Second, subsumption is intended not as an arbitrary coercion, but as a coercion that performs no work; this is essential for capturing the flavour of object-oriented programming, where subsumption is used freely as a way of viewing objects as members of different types.

Hence we feel we are justified in presenting more complex semantic techniques in order to give a faithful representation of subsumption.

Let ( $\mathscr{D}, \cdot)$ be a model of type-free lambda calculus. The construction of the categories $\mathscr{D}$-Set and $\mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{T}}$ over ( $\mathscr{D}, \cdot$ ) works similarly. Indeed, all the work carried on so far can be easily generalized to any (possibly partial) Combinatory Algebra or model of Combinatory Logic. In view of the relevance of Kleene's realizability interpretation of Intuitionistic Logic for these models, it is fair to call 'realizability structures' the categories $\mathscr{D}$-Set and $\mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{D}}$ over a Combinatory Algebra ( $\left.\mathscr{D}, \cdot\right)$. As already mentioned, we preferred ( $\omega, \cdot$ ) as it is more directly related to Kleene's work and because of the immediate intuitive appeal of classical recursion theory. However, we now need to be able to give meaning to type-free terms, which cannot be done over $(\omega, \cdot)$. For this purpose, we work over an arbitrary $\lambda$-model: that is, an applicative structure ( $\mathscr{D}, \cdot$ ) with an interpretation $\mathscr{D} \llbracket-\rrbracket$ of $\lambda$-terms defined, say, as in Hindley and Longo (1980) or Barendregt (1984).

The interpretation of Quest is given in two steps. First we translate typed terms into terms of the type-free calculus, by 'erasing-types'. We add to the latter only a constant symbol 'top', in order to take care of the corresponding constant in Quest.

In the second step, we use the meaning of the erased terms to interpret typed terms. Environments, kinds and types will be interpreted as in Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{e}}$, except for an 'isomorphic change' in the interpretation of product types. As for types in particular, this interpretation is possible since, in view of our formal definition of subkinds and of its semantics, we had no kind coercions even in Quest ${ }_{c}$, but just type coercions.

Terms may still be understood as morphisms, in the due types. We already used the identification of morphisms with the equivalence classes of their realizers. In the interpretation of Quest we exploit this correspondence and interpret typed terms directly as equivalence classes, with no ambiguity.

Briefly, for each environment $e=\left\langle\ldots\left\langle e_{n}, a_{n}\right\rangle, \ldots\right\rangle \in \llbracket E \rrbracket$ we choose an environment map $s_{e}: V a r \rightarrow \mathscr{D}$ which picks up an element of the equivalence class $a_{n}$. Then, by using these environment maps, we interpret a typed term as the equivalence class which contains the interpretation of its erasure.

The interpretation will not depend on the particular choice of the environment map.

### 5.1 Preliminaries and structures

The categories $\mathscr{D}$-Set and $\mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{D}}$ over $(\mathscr{D}, \cdot)$ are defined exactly as $\omega$-Set and $\mathbf{P E R}_{\omega}$ over ( $\omega, \cdot$ ), in 3.1.1 and 3.1.2. However, their use in the semantics of Quest will be slightly changed in a crucial point. Second-order impredicative quantification will not be interpreted exactly by the set-theoretic indexed product of realizable functions, as in 3.1.7. We will use instead an isomorphic, but not identical, interpretation of this quantification by p.e.r.'s obtained as a straightforward set-theoretic intersection. This
is made possible by the following simple, but fundamental theorem, which establishes a connection between the previous interpretation of higher-order quantification and the one given in Girard (1972) and Troelstra (1973). It was first suggested by Moggi, and actually started most of the recent work on the semantics of polymorphism by suggesting that Girard's model could be given a relevant categorical explanation. (See Remark 3.1.5.) We use it here as a tool for our semantic interpretation of Quest. We report its proof, since it matters for our purposes, as we point out in remark 5.1.2. Note first that, if $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a collection of p.e.r.'s, then $\cap_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is also a p.e.r. by

$$
n\left(\cap_{i \epsilon I} A_{i}\right) m \quad \text { iff } \quad n A_{i} m \text { for all } i \in I
$$

## Theorem 5.1.1

Let $\left\langle A, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle \in \mathscr{D}$-Set be such that $\Vdash_{A}=\mathscr{D} \times A$ and let $G: A \rightarrow \mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{D}}$. Then:

$$
\left(\Pi_{a \in A} G(a)\right)_{\mathbf{P E R}_{g}} \cong \cap_{a \in A} G(a) \text { in } \mathbf{P E} \mathbf{R}_{\mathscr{P}} .
$$

Proof (Longo and Moggi, 1988)
Let $S=\cap_{a \in A} G(a) \in \mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{P}}$. By definition both $\Pi_{a E A} G(a)_{\text {PER }_{g}}$ and $S$ are in $\mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{D}}$. Thus we need to define a bijection $H: S \rightarrow \prod_{a \in A} G(a)_{\text {PER }_{g}}$ and prove that it is realized with its inverse.
 since $\ulcorner n\rceil_{s}=\ulcorner m\rceil_{s}$ implies, $n G(a) m$ for all $a \in A$, and hence $\ulcorner n\rceil_{G(a)}=\left\ulcorner{ }^{\prime}\right\urcorner_{G(a)}$.

Consider now the combinator $k$ such that $k \cdot p \cdot q=p$, for all $p, q \in \mathscr{D}$. Then $k \cdot n$ realizes $H\left(\ulcorner n\urcorner_{s}\right)$, since

$$
\forall a \in A \cdot \forall q \Vdash_{A} a \cdot k \cdot n \cdot q=n \in\ulcorner n\urcorner_{G(a)}=H\left(\ulcorner n\urcorner_{S}\right)(a),
$$

and $k$ realizes $H$. It is easy to observe that $H$ is injective. Let us prove that $H$ is surjective.

If $h \in \Pi_{a \in A} G(a)$, then by definition, $\exists m \vdash_{\Pi G} h$; that is,

$$
\exists m . \forall a \in A . \forall q \Vdash_{A} a . m \cdot q \Vdash_{G(a)} h(a)
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\exists m . \forall a \in A . \forall q \in \mathscr{D} . h(a)=\left\ulcorner m \cdot q_{G(a)}, \quad \text { as } \quad \mathbb{F}_{A}=\mathscr{D} \times A\right.
$$

Fix now an element 0 of $\mathscr{D}$. Then, for $n=m \cdot 0$, we have $\forall a \in A \cdot n G(a) n$, that is, $n S n$. In conclusion, $\forall a \in A . H\left(\ulcorner n\urcorner_{S}\right)(a)={ }^{\ulcorner } 7_{G(a)}=h(a)$, that is, $H\left({ }^{\prime} n{ }^{7}{ }_{S}\right)=h$. Therefore $H^{-1}$ exists and it is realized by any $p \in \mathscr{D}$ such that $p . m=m \cdot 0$, for all $m \in \mathscr{D}$.

## Remark 5.1.2

The key idea in the proof consists in defining the applicative or functional behaviour of each equivalence class $\ulcorner n\urcorner_{S}$, say, in $S=\cap_{a \in A} G(a) \in \mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{D}}$, by setting

$$
\left.\left.{ }{ }_{n}\right\rceil_{S} \cdot a={ }^{\prime}\right\rceil_{G(a)}
$$

This is how, to within isomorphism, ${ } n\rceil_{s}$ defines a function in $\Pi_{a \in A} G(a)$. Observe that, when the isomorphism is given by the 'constant-constructor' combinator $k$, the proof relates this notion of application to the application $\left.{ }{ }_{n}\right\urcorner_{\Pi} \cdot a=\ulcorner n \cdot p\urcorner_{G(a)}$, for
$p \Vdash_{A} a$, as defined in 4.1.1. Indeed, $\ulcorner n \cdot p\rceil_{G(a)}$ is constant with respect to $p$, under the assumption $\Vdash_{A}=\mathscr{D} \times A$ in 5.1.1. The next proposition shows that this assumption is satisfied by the $\mathscr{D}$-sets we are interested in: that is, by the definable ones, in the language of Quest.

## Proposition 5.1.3

Let $\vdash E e n v$ and $E \vdash$ Kkind. Then, for all $e \in \llbracket E \rrbracket, \llbracket E \vdash K$ kind $\rrbracket \mathrm{e}$ is a $\mathscr{D}$-set $\left\langle\underline{A}, \Vdash_{A}\right\rangle$ with $\Vdash^{A}=\mathscr{D} \times \underline{A}$.

## Proof

This is clearly true for the base of the induction, in view of the interpretation of $\mathscr{T}$ and $\mathscr{P}(C)$, for any type $C$. (Recall that one even has $\mathscr{T}=\mathscr{P}($ Top $)$ ). Consider now $E \vdash \Pi(X: K) L$ kind. Then:

$$
\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash \Pi(X: K) L \text { kind } \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\left\langle\Pi_{A \in[E \vdash K k i n d] \mathrm{e}} \llbracket E, X: K \vdash L k i n d \rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle, \vdash_{\Pi G}\right\rangle,
$$

where $G(A)=\llbracket E, X: K \vdash L$ kind $\rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle$. By induction, just assume that, for all e and $A$, the $\mathscr{D}$-set $L(\mathrm{e}, A)=\llbracket E, X \because K \vdash L$ kind $\rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle$ has the full $\Vdash_{L}$ relation. Then any set theoretic function $f$ in $\times_{A \in โ E \vdash K k i n d]} \llbracket E, X: K \vdash L k i n d \rrbracket\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle$ is realized by any $n \in \mathscr{D}$, since one always has $n \cdot p \Vdash_{L} f(A)$, no matter which $A \in \llbracket E \vdash K$ kind $\rrbracket$ e and $p$ are taken.

Remark 5.1.4 (For readers with some experience in Category Theory.)
Continuing from Remark 3.1.5. In Hyland (1987) and Longo and Moggi (1988), the existence of a (internal) right adjoint to the diagonal functor, that is, the small completeness of PER in the Effective Topos or in $\omega$-Set, is shown by taking exactly the intersection as product (see Asperti and Longo, 1991 for details). This fully justifies the interpretation below of second-order impredicative types as intersections.

### 5.2 Interpretation $\llbracket-]^{\prime}$

We now translate typed terms into terms of the type-free calculus, by erasing all type information. The type-free $\lambda$-calculus is extended by a constant symbol, top.

## Definition 5.2.1

The translation map erase from typed terms into type-free terms is defined by induction on the structure of terms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{erase}(\lambda(X: K) b)=\operatorname{erase}(b) \\
& \operatorname{erase}(x)=x \\
& \operatorname{erase}(t o p)=\operatorname{top} \\
& \operatorname{erase}(\lambda(x: A) b)=\lambda x . \operatorname{erase}(b) \\
& \operatorname{erase}(b(a))=\operatorname{erase}(b) \operatorname{erase}(a) \\
& \operatorname{erase}(\lambda(X: K) b)=\operatorname{erase}(b) \\
& \operatorname{erase}(b(A))=\operatorname{erase}(b)
\end{aligned}
$$

With the preliminaries above, it is now straightforward to implement our idea: a typed term is interpreted by the equivalence class of its erasure, with respect to its type
as p.e.r. We then need to show that this interpretation is sound. Indeed, this interpretation generalizes a theorem stated in Mitchell (1986) and tidily relates to the alternative approach to the semantics of the subsumption rule [TSub/Quest] in Bruce and Longo (1989). Observe that this interpretation, in contrast to the early attempt in Bruce and Longo (1989), is direct. This is made possible by the use of Theorem 5.1.1, since by erasure the meaning of a second-order typed term becomes an element of the intersection of all the types which form its range. For example, the polymorphic identity function $\lambda(X: \mathscr{T}) \lambda(x: X) x: \Pi(X: \mathscr{T})(X \rightarrow X)$ will be interpreted as the equivalence class of the type-free identity $\lambda x . x$, which happens to live in $A \rightarrow A$, for any type $A$.

Note finally that, since the interpretations of type-free terms are elements of $\mathscr{D}$, while the elements of types as p.e.r.'s are equivalence classes, we need a choice map to obtain an environment for type-free terms from an environment for typed ones. This is done by the following definition:

## Definition 5.2.2

Given $E=E^{\prime}, x_{n}: A_{n}, E^{\prime \prime}$ and $e=\left\langle\ldots\left\langle\mathrm{e}_{n}, a_{n}\right\rangle, \ldots\right\rangle \in \llbracket E \rrbracket$, fix $s_{e} \cdot V a r \rightarrow \mathscr{D}$ such that $s_{e}\left(x_{n}\right) \in a_{n} \in \llbracket E^{\prime} \vdash A_{n} t y p \rrbracket^{\prime} e_{n}$, where $\llbracket E \rrbracket$ is defined as in section 4.1, and $\left.\llbracket E^{\prime} \vdash A_{n} t y p e\right]^{\prime} e_{n}$ is the interpretation of types given below.

Note that $s_{e}$ is defined only on term variables and gives no meaning to $X: K$. The interpretation below will not depend on the choice of $s_{e}$. Recall that $\mathscr{D} \mathbb{- \rrbracket \text { is the } { } ^ { \text { . } } \text { . }}$ interpretation of type-free terms in ( $\mathscr{D}, \cdot)$.

## Environments

$\llbracket E \rrbracket^{\prime}$ coincides with $\llbracket E \rrbracket$ for Quest $_{\mathrm{c}}$

## Kinds

No change.

## Types

No change, except for:

$$
\vdash E \text { env } \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash \Pi(X: K) B t y p e \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\cap_{A \in\lfloor E \vdash K k i n d]^{\circ} \mathrm{e}} \| E, X: K \vdash B t y p e \rrbracket^{\prime}\langle\mathrm{e}, A\rangle
$$

## Terms

$\vdash$ Eenv $\quad \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^{\prime} \cdot \llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\left\ulcorner\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(a) \rrbracket s_{e}{ }^{7}\left[E \vdash\right.\right.$ Atype] $^{\prime} e$
Since higher-order quantification is interpreted as intersection, by an even easier proof than for Quest ${ }_{c}$, we have:

Lemma 5.2.3

$$
E \vdash A<B \text { implies } \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^{\prime} \cdot \llbracket E \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e} \leqslant \llbracket E \vdash B \text { type } \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e} \quad[
$$

The following theorem proves the soundness of the interpretation.

## Proposition 5.2.4

The interpretation $\llbracket \rrbracket^{\prime}$ is a well-defined meaning for kinds, types and terms over $\mathscr{D}$-Set and $\mathbf{P E R}_{\mathscr{D}}$.

## Proof

We need to check only the result for terms, since kinds pose no problem, and there has been enough discussion concerning types and the use of intersection as product. Recall from Proposition 5.1 .3 for $\llbracket E \vdash K k i n d \rrbracket]^{\prime}$ e is a $\mathscr{D}$-set with the full relation.

Thus we show by induction on the derivation that, for each $E \vdash a: A, \mathscr{D}\left[\operatorname{erase}(a) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}\right.$ is in the domain of $\llbracket E \vdash A$ type $\rrbracket^{\prime} e$ and that it has the correct functional behaviour.

$$
\text { Case } \begin{aligned}
& E=E^{\prime}, x_{n}: A_{n}, E^{\prime \prime} \vdash x_{n}: A_{n} \\
& \vdash E \operatorname{env} \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^{\prime} \cdot \llbracket E \vdash x_{n}: A_{n} \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\left\ulcorner_{S_{\mathrm{e}}}\left(x_{n}\right)\right)_{\left[E \vdash-A_{n} t y p e\right]_{n}}
\end{aligned}
$$

which corresponds to

$$
\left.\forall \mathrm{e}=\left\langle\ldots\left\langle\mathrm{e}_{n}, a_{n}\right\rangle, \ldots\right\rangle \in \llbracket E \rrbracket . \llbracket E \vdash x_{n}: A_{n}\right]^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=a_{n} \in \llbracket E \vdash A_{n} t y p e \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}_{n}
$$

## Case $E \vdash$ top:Top

Just recall that $\omega$ is the only element of $\underline{\omega}$.
Case $E \vdash b(a): B$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^{\prime} \cdot \llbracket E \vdash b(a): B \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\left\lceil\mathscr{D} \llbracket \text { erase }(b a) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}{ }^{\mathbf{T}}{ }^{[E \vdash B t y p e]^{\prime}}{ }^{\mathrm{e}}\right. \\
& =\left\ulcorner\mathscr{D}[\operatorname{erase}(b) \operatorname{erase}(a)] S_{\mathrm{e}}{ }^{\top}{ }_{[E \vdash B+y p e \mathrm{e}} \mathrm{e}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\left(\llbracket E \vdash b: A \rightarrow B \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right) .\left(\llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where application between equivalence classes is defined as in 4.1.1.
 in $\left.\operatorname{dom}(\mathbb{E} \vdash \vdash \text { B type }]^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right)$.

Case $E \vdash \lambda(x: A) b: A \rightarrow B$

$$
\forall \mathrm{e} \in\left[E \rrbracket^{\prime} \cdot \llbracket E \vdash \lambda(x: A) b: A \rightarrow B \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\left\ulcorner\mathscr{D}[\lambda x . \operatorname{crase}(b)] s_{\mathrm{e}}\right\urcorner_{[E \vdash A \rightarrow B t y p e]^{\prime} \mathrm{e}}\right.
$$

which is well defined because by induction, from the semantics of $E, x: A \vdash b: B$, one has for all $n \in \mathscr{D}$ :

$$
n\left(\llbracket E \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right) n \Rightarrow\left(\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(b) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}[n / x]\right) \text { is in } \operatorname{dom}\left(\llbracket E \vdash B \operatorname{type} \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right)
$$

Thus $\mathscr{D} \llbracket \lambda x \operatorname{crase}(b) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}$ is in $\operatorname{dom}\left(\llbracket E \vdash A \rightarrow B\right.$ type $\left.\rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right)$, by virtue of the familiar substitution lemmas in the type-free model ( $\mathscr{D}, \cdot, \mathscr{D} \mathbb{I}-1)$. (See Barendregt, 1984.)
Case $E \vdash \lambda(X: K) b: \Pi(X: K) B$

$$
\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^{\prime} \cdot \llbracket E \vdash \lambda(X: K) b: \Pi(X: K) B \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\left\ulcorner\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(b) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}{ }^{7}{ }_{\Sigma}\right.
$$

where $\Sigma=\cap_{A: K}\left\{[E \vdash B\{X \leftarrow A\} \text { type }]^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right\}$. (Note that, by the usual substitution techniques, one has $\llbracket E \vdash B\{X \leftarrow A\} t y p e \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\llbracket E, X: K \vdash B t y p e \rrbracket^{\prime}\langle e, A\rangle$, where we keep identifying the semantic and the syntactic type $A$ by an abuse of language.) This is well defined just as before, since, by induction, one has:
$E, X: K \vdash b: B$ implies $\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(b) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}$ is in $\left.\operatorname{dom}(\llbracket E, X: K \vdash B t y p e]^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right)$

However, in contrast to the previous case, $\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(b) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}$ does not depend on $X: K$, while $B$ and its semantics do. Exactly because of this, for all types $A$ one has

$$
\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(b) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}} \text { is in } \operatorname{dom}\left(\llbracket E \vdash B\{X \leftarrow A\} \text { type } \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right)
$$

and thus $\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(b) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}$ is in $\operatorname{dom}(\Sigma)$. The next case describes also the applicative behaviour of $\llbracket E \vdash \lambda(X: K) b: \Pi(X: K) B \rrbracket$ 'e.

Case $E \vdash c(A): B\{X \leftarrow A\}$
by the definition of erase. Observe now that one must have $E \vdash c: \Pi(X: K) B$. By setting

$$
\Sigma=\cap_{A K K}\left\{\llbracket E \vdash B\{X \leftarrow A\} t y p e \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right\}
$$

by the previous case and the definition of erase, one has

$$
\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^{\prime} \cdot \llbracket E \vdash c: \Pi(X: K) B \rrbracket \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}=\left\ulcorner\mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(c) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}{ }_{\mathrm{V}} \text { in } \operatorname{dom}(\Sigma)\right.
$$

Thus, for all $A \mathscr{D} \llbracket \operatorname{erase}(c) \rrbracket s_{\mathrm{e}}$ is in $\operatorname{dom}(\llbracket E \vdash B\{X \leftarrow A\}$ type $\rrbracket$ 'e $)$.
By this and by the definition of application of an intersection class to a p.e.r., given in 5.1.2, compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\left(\llbracket E \vdash c \Pi(X: K) B \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right) \cdot\left(\llbracket E \vdash A \text { type } \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We have also proved:

## Corollary 5.2.5

If $\vdash E e n v$, then $\forall \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket$. $\llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e} \in \llbracket E \vdash A$ type $]^{\prime} \mathrm{e}$.
It is a minor variant of the work done for Quest ${ }_{\mathrm{e}}$ to check fully that we provided an interpretation for Quest (that is, that the analogue of Theorem 4.1.2 holds for Quest). The crucial point is the validity of the subsumption rule:

$$
\frac{E \vdash a: A \quad E \vdash A<: B}{E \vdash a \because B} .
$$

This rule is valid simply because the interpretation of the term $a$, say, comes with the meaning of the entire judgment $E \vdash a: A$ or $E \vdash a: B$. We gave this meaning in such a way that it automatically coerces $a$ to $B$ in the semantics when interpreting $E \vdash a: B$. Indeed, the meaning of $E \vdash a_{: A}$ is an equivalence class in the p.e.r. $\llbracket E \vdash A$ type】 $\rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}$ (together with the assertion that it actually belongs to the class), while the meaning of $\llbracket E \vdash a: B \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}$ is an element of the p.e.r. $\llbracket E \vdash B$ type $\rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}$, which is in general a larger equivalence class.

It is worth noticing the essential role of the interpretation of polymorphic types as intersections. The isomorphism between product and intersection in 5.1.1 is the core of this interpretation. (See the last two cases in 5.2.1.) It says that type erasing does not affect the meaning of polymorphic terms, modulo equivalence classes, and reduces the entire challenging business of how to apply a term to a type, to a simple
type coercion in the model. That is, $\left.{ }{ }_{n}\right\rceil_{s} \cdot A={ } \boldsymbol{n}^{\prime}{ }_{G(A)}$, which interprets the polymorphic application for $S=\cap_{A \in K} G(A)$ (see 5.1.2), corresponds to coercing $\left.{ }{ }_{n}\right\rceil_{S}$ to the generally larger equivalence class ${ } n^{\prime}{ }_{G(A)}$.

This has a clear mathematical and computational meaning. Mathematically, it derives from the fact that the maps from any $\mathscr{D}$-set with the full realizability relation to a p.e.r. are constant functions (see Longo and Moggi, 1988, or prove it for exercise.) This is a simple feature inherited from a deep fact: the validity of the Uniformity Principle in the Realizability Universe, which is the categorical background of this construction (Longo, 1988). Computationally, it says that at run time we disregard types, or that computations are type-free, in particular the computation of a polymorphic term. However, given a computation $n$ of type $\cap_{A \in K} G(A)$, it happens that $n$ is equivalent to more computations when updated to type $A$ : namely, all those in ${ } n\urcorner_{G(A)}$.

In Bruce and Longo (1989) yet another interpretation of Fun, the progenitor of Quest, is given. The idea, in that paper, is to use the interpretation of the language with coercions in order to give meaning to the one without coercions. This is based on a series of theorems which relate abbreviated terms (that is, terms where all coercions are erased) to their fattenings (that is, terms where coercions are put back in place). More precisely, in our language, given $E \vdash_{c} a: A$, a judgment in Quest ${ }_{c}$, abbrev(a) is obtained by erasing all coercions. Then, for $E \vdash b: B$ in Quest, $b^{\prime}$ is a fattening when $a b b r e v\left(b^{\prime}\right)=b$. The $\mathscr{B} \mathscr{L}$-interpretation of the judgment $E \vdash a: A$ in Quest, is given by setting:

$$
\mathscr{B} \mathscr{L} \llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\llbracket E \vdash_{c} a^{\prime}: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e}
$$

where $\llbracket E \vdash{ }_{c} a^{\prime}: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e}$ is the semantics in part 4 , for a fattening $a^{\prime}$ of $a$.
With some work, Bruce and Longo (1989) shows that this is well defined. Indeed, it coincides with our current interpretation $\llbracket-\rrbracket^{\prime}$. In other words, by the results in Bruce and Longo and some further work, we claim that, given a model of the type-free $\lambda$ calculus and the realizability structures over it as models of Quest, one has:

$$
\mathscr{B} \mathscr{L} \llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket \mathrm{e}=\llbracket E \vdash a: A \rrbracket^{\prime} \mathrm{e}
$$

Observe, finally, that this interpretation is 'coherent', in the sense of Curien and Ghelli (1989), since by definition it depends only on the proved judgment and not its derivation. More generally, the model satisfies the conditions in the coherence theorem in Curien and Ghelli (1989).

## 6 Conclusions

We have described a formal system which can be considered the kernel of the Quest language, and we have investigated a particularly attractive approach to its semantics. The formal system requires a lot of semantics models, probably more than any previous typed system. Fortunately, PER models promise to satisfy all the required features, and more (e.g. dependent types). More work needs to be done both on the syntactic side, studying the properties and the degree of completeness of the formal system, and on the semantic side, mostly with respect to recursion and recursive types.

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