

A Reasonably Gradual Type Theory

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Gradualizing the Calculus of Inductive Constructions (CIC) involves dealing with subtle tensions between normalization, graduality, and conservativity with respect to CIC. Recently, GCIC has been proposed as a parametrized gradual type theory that admits three variants, each sacrificing one of these properties. For devising a gradual proof assistant based on CIC, normalization and conservativity with respect to CIC are key, but the tension with graduality needs to be addressed. Additionally, several challenges remain: (1) The presence of two wildcard terms at any type-the error and unknown terms-enables trivial proofs of any theorem, jeopardizing the use of a gradual type theory in a proof assistant; (2) Supporting general indexed inductive families, most prominently equality, is an open problem; (3) Theoretical accounts of gradual typing and graduality so far do not support handling type mismatches detected during reduction; (4) Precision and graduality are external notions not amenable to reasoning within a gradual type theory. All these issues manifest primally in CastCIC, the cast calculus used to define GCIC. In this work, we present an extension of CastCIC called GRIP. GRIP is a reasonably gradual type theory that addresses the issues above, featuring internal precision and general exception handling. GRIP features an impure (gradual) sort of types inhabited by errors and unknown terms, and a pure (non-gradual) sort of strict propositions for consistent reasoning about gradual terms. By adopting a novel interpretation of the unknown term that carefully accounts for universe levels, GRIP satisfies graduality for a large and well-defined class of terms, in addition to being normalizing and a conservative extension of CIC. Internal precision supports reasoning about graduality within GRIP itself, for instance to characterize gradual exception-handling terms, and supports gradual subset types. We develop the metatheory of GRIP using a model formalized in Coq, and provide a prototype implementation of GRIP in Agda.

CCS Concepts: • Theory of computation → Type theory; Type structures; Program reasoning.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Gradual typing, proof assistants, dependent types

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1 INTRODUCTION

Extending gradual typing [Siek and Taha 2006; Siek et al. 2015] to dependent types is a challenging endeavor due to the intricacies of type checking and conversion in the presence of imprecision at both the type and term levels. Early efforts looked at gradualizing specific aspects of a dependent

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type system (*e.g.*, subset types and refinements [Lehmann and Tanter 2017; Tanter and Tabareau 2015], or the fragment without inductive types [Eremondi et al. 2019]). Recently, Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] studied gradual typing in the context of the Calculus of Inductive Constructions (CIC), the theory at the core of many proof assistants such as Coq [The Coq Development Team 2020].

Gradual CIC. Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] develop a gradualization of CIC, called GCIC. For instance, as in simply-typed gradual typing, one can use the unknown type? to defer some checks to runtime: $(\lambda x : ?. x + 1) v$ is well-typed for any v, and may reduce to a runtime error if v is not a natural number. GCIC is a source language, whose semantics is given by elaboration to a dependently-typed cast calculus, called CastCIC. CastCIC is an extension of Martin-Löf type theory (MLTT) [Martin-Löf 1971] with (non-indexed) inductive types, and with exceptions as introduced by Pédrot and Tabareau [2018]. For a given type A, there are two exceptional terms, namely err_A representing runtime type errors, and ?_A representing the unknown term, which can optimistically stand for any term of type A. In particular, the unknown type is $?_{\Box}$, where ☐ denotes the universe (omitting levels for brevity here). Additionally, CastCIC features a cast operator $\langle B \leftarrow A \rangle t$, which supports treating a term t of type A as a term of type B, without requiring any relation between A and B. The above example in GCIC elaborates to the CastCIC term $(\lambda x:?_{\square}.\langle \mathbb{N} \Leftarrow ?_{\square}\rangle x+1)$ $\langle ?_{\square} \Leftarrow V \rangle v$, where V is the type of v. If v is 10, this term reduces to 11; if v is true, the term reduces to $err_{\mathbb{N}}$. The dependently-typed setting involves a number of peculiarities and complexities, which come from the fact that there are unknown terms at all types, and that gradual computation can happen at the type level as well.

Variants of Gradual CIC. Crucially, Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] uncover an inherent tension in the gradualization of CIC, dubbed the Fire Triangle of Graduality, which states that three fundamentally desirable properties cannot be fully satisfied simultaneously: (1) strong normalization, a property of particular relevance in the context of proof assistants, (2) conservativity with respect to CIC, namely the ability to faithfully embed the static theory in the gradual theory, and (3) graduality, which guarantees that typing and evaluation are monotone with respect to precision.¹

Precision is an essential notion in gradual typing [Siek et al. 2015], which captures the expected behavior of casts: when a type A is more precise than B, written $A \subseteq B$, then casting from A to B does not fail, and doing the roundtrip back to A is the identity; the formal formulation of this property, coined *graduality* by New and Ahmed [2018], is that when $A \subseteq B$, the cast operations induce an embedding-projection pair between A and B. Additionally, ? is the least precise type, and therefore casting from A to the unknown type ? and back is always the identity. The maximality of the unknown type is a key element in the tension captured by the Fire Triangle of Graduality. Indeed, if ? \rightarrow ? \subseteq ?, then by graduality it is possible to embed the untyped lambda calculus, and in particular the diverging term $\Omega := (\lambda x : ?. x x)$ ($\lambda x : ?. x x$).

To study different resolutions of the Fire Triangle in a unified framework, Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] develop GCIC as a *parametrized* gradualization of CIC. GCIC admits three variants, each sacrificing one property: $GCIC^{\mathcal{G}}$ satisfies both conservativity and graduality at the expense of admitting divergence, $GCIC^{\mathcal{N}}$ dynamically avoids non-termination but this carefulness inevitably leads to some terms violating graduality, and finally, $GCIC^{\uparrow}$ restricts the typing relation of CIC to exclude those non-gradual terms and hence satisfies graduality and termination but does not admit all CIC terms. CastCIC is itself parametrized, yielding CastCIC $^{\mathcal{G}}$, CastCIC $^{\mathcal{N}}$, and CastCIC $^{\uparrow}$ as dependent cast calculi underlying each of the three GCIC variants.

¹In the gradual typing literature, graduality is first known as the gradual guarantees [Siek et al. 2015]; the dynamic aspect thereof was later reformulated by New and Ahmed [2018] under a more semantic form, which turns out to be stronger than the dynamic gradual guarantee in the setting of dependent types [Lennon-Bertrand et al. 2022].

Termination and Universe Levels. In GCIC, the unknown type is the unknown term at the universe type, \square . But due to predicativity in CIC there is in fact an infinite hierarchy of universes \square_i . This means that in GCIC there is one unknown type per level of the stratification; each $?_{\square_i}$ is the least precise type among all types at level i and below. The two GCIC variants that ensure termination avoid divergence by shifting universe levels either statically $(GCIC^{\uparrow})$ or dynamically $(GCIC^{N})$. $GCIC^{\uparrow}$ restricts the typing rule of the function type compared to vanilla CIC by incrementing the universe level of the function type with respect to that of its components. Its main downside is that it is not a conservative extension of CIC: due to this modified typing rule, some valid CIC terms are statically rejected. The prototypical example is that of recursive large elimination, such as the type of n-ary functions over natural numbers (in Coq):

 $\text{Fixpoint nArrow}\,(n:\,\mathbb{N}):\,\square_0\coloneqq\text{match n with }0\,\Rightarrow\mathbb{N}\mid\text{S m}\to\mathbb{N}\to\text{narrow m}.$

The term nArrow n is a type (i.e., a term of type \square_0), and we have for example nArrow $0 \equiv \mathbb{N}$ and nArrow $2 \equiv \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$. The reason this definition is ill-typed in CIC^{\uparrow} is that the universe level at which to define the resulting type is unbounded. Another more practical example is that of a dependently-typed printf function, whose actual arity depends on the input string. Still, $GCIC^{\uparrow}$ captures a large and useful fragment of CIC, which includes most examples of functional programs found in predicative System F and also uses of dependent types where large elimination has a statically-known bound.

In the context of a gradual proof assistant based on CIC, the normalizing and conservative variant $GCIC^N$ is therefore the most appealing, as it ensures decidability of typing, (weak) canonicity, and supports all existing developments and libraries by virtue of being a conservative extension of CIC. $GCIC^N$ avoids non-termination by introducing a universe shift during reduction, which unfortunately means that some terms break graduality. For instance, while nArrow is well-typed in $GCIC^N$, the type forall (n:N), nArrow n does not satisfy the embedding-projection property with respect to any unknown type $?_{\Box_i}$, because the appropriate universe level is not known a priori. However, apart from the fact that $GCIC^N$ does not satisfy graduality globally, little is known about its gradual properties as its metatheory in this regard has not been developed. In particular, there is no clear characterization of a class of terms for which graduality holds.

A Refined Stratification of Precision. In this work, we observe that by refining the stratification of precision we can develop a full account of graduality for an extension of CastCIC^N, called GRIP. The key idea is that $?_{\Box_i}$ should be the least precise type among all types at level i and below, *except* for dependent function types at level i (which are however still less precise than $?_{[i,i]}$). We can precisely characterize problematic terms as those that are not self-precise (i.e., more precise than themselves). As we will see, for function types, self-precision means monotonicity with respect to precision. A recursive large elimination as in nArrow is not monotone because, nArrow $?_{\mathbb{N}}$ computes to $?_{\square_i}$ for some fixed level i, but there is no i such that nArrow $n \sqsubseteq ?_{\square_i}$ uniformly for all n. We prove that the dynamic gradual guarantee holds in GRIP for any self-precise context, and that casts between types related by precision induce embedding-projection pairs between self-precise terms. Therefore, this change in perspective in the interpretation of the unknown type and the associated notion of precision yields a gradual theory that conservatively extends CIC, is normalizing, and satisfies graduality for a large and well-defined class of terms. Specifically, we prove that all terms that would be well-typed with a level-shifting dependent product type (as used by GCIC[†]/CastCIC[†]) can be embedded in GRIP and proven to be self-precise, and hence satisfy graduality. Also, some terms that fall outside of that fragment can be proven self-precise in GRIP.

Internalizing Precision, Reasonably. While we could study graduality for GRIP externally, we observe that we can exploit the expressiveness of the type-theoretic setting to internalize precision

and its associated reasoning. In particular this makes it possible to state and prove, within the theory itself, results about (self-)precision and graduality for specific terms. For such internal reasoning to be reliable, GRIP adopts a two-layer structure, with an impure hierarchy of types for gradual terms, and a pure sort of propositions that can refer to gradual terms and errors, but whose inhabitants cannot use errors or unknown terms. This approach to isolate effects is inspired by prior approaches to soundly reason about effectful programs internally with dependent types [Casinghino et al. 2014; Kimmell et al. 2012; Pédrot and Tabareau 2020; Stump et al. 2010; Swamy et al. 2016] (discussed in §7), most notably the Reasonably Exceptional Type Theory RETT [Pédrot et al. 2019]. RETT supports consistent reasoning about exceptional terms by featuring a layer of possibly exceptional terms, and a separate layer of pure terms in which raising an exception is prohibited. This way, the consistency of the logical layer is guaranteed, while allowing non-trivial interaction with the exceptional layer. Technically, the two layers are defined using two distinct universe hierarchies.

Additionally, internalizing precision requires the gradual type theory to satisfy extensionality principles in order to support the notion of precision as error approximation [New and Ahmed 2018]. To this end, GRIP builds upon the observational type theory $\mathsf{TT}^{\mathsf{obs}}$ [Pujet and Tabareau 2022]. Based on the seminal work on Observational Type Theory [Altenkirch et al. 2007], $\mathsf{TT}^{\mathsf{obs}}$ provides a setoidal equality in a specific universe $\mathbb P$ of definitionally proof-irrelevant propositions. This universe of strict propositions, introduced by Gilbert et al. [2019] and supported in recent versions of Coq and Agda, makes it possible to define an extensional notion of equality, while trivializing the so-called higher coherence hell by imposing that any two proofs of a given equality are *definitionally* equal. The resulting theory is arguably much simpler and closer to the current practice of proof assistants than cubical type theory [Cohen et al. 2017; Vezzosi et al. 2019], which is another approach to provide extensional principles with computational content.

A major insight of this work is to realize that we can actually merge the logical universe of RETT used to reason about exceptional terms with the universe \mathbb{P} of proof-irrelevant propositions in order to define an internal notion of precision that is extensional and whose proofs cannot be trivialized with exceptional terms.

Applications of Internal Precision. Being able to internally reason about the graduality of terms in a theory that is not globally gradual is essential for a gradual proof assistant. Because precision semantically accounts for error approximation [New and Ahmed 2018], internal precision provides a useful reasoning principle to certify gradual programs. Just like internal equality enables reasoning using Leibniz equality (i.e., deducing that P b holds given both P a and a = b), internal precision makes it possible to deduce the correctness of a gradual program from the correctness of another: if we have $a \sqsubseteq b$ and P a for a correctness criterion a that is self-precise and thus monotone, then a a0 holds. For instance, consider the following two functions related by precision:

$$\mathsf{add1} := \lambda x : \mathbb{N}.x + 1 \quad \sqsubseteq \quad \mathsf{add1?} := \lambda x : ?_{\square}.(\langle \mathbb{N} \Leftarrow ?_{\square} \rangle x) + 1$$

The term $t := \text{map } \mathbb{N} \mathbb{N}$ add1 l is fully static and hence does not fail, given a non-error list $l : \mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}$. Now, to show that the term $u := \text{map } ?_{\square} \mathbb{N}$ add1? l' (where l' is $\langle \mathbb{L} ?_{\square} \leftarrow \mathbb{L} \mathbb{N} \rangle l$) also does not fail, one can either reason directly on the definition of u, or one can deduce the property "for free" from the fact that $t \sqsubseteq u$, which follows from the monotony of map.²

Additionally, internal precision makes it possible to support gradual subset types, in which a type can be refined by a proposition expressed using precision. Moreover, in the literature, exception handling is never considered when proving graduality because this mechanism inherently allows terms that do not behave monotonically with respect to precision. Internal precision enables us

²The fact that map : ΠAB : ΠAB : Π

to support exception handling in the impure layer of the type theory, and to consistently reason about the graduality (or not) of exception-handling terms.

Structure of the Article. We propose GRIP, a novel gradual type theory with internal precision and a two-layer architecture that enables consistent reasoning about potentially failing and imprecise gradual programs. GRIP is a strongly-normalizing extension of CIC that satisfies graduality for a large and well-defined class of terms. After a brief informal overview of the main elements of GRIP and their applications (§ 2), we formalize GRIP as an extension of CastCIC with a sort of propositions (§ 3) and a precision relation for internal reasoning about graduality (§ 4). We present a model of GRIP in CIC, which validates its metatheoretical properties (§ 5). § 6 discusses extensions of GRIP and § 7 reviews related work. We provide a Coq formalization of the model and a proof-of-concept implementation in Agda (artifact after evaluation).

2 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF GRIP

CastCIC has been introduced by Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] as a variant of CIC with exceptional terms and a cast operator, designed to support the source gradual type theory GCIC. Due to the use of conversion for typing in dependently-typed systems, GCIC requires elaboration into CastCIC for both its static and dynamic semantics. This elaboration, which introduces casts as necessary to account for imprecision in GCIC terms, is not the focus of this work; instead, we tackle issues at the level of the design and semantics of the type theory with casts, CastCIC. After a quick refresher on CastCIC, this section introduces the two-layer architecture of GRIP for consistent reasoning about gradual programs, the notion of internal precision and its application to reason about graduality, including in the presence of exception handling, and gradual subset types.

2.1 Background on CastCIC

Technically, CastCIC features an impure hierarchy of universes \Box_i (read "Type") where one can freely use unknown terms, noted $?_A$ for any type A, and errors, noted err_A . The hierarchy \Box_i is explicitly cumulative, meaning that there is a constructor $\iota:\Box_i\to\Box_{i+1}$ that permits to consider a type at level i as a type at level i+1. CastCIC also features inductive types such as natural numbers (noted $\mathbb N$), booleans (noted $\mathbb B$) and lists of elements of type A (noted $\mathbb L$ A). The only difference with the corresponding inductive types in CIC is that there are two additional constructors for each inductive type, one corresponding to errors err and the other to the unknown term ? at that type. Additionally, CastCIC features casts, whose typing rule is

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A : \Box_i \qquad \Gamma \vdash B : \Box_i \qquad \Gamma \vdash t : A}{\Gamma \vdash \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle \ t : B}$$

A cast converts any term of type A to a term of type B, with no constraint between A and B. This means that a cast propagates deeper when types are compatible, e.g., two function types:

$$\langle A_2 \rightarrow B_2 \Leftarrow A_1 \rightarrow B_1 \rangle f \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad \lambda y : A_2 . \langle B_2 \Leftarrow B_1 \rangle (f \langle A_1 \Leftarrow A_2 \rangle y)$$

But when A and B are not compatible, a cast reduces to an error in B, e.g., between booleans and natural numbers, we have $\langle \mathbb{N} \leftarrow \mathbb{B} \rangle$ true \rightarrow err $_{\mathbb{N}}$. Following Pédrot and Tabareau [2018], both? and err behave like *call-by-name* exceptions. In particular, this means that $(\lambda x : \mathbb{N}.0)$ err $_{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow 0$, not err $_{\mathbb{N}}$. Also, exceptions can only be caught on positive types such as inductives, not on negative types such as functions. Notably, err $_{\mathbb{N}}(A,B) \equiv \lambda x : A$. err $_B$.

The main features of CIC that are absent in CastCIC are an impredicative universe of propositions and a general notion of indexed inductive types.

2.2 A Universe for Logical Reasoning

Directly inspired by the work on the *reasonably* exceptional type theory RETT [Pédrot et al. 2019], GRIP features two distinct kind of sorts: the impure hierarchy of types \Box_i of CastCIC, and a pure impredicative sort of definitionally proof-irrelevant propositions \mathbb{P} . While propositions can be *about* gradual terms and errors, they cannot be themselves inhabited by unknown terms or errors, thereby ensuring consistent logical reasoning. Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] show that no good notion of equality can be defined in the impure hierarchy of types because of an unsolvable tension between canonicity and the reduction of cast on equality. In GRIP, the absence of imprecision in \mathbb{P} means the cast operator does not need to be defined between propositions, and therefore the tension disappears.

To be able to reason about properties of inductive types in \mathbb{P} , their elimination principles needs to be extended for predicates in \mathbb{P} . However, contrarily to predicates valued in the impure hierarchy of types, there is no default behavior for errors and ?. Thus eliminators in \mathbb{P} require additional arguments to deal with those two exceptional cases, in a way reminiscent of try-catch for exception handling. For instance, the eliminator for \mathbb{B} (if-then-else) is given by:

$$\mathsf{catch}^{\mathbb{P}}_{\mathbb{B}} : \forall (P:\mathbb{B} \to \mathbb{P}), P \; \mathsf{true} \to P \; \mathsf{false} \to P \; \mathsf{err}_{\mathbb{B}} \to P \; ?_{\mathbb{B}} \to \forall (b:\mathbb{B}), P \; b \in \mathbb{B}$$

In this logical layer, it becomes possible to reliably prove properties, because it is not possible to prove a false result in $\mathbb P$ by means of the unknown (or error) term, contrarily to \square . For instance, we can prove that casting from $\mathbb B$ to $\mathbb N$ is always an error, stated as $\forall (b:\mathbb B), \langle \mathbb N \Leftarrow \mathbb B \rangle$ $b=\mathsf{err}_{\mathbb N}$. This result is proven by a direct use of reflexivity of equality because the cast simply reduces to an error.

2.3 Internal Precision

GRIP features internal precision as an heterogeneous relation in the pure logical universe \mathbb{P} , defined between gradual types and terms of gradual types, as expressed by the typing rules:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A, B : \square_i}{\Gamma \vdash A \sqsubseteq_i B : \mathbb{P}} \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A, B : \square_i \qquad \Gamma \vdash t : A \qquad \Gamma \vdash u : B}{\Gamma \vdash t \xrightarrow{A} \sqsubseteq_B u : \mathbb{P}}$$

Because the universe level at which gradual types are defined plays a central role in the definition of precision, we explicitly annotate type precision with the level at which it occurs. Note that precision on proofs of propositions is undefined: there is no way to be imprecise in the logical layer.

Garcia et al. [2016] describe a systematic approach to design gradual languages, in which precision follows from the interpretation of gradual types as the set of static types that they denote. For instance, the type $\mathbb{N} \to ?$ denotes all function types with \mathbb{N} as domain; this type is deemed more precise than the unknown type? because the latter denotes any type. Therefore, precision among types coincides with the set inclusion of their denotations. Of course, in the context of a stratified hierarchy of types, with full dependency, the situation is more challenging.

To better reflect the semantics of CastCIC^N with respect to universe levels during reduction, which avoids diverging terms such as Ω without affecting typing, in GRIP we adjust the denotation of the unknown type at universe level i, $?_{\Box_i}$, so that it excludes dependent function types at level i. Consequently, at level i, all type constructors except functions are more precise than $?_{\Box_i}$, so the following propositions hold (mentioning only lists as the prototypical example of inductive types):

$$\square_i \sqsubseteq_{i+1} ?_{\square_{i+1}}$$
 $\square_i A \sqsubseteq_i ?_{\square_i}$ whenever $A \sqsubseteq_i ?_{\square_i}$ $\iota_i A \sqsubseteq_{i+1} ?_{\square_{i+1}}$ $?_{\square_i} \sqsubseteq_i ?_{\square_i}$

In particular, in order to be more precise than the unknown type, a dependent function type needs to be *guarded* by an explicit use of cumulativity with $\iota: \Box_i \to \Box_{i+1}$. This means that we can derive $\iota(\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}) \sqsubseteq_1 ?_{\Box_1}$ and $\iota(?_{\Box_0} \to ?_{\Box_0}) \sqsubseteq_1 ?_{\Box_1}$, but $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \not\sqsubseteq_0 ?_{\Box_0}$ and $?_{\Box_0} \to ?_{\Box_0} \not\sqsubseteq_0 ?_{\Box_0}$.

Once the definition of precision on the unknown type is fixed, the rest of the definition is naturally obtained from congruence/extensional rules. We do not detail here the definition of internal term precision (presented in § 4) but, for instance, precision between two functions $f_{\forall a,B} \ a \sqsubseteq_{\forall a',B'} \ g$ boils down to pointwise precision: $\forall a \ a', \ a_{A} \sqsubseteq_{A'} \ a' \to f \ a_{B} \ a \sqsubseteq_{B'} \ a' \ g \ a'$. The only remaining subtlety is the definition of term precision in the impure sort \Box_i , as it should be connected to type precision, because terms of \Box_i are types. Precision on types, when seen as terms of the sort \Box_i , is the restriction of type precision to types that are more precise than $?_{\Box_i}$, *i.e.*, $A_{\Box_i} \sqsubseteq_{\Box_i} B \cap A \subseteq_i B$

Consequently, GRIP has the global property that $?_A$ is maximal for *term precision* of any type A, even when A is \square_i , but $?_{\square_i}$ is not maximal for *type precision* at level i, so as to avoid the Fire Triangle, as explained in §1. Conversely, however, type precision is stable by product formations, *i.e.*, in the non-dependent case if $A \sqsubseteq_i A'$ and $B \sqsubseteq_i B'$ then $A \to B \sqsubseteq_i A' \to B'$. This is not the case for term precision, again because of the Fire Triangle and of the maximality of $?_{\square}$ as a term.

This design forces certain terms to be non-monotone, in particular those built using large elimination. Consider the type-level function $t_0 := \lambda$ $b \Rightarrow if$ b then \mathbb{N} else $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$. We have false $\sqsubseteq ?_{\mathbb{B}}$, but we do not have t false $\equiv \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \sqsubseteq ?_{\square_0}$. We can address the issue in this simple case by posing $t_1 := \lambda$ $b \Rightarrow if$ b then $\iota \mathbb{N}$ else $\iota (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N})$, which explicitly uses cumulativity, so t_1 is monotone as a function of type $\mathbb{B} \to \square_1$. Using cumulativity however does not work for *recursive* large elimination as the nArrow function discussed in the introduction, because the appropriate universe level is not known statically. While being typable in GRIP, Ω and similar self-applications that would be non-terminating in CastCIC are also not self-precise, witnessing their pathological behavior.

Armed with these notions of precision, it becomes possible to axiomatize directly in \mathbb{P} the various properties they satisfy and their relation to casts. Note that because this axiomatization occurs in the definitionally proof-irrelevant universe \mathbb{P} , there is no need to endow the axioms with any computational meaning: they just need to be justified by a model to guarantee consistency (§5).

2.4 Internal Reasoning about Graduality

Graduality [New and Ahmed 2018] and the dynamic gradual guarantee (DGG) [Siek et al. 2015] are usually established as global properties of a gradual language. However, as mandated by the Fire Triangle of Graduality [Lennon-Bertrand et al. 2022], graduality cannot hold globally in a terminating gradual extension of CIC. While Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] simply do not attempt to study graduality for CastCIC N , the situation of GRIP in this regard is both novel and unique: because precision is an internal notion within a type theory that allows for consistent reasoning, we can account for graduality. We can also exactly state the DGG theorem that holds in GRIP.

Dynamic Gradual Guarantee. In essence, the DGG says that if a term x is more precise than a term y, then for any evaluation context C, C x "error approximates" C y—meaning that C x can fail more than C y, but if it does not fail, then both are equivalent. Essentially, this property is about the monotonicity of contexts with respect to precision. In our setting, an evaluation context is simply a function from some type A to the type $\mathbb B$ of booleans, so the DGG corresponds to the monotonicity of functions, that is, DGG: $\forall (A:\Box)(C:A\to \mathbb B)(x\ y:A), x$ $_A\sqsubseteq_A y\to C$ x $_B\sqsubseteq_B C$ y.

As we have seen above with nArrow, not all functions are monotone in GRIP. To establish monotonicity internally in a general manner, we need a notion that does not make sense only for function types. Fortunately, a direct consequence of the pointwise definition of precision on functions is that monotonicity of functions corresponds to their *self-precision*. In general, we write a^{\sqsubseteq_A} for self-precision, meaning that a:A is such that $a_A \sqsubseteq_A a$.

In GRIP, DGG A C is equivalent to $C^{\sqsubseteq_{A\to \mathbb{B}}}$. In other words, for any type A and for any context C that is self-precise, we have the usual dynamic gradual guarantee between two elements x and y related by the precision over A. This means that we can understand existing gradual systems in which the DGG holds globally as systems where every context is self-precise by construction.

Graduality. Graduality [New and Ahmed 2018] is defined as the fact that when $A \sqsubseteq_i B$, for any a:A and b:B, there is an adjunction $\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle$ $a \models_B b \leftrightarrow a \models_A b \leftrightarrow a \models_A b \leftarrow a \vdash_A b \leftarrow a \vdash_$

As we show in §4.2 (Prop. 3), GRIP globally satisfies graduality, except for the fact that a : A and b : B must both be self-precise for it to hold.

Applications. Graduality and the DGG can be exploited in several ways using internal precision. A potential use is to develop internally the theory of precision, showing for instance that casts between types related by precision do compose (which is not the case for arbitrary types). Another possible use is to derive proofs of precision on open terms that can appear during reasoning. For instance, when using gradual subset types (introduced in §2.6 below) to define functions, it becomes necessary to discharge proof obligations related to the precision of terms containing free variables.

One can also exploit the reasoning principle of the DGG for certifying gradual programs. We mention in §1 the case of two programs that use the map function and its self-precision to deduce that a gradual program does not fail. More generally, given any correctness criterion for t (for instance that the resulting list has the same length as the input list) knowing $t \sqsubseteq u$ is sufficient to deduce the corresponding criterion for u, as long as the criterion is self-precise. Considering that proofs of self-precision could be automated for a large class of terms (see Theorem 7, which in particular covers all the terms mentioned in this example), the proof burden of correctness results can be considerably lowered by exploiting the DGG compared to direct reasoning. Alternatively, GRIP lets user construct precision proofs where actual non-trivial reasoning is needed, as illustrated in the next section.

2.5 Exception Handling and Graduality

All languages in the theoretical literature that address graduality are devoid of exception handling mechanisms. The reason is that handling runtime type errors makes it possible to define terms that are not monotone with respect to precision, and so graduality cannot hold globally. However, in practice, exception handling (and other language mechanisms in tension with graduality) are key ingredients and one would ideally like to account for them. As explained above, the situation of GRIP in this regard is new and singular: since we can internally and consistently reason about precision, we can support exception handling terms, and still establish their monotonicity as specific theorems proven in the type theory itself. Below we illustrate such an exception-handling term and its proof of monotonicity within GRIP.

The catch operator on \mathbb{B} is not monotone with respect to precision. Consider its type signature:

$$\mathsf{catch}_{\mathbb{B}}^{\square} : \forall (A : \square) \; (a_{\mathsf{true}} : A) \; (a_{\mathsf{false}} : A) \; (a_{\mathsf{err}_{\mathbb{B}}} : A) \; (a_{?_{\mathbb{B}}} : A), \mathbb{B} \to A$$

There is no reason for $a_{?_{\mathbb{B}}}$, given to handle the unknown term case, to be less precise than a_{true} and a_{false} . In our setting, the catch operation (and its dependent generalization) can be considered, without endangering any properties of the system. Moreover, we can show that precision is preserved in specific uses of catch.

To illustrate, consider the following optimized implementation of (iterated) multiplication of a list of natural numbers, with two functions, that takes advantage of the fact that 0 is an absorbing

element (we use pattern matching syntax for induction on lists to ease the reading):

$$\begin{array}{lll} \operatorname{mult}^{\operatorname{err}}_{\mathbb{L}} & \operatorname{nil} & := & 1 \\ \operatorname{mult}^{\operatorname{err}}_{\mathbb{L}} & (\operatorname{cons} n \ l) & := & \operatorname{if} (\operatorname{is_zero} n) \ \operatorname{then} \ \operatorname{err}_{\mathbb{N}} \ \operatorname{else} \ n * \operatorname{mult}^{\operatorname{err}}_{\mathbb{L}} \\ \operatorname{mult}_{\mathbb{L}} & l & := & \operatorname{catch}^{\square}_{\mathbb{N}} \ \mathbb{N} \ 0 \ (\lambda \ n : \mathbb{N}.1 + n) \ 0 \ ?_{\mathbb{N}} \ (\operatorname{mult}^{\operatorname{err}}_{\mathbb{L}} \ l) \end{array}$$

The function $\text{mult}_{\mathbb{L}}^{\text{err}}$ returns an error as soon as a 0 is encountered in the list, short-circuiting the recursive computation. The wrapper function $\text{mult}_{\mathbb{L}}$ catches errors raised by $\text{mult}_{\mathbb{L}}^{\text{err}}$ and returns 0 in that case. In general, $\text{mult}_{\mathbb{L}}$ is not monotone because when the input list is an error, it returns the value 0, which is not more precise than the return value on other lists. But $\text{mult}_{\mathbb{L}}$ is monotone on lists that do not contain errors, because in such cases errors are used in a delimited manner in order to optimize execution. In GRIP, we can make this explicit and prove the following theorem:

$$\mathsf{mult}^{\sqsubseteq}_{\mathbb{L}} : \forall (l \; l' : \mathbb{L} \; \mathbb{N}), \mathsf{not\text{-}err}_{\mathbb{L}} \; l \to l \;_{\mathbb{L} \; \mathbb{N}} \sqsubseteq_{\mathbb{L} \; \mathbb{N}} l' \to \mathsf{mult}_{\mathbb{L}} \; l \;_{\mathbb{N}} \sqsubseteq_{\mathbb{N}} \mathsf{mult}_{\mathbb{L}} \; l'.$$

where not-err_{\mathbb{L}} is a predicate ensuring that the list is not err_{\mathbb{L}} and does not contain err_{\mathbb{N}} in its elements. Again, details can be found in the Agda development.

2.6 Gradual Subset Types

The logical layer $\mathbb P$ enables stating and proving formal properties on the gradual, impure layer \square . But in a dependently-typed setting, it is also important to be able to use the properties stated in $\mathbb P$ to constrain types in \square , using for instance *subset types*. Recall that a subset type is a type A enriched with a proposition P, noted $\{a: A \& P a\}$, and an inhabitant is a dependent pair (a; p), such that a: A and p: P a. This means that in GRIP we need a way to embed $\mathbb P$ into \square . Note that this cannot be a direct injection, as propositions in $\mathbb P$ cannot be inhabited with exceptions. Therefore, we need a special operator $\mathbb B$ ox : $\mathbb P \to \square$ that takes a proposition P and freely adds $\mathsf{err}_{\mathbb B o x} P$ and $?_{\mathbb B o x} P$ to P. This allows us to define lists of size P as the type

$$Sized \mathbb{L} A n := \{l : \mathbb{L} A \& Box (len l = n)\}.$$

This way, we can gradually define the append? function as

```
append<sub>?</sub> : \forall A \ n \ m, Sized\mathbb{L} A \ n \to Sized\mathbb{L} A \ m \to Sized\mathbb{L} A \ (n+m) append<sub>?</sub> A \ n \ m \ (l;\_) \ (l';\_) := (l++l';?_{\mathbb{B}ox \ (len \ (l++l')=n+m)})
```

where the proof that the result is of the right size is avoided through imprecision. It is also possible to define the precise append function that contains the actual proof that the resulting size is valid:

```
append: \forall A \ n \ m, Sized\mathbb{L} A \ n \to \text{Sized} \mathbb{L} A \ m \to \text{Sized} \mathbb{L} A \ (n+m) append A \ n \ m \ (l; \text{box } p) \ (l'; \text{box } p') := (l+l'; ++\text{lemma} \ l \ l' \cdot \text{ap}_2 + p \ p')
```

where ++lemma is the proof that the length of two appended lists is equal to the sum of their lengths, $e \cdot e'$ is the concatenation of equality and ap_2 is a witness that (binary) functions preserve equalities.

In GRIP, these two append functions can be distinguished in the logical layer by using the following predicate, which indicates that a property in the impure layer has *really* been proven:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{valid}_{\operatorname{Box}} : \forall P : \mathbb{P}, \ \operatorname{Box} P \to \mathbb{P} & \operatorname{valid}_{\operatorname{Box}} P \ (\operatorname{err}_{\operatorname{Box}} P) := \bot \\ \operatorname{valid}_{\operatorname{Box}} P \ (\operatorname{box} p) := \top & \operatorname{valid}_{\operatorname{Box}} P \ (?_{\operatorname{Box}} P) := \bot \end{array}
```

Posing $valid_{Sized} L(\underline{\cdot}; p) := valid_{Box} \underline{\cdot} p$, the precise append function is the only one of the two versions for which one can prove:

```
valid_{ppend} : \forall A \ n \ m \ l \ l', valid_{sizedl} \ l \rightarrow valid_{sizedl} \ l' \rightarrow valid_{sizedl} \ (append \ A \ n \ m \ l \ l')
```

In a gradual setting, we can also use the unknown term in order to avoid an explicit definition of the resulting size of the list. For instance, the filter function can be given the imprecise type

filter:
$$\forall A \ n \ (P : A \to \mathbb{P})$$
, Sized $\mathbb{L} A \ n \to \text{Sized} \mathbb{L} A$?

However, there is no way to give a valid implementation of a filter function of that type, because the size of the filtered list cannot be proven to be equal to $?_{\mathbb{N}}$ in the logical layer. Taking advantage of the internal notion of precision, we can define an alternative notion of sized list in GRIP as

$$\operatorname{Sized}\mathbb{L}_{\sqsubseteq} A \ n := \{l : \mathbb{L} \ A \ \& \ \operatorname{\mathbb{B}ox} \ (\operatorname{len} \ l \ _{\mathbb{N}} \sqsubseteq_{\mathbb{N}} \ n)\}.$$

Using this notion of sized lists, it is possible to define a valid filter function of type

$$filter_{\sqsubset} : \forall A \ n \ (P : A \rightarrow \mathbb{P}), \ Sized \mathbb{L}_{\sqsubset} \ A \ n \rightarrow Sized \mathbb{L}_{\sqsubset} \ A \ ?_{\mathbb{N}}.$$

because the proof that the size of the filtered list is more precise than $?_{\mathbb{N}}$ directly follows from the fact that $?_{\mathbb{N}}$ is the maximal element of type \mathbb{N} .

3 GRADUAL TYPES AND PURE PROPOSITIONS

In this section, we present the two-layer core of GRIP, intended to be both a gradual cast calculus, target for elaboration of a gradual surface language, and a pure language to consistently reason about programs in that cast calculus. In § 3.1, we give an overview of the gradual part of the language, while § 3.2 introduces the pure sort of propositions. Finally, § 3.3 discusses how to soundly support interactions between these two layers.

3.1 The Impure Layer of Gradual Terms

As seen in § 2.1, CastCIC is an extension of MLTT with primitives for gradual typing, namely casts, errors and unknown terms. For the impure layer of gradual terms, GRIP follows significantly CastCIC [Lennon-Bertrand et al. 2022], with some minor modifications and presentation differences highlighted below, in particular the support for exception handling and explicit cumulativity.

The syntax and typing rules of the gradual layer of GRIP are given in Fig. 1. They feature a hierarchy of universes \square_i , dependent products Π introduced by λ -abstraction and destructed by applications, and inductive types, introduced by constructors and destructed by catch operators. Here we do not consider inductive types with indices, such as equality, whose treatment is deferred to §6.1. For readability we only formally present lists \mathbb{L} , however the calculus can readily be extended with other parametrized instances of \mathbb{W} -types (see §6.2), as done for CastCIC. Throughout the article, and in particular for examples, we take the liberty to use dependent sums Σ , natural numbers \mathbb{N} and booleans \mathbb{B} . The typing rule (List-Catch) for the catch operator on lists requires two additional arguments with respect to the usual recursor on lists, one for the case of an error, and one for ?. Note that the usual recursor on lists $\operatorname{ind}_{\mathbb{L}}^{\square}$ which simply propagates err and ?, as used in CastCIC, can be recovered from the catch operator by defining h_{err} to be err and h_7 to be ?.

Like Agda, GRIP uses explicit cumulativity. The operator ι lifts a type from one universe to the next, and operators \uparrow and \downarrow coerce between a type and its lift. We choose explicit cumulativity due to the central role it plays in the definition of internal precision (§4—see §6 for further discussion on explicit versus implicit cumulativity). As for the gradual part of the calculus, it features the unknown terms $?_A:A$, errors $\mathsf{err}_A:A$, and casts $\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle$ a between arbitrary types at the same universe level.

As any dependent type theory, GRIP relies on a notion of conversion that allows us to convert a term of type T' to a term of type T (Rule Conv) as soon the two types are convertible. Conversion is defined as the reflexive, symmetric and transitive closure of reduction with the additional η -conversion for functions and the fact that \uparrow and \downarrow are inverse of each other.

Fig. 1. GRIP: typing of the impure layer — based on CastCIC

The dynamic behavior of these terms is presented by means of a reduction relation in Fig. 2, directly adapted from that of CastCIC. There are three sets of rules. The first is for standard rules of MLTT, *i.e.*, the usual β -rule for functions and ι -rule for lists. The second corresponds to propagation of both ? and err as exceptions as advocated for by Pédrot and Tabareau [2018]. The last describes the behavior of the cast primitive, which computes based on the shape of its two type arguments. The first five rules propagate casts between types with the same head constructor. The next four correspond to failures, either when the source and target types are incompatible, when one of them is an error, or when trying to cast a product type into the unknown type of its level. This last rule Π -Err is crucial for normalization, as it is responsible for the failure of terms such as Ω . Next, rule UP-Down can be understood as a form of ι -rule for $?_{\Pi}$: it showcases the fact that casts

into ? $_{\square}$ work as canonical forms for it (when their domain is of a certain form), with casts from ? $_{\square}$ as destructors. Finally rule \mathbb{L} -Dec decomposes casts from a list into the unknown type through \mathbb{L} ? $_{\square}$, the most general type with \mathbb{L} as a head constructor, letting rules \mathbb{L} - \mathbb{L} -NIL and \mathbb{L} - \mathbb{L} -Cons further decompose the innermost cast if applicable. Finally, Red-Cong complements the top-level reduction given by the other rules with congruence closure. For the purpose of that rule \mathbb{L} , cons $_{A}$, ni $\mathbb{1}_{A}$ and catch \mathbb{L} are treated as terms applied to their arguments.

As standard in rewriting systems for programming languages, reduction is orthogonal (left-linear and without critical pairs), and so the standard parallel reduction proof technique [Takahashi 1995] applies to show that it is confluent. This is further witnessed by the confluence checker of Agda, which accepts the definitions of the proof-of-concept implementation.

3.2 The Pure Layer for Reasoning on Gradual Terms

The casts $\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle$ t and exceptional terms $\operatorname{err}_A, ?_A$ are fundamental features to enable gradual programming. However, as a consequence all types are inhabited, so logical consistency, and thus meaningful internal reasoning on programs, is lost. To remedy this problem, following the insight of RETT [Pédrot et al. 2019], we introduce an additional layer dedicated to sound reasoning, which must therefore be free of the gradual primitives. As in RETT, the separation between the impure and pure layers is controlled by means of sorts: alongside the impure hierarchy of gradual terms \Box_i , we introduce a new impredicative 3 sort $\mathbb P$ of definitionally proof-irrelevant pure propositions. Since the propositional layer is pure, there is no "unknown proposition" $?_P$ for a proposition P. But this is not needed, because in that layer axioms suffice, as they are readily convertible to any other term by propositional irrelevance.

In more details, Fig. 3 shows how GRIP extends what was essentially CastCIC with this new sort \mathbb{P} (\mathbb{P} -WF). In particular, an extension of conversion specifies that any two proofs of the same proposition are convertible (\mathbb{P} -Irr). We use \mathfrak{s} for a generic sort, that is either \mathbb{P} or \square_i for some i. At this stage, there are only two ways to construct propositions. On one side, the empty proposition \bot (\bot -WF) with no introduction, and elimination in the form of an explosion principle (\bot -ELIM). On the other, universal quantification over propositions or types (\forall -WF) introduced by λ -abstraction (\forall -Intro) and eliminated by application (\forall -ELIM). Implication $P \to Q$ between propositions is defined as the non-dependent quantification \forall ($_$: P), Q. More interesting ones will be added later, such as the precision relation (Fig. 4). However, further logical connectives can already be encoded on top of the primitives we already have, using impredicativity and definitional proof-irrelevance [Gilbert et al. 2019]. For instance, the proposition true can defined by \top := $\bot \to \bot$.

The success of the separation of layers is given by the following theorem, proven in §5.

THEOREM 1 (Logical soundness of GRIP). If MLTT extended with strict propositions is consistent then there is no closed proof \vdash $e : \bot$ of the empty proposition $\bot : \mathbb{P}$ in GRIP.

3.3 Crossing Sort Boundaries

Eliminations. Because of the important differences between the two layers of GRIP, their interactions need to be finely controlled in order to stay well-behaved. This is done by providing restricted elimination of inhabitants of types from one layer to types of the other.

In one direction, eliminating from the pure propositional layer to the impure gradual one is allowed only through the empty proposition \bot , by using the explosion principle, a.k.a. *ex-falso* (\bot -ELIM). This can be seen as a strengthening of the singleton elimination criterion of the usual Prop sort of Coq, in a way that respects definitional proof-irrelevance [Gilbert et al. 2019]. Effectively,

³Impredicativity is inessential but simplifies the exposition while matching the model in §5; the Agda development shows how this presentation can be adapted to a predicative hierarchy \mathbb{P}_i .

```
\operatorname{Head}, \operatorname{Whnf}_{\square}, \operatorname{head}:\operatorname{Whnf}_{\square}\to\operatorname{Head}
                                        Head \ni h ::= \square \mid \Pi \mid \mathbb{L} \mid \iota A
                                                                                                                                                 Whnf\square ::= \square_i \mid \Pi x : A.B \mid \mathbb{L} A \mid \iota A
                                                        head(\Pi x : A.B) := \Pi \qquad head(\mathbb{L} A) := \mathbb{L}
                                                                                                                                                                                    head(\iota A) := \iota
t \rightsquigarrow t'
               \Pi-\beta: (\lambda x:A.t)\ u \leadsto t[u/x] CATCH-nil: catch_{\mathbb{L}}^{\square} P\ h_{\text{nil}}\ h_{\text{cons}}\ h_{\text{err}}\ h_{?}\ \text{nil}_{A} \leadsto h_{\text{nil}}
CATCH-cons: catch _{\mathbb{L}}^{\square} A P h_{\text{nil}} h_{\text{cons}} h_{\text{err}} h_{?} (cons A a l) \rightarrow h_{\text{cons}} a l (catch _{\mathbb{L}}^{\square} A P h_{\text{nil}} h_{\text{cons}} h_{\text{err}} h_{?} l)
                                                                                    Propagation rules for? and err
                           \Pi-Unk: ?_{\Pi(x:A),B} \hookrightarrow \lambda(x:A).?_B \Pi-Err: err_{\Pi(x:A),B} \hookrightarrow \lambda(x:A).err_B
                     \text{Cum-Unk}: ?_{\iota A} \leadsto \uparrow ?_{A} \qquad \qquad \text{Catch-Unk}: \operatorname{catch}_{\mathbb{L}}^{\square}{}_{A} \ P \ h_{\text{nil}} \ h_{\text{cons}} \ h_{\text{err}} \ h_{?} ?_{\mathbb{L}A} \leadsto h_{?}
            Cum-Err: \operatorname{err}_{lA} \leadsto \uparrow \operatorname{err}_A Catch-Err: \operatorname{catch}_{\mathbb{L}_A}^{\square} P h_{\operatorname{nil}} h_{\operatorname{cons}} h_{\operatorname{err}} h_{\operatorname{?}} \operatorname{err}_{\mathbb{L}_A} \leadsto h_{\operatorname{err}}
        \mathbb{L}\text{-Cast-Unk}: \ \langle \mathbb{L}A' \Leftarrow \mathbb{L}A'' \rangle ?_{\mathbb{L}A} \leadsto ?_{\mathbb{L}A'} \qquad \qquad \mathbb{L}\text{-Cast-Err}: \ \langle \mathbb{L}A' \Leftarrow \mathbb{L}A'' \rangle \operatorname{err}_{\mathbb{L}A} \leadsto \operatorname{err}_{\mathbb{L}A'}
Down-Unk: \langle T \Leftarrow ?_{\Box_i} \rangle ?_{?_{\Box_i}} \rightarrow ?_T Down-Err: \langle T \Leftarrow ?_{\Box_i} \rangle \operatorname{err}_{?_{\Box_i}} \rightarrow \operatorname{err}_T \operatorname{when} T \in \operatorname{Whnf}_{\Box}
                                                                                             Reduction rules for cast
\Pi - \Pi : \langle \Pi(y:A_2).B_2 \leftarrow \Pi(x:A_1).B_1 \rangle f \rightsquigarrow \lambda y : A_2. \langle B_2 \leftarrow B_1 [\langle A_1 \leftarrow A_2 \rangle y/x] \rangle (f \langle A_1 \leftarrow A_2 \rangle y)
                       Cum-Cum: \langle \iota A' \leftarrow \iota A \rangle \uparrow t \rightarrow \uparrow \langle A' \leftarrow A \rangle t Univ-Univ: \langle \Box_i \leftarrow \Box_i \rangle A \rightarrow A
\mathbb{L}-\mathbb{L}-\mathbb{N}IL: \langle \mathbb{L} A' \Leftarrow \mathbb{L} A'' \rangle \operatorname{nil}_A \rightsquigarrow \operatorname{nil}_{A'}
\mathbb{L}-\mathbb{L}-Cons: \langle \mathbb{L} A' \Leftarrow \mathbb{L} A'' \rangle (\mathsf{cons}_A a l) \rightarrow \mathsf{cons}_{A'} (\langle A' \Leftarrow A \rangle a) (\langle \mathbb{L} A' \Leftarrow \mathbb{L} A \rangle l)
HEAD-ERR: \langle T' \leftarrow T \rangle t \rightsquigarrow \text{err}_{T'}
                                                                                                                                                   when T, T' \in Whnf_{\square} and head T \neq head T'
  \mathsf{Dom\text{-}Err}: \ \langle T \Leftarrow \mathsf{err}_{\square_i} \rangle \ t \leadsto \mathsf{err}_T \qquad \mathsf{Cod\text{-}Err}: \ \langle \mathsf{err}_{\square_i} \Leftarrow T \rangle \ t \leadsto \mathsf{err}_{\square_i} \qquad \text{ when } T \in \mathsf{Whnf}_{\square}
Cast-\Pi-Err: \langle ?_{\square_i} \leftarrow \Pi x : A.B \rangle f \rightarrow \text{err}_{?\square_i}
UP-Down: \langle Y \Leftarrow ?_{\bigcap_i} \rangle \langle ?_{\bigcap_i} \Leftarrow X \rangle t \rightsquigarrow \langle X \Leftarrow Y \rangle t
                                                                                                                         when X \in \text{Whnf}_{\square} and Y is \mathbb{L} ?_{\square}, \square or \iota A
\mathbb{L}\text{-Dec}: \ \langle ?_{\bigcap_i} \leftarrow \mathbb{L} A \rangle \, t \rightsquigarrow \langle \mathbb{L} A \leftarrow \mathbb{L} \, ?_{\bigcap_i} \rangle \langle \mathbb{L} \, ?_{\bigcap_i} \leftarrow ?_{\bigcap_i} \rangle \, t
                                                                                                                                                                                                              when \mathbb{L} A \neq \mathbb{L} ?_{\square}
                                                                    Congruence (A, B and t denote arbitrary terms)
          C ::= [\cdot] \mid \Pi x : C. B \mid \Pi x : A.C \mid \lambda x : C. t \mid \lambda x : A. C \mid t C \mid C t
                                                                                                                                                                                                       Red-Cong
                       |?_C| \operatorname{err}_C | \langle B \Leftarrow C \rangle t | \langle C \Leftarrow A \rangle t | \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle C | \iota C | \uparrow C | \downarrow C
                                                                                                                                                                                                       \overline{C[t] \rightsquigarrow C[t']}
                       |\operatorname{nil}_C|\operatorname{cons}_C|\operatorname{catch}_{\mathbb{L}_C}^\square
```

Fig. 2. GRIP: Reduction rules - adapted from CastCIC

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}\text{-WF}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbb{P}} \qquad \frac{\mathbb{P}\text{-IRR}}{\Gamma \vdash P : \mathbb{D}} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \mathbb{P}}{\Gamma \vdash P : \mathbb{P}} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P, q : P}{\Gamma \vdash L : \mathbb{P}} \qquad \frac{1 \text{--WF}}{\Gamma \vdash P : \mathbb{L}} \qquad \frac{1 \text{--ELIM}}{\Gamma \vdash P : \mathbb{L}} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : A} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : \bot}{\Gamma \vdash A : Box P \rightarrow \$} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P :$$

Fig. 3. GRIP: Extensions of typing and reduction for propositions and boxing ($s = \mathbb{P}$ or \square_i)

one is allowed to use a proof of a proposition to inhabit a type only to show that we are in an inconsistent context, typically in an unreachable branch of a match. In practice, this ends up not being too restrictive, since quite a few propositions are defined on top of \bot . For instance, internal precision defined in §4 ultimately reduces to a combination of \forall and \bot after case analysis on its type parameters.

In the other direction, eliminators from the impure layer to the pure layer need to take errors and ? into account. Indeed, since these terms do not exist as propositions, they cannot be used when matching on an impure argument. Thus, the need for a catch recursor is even more dire than for types, because we cannot rely on errors in the target type to provide "default" values for an err or ? scrutinee, as an ind recursor does. On lists, for instance, we get $\mathsf{catch}^\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{L} A}$, which behaves exactly the same as $\mathsf{catch}^\mathbb{D}_{\mathbb{L} A}$ except that it can be used on predicates of type $\mathbb{L} A \to \mathbb{P}$.

Embedding Propositional Invariants within \square . In order to quantify over a proposition in a type, or carry a proof along some data, propositions must be embeddable into types and equipped with err and ?. As illustrated in §2.6 with the case of gradual subset types, this is achieved through the type \mathbb{B} ox P (Fig. 3) that packs a proposition $P : \mathbb{P}$ (\mathbb{B} ox- \mathbb{W} F). A proof p : P of a proposition can be used to inhabit \mathbb{B} ox P using the constructor box_P (\mathbb{B} ox- \mathbb{N} Thro). Moreover, as any other type, \mathbb{B} ox P is equipped with exceptional constructors $\mathsf{err}_{\mathbb{B} ox P}$ and $?_{\mathbb{B} ox P}$. The eliminator on \mathbb{B} ox is given by a catch operator, similar to the one for lists (\mathbb{B} ox- \mathbb{E} LIM), whose obvious reduction rules are omitted.

We extend the reduction of casts to \mathbb{B} ox (Box-Box) by reducing a cast between \mathbb{B} ox-types to an error. This peculiar definition is chiefly due to the fact that we cannot decide entailment between arbitrary propositions P and Q, and so cannot decide when casting $\mathsf{box}_P p$ to \mathbb{B} ox Q should return some $\mathsf{box}_Q p'$ or fail.

4 INTERNALIZING PRECISION

The pure logical layer \mathbb{P} is used to assert properties of the impure gradual layer \square . But none of the primitives introduced in §3 enable direct reasoning on the most important relation between gradual programs: precision. In this section, we provide exactly this, by extending the logical layer with an internal precision relation specifying the behavior of casts (§ 4.1).

However, having a definition of precision is not enough: as we cannot reason by induction on types, general properties such as transitivity of precision cannot be derived from the definition in § 4.1 alone. This is why we also need to directly add properties of precision (§ 4.2). As those are added as new constants inhabiting propositions, we do not need to specify anything about them. Indeed, all inhabitants of propositions are definitionally equal, so none of them is better than another. The only thing of importance is to preserve consistency of the theory, by ensuring that the properties are validated by the model (§5).

Although the impure layer does not globally satisfy graduality, a large fragment of the language behaves well, in the sense that it is monotone with respect to precision (§4.3). In particular, we show that this fragment subsumes $GRIP^{\uparrow}$, a fragment inspired by $CastCIC^{\uparrow}$, the normalizing gradual variant proposed by [Lennon-Bertrand et al. 2022] (Corollary 8).

4.1 The Precision Relation

The *raison d'être* of the propositional layer is to host the precision relation, that provides an entry point for specifying correctness properties of casts. Precision is formulated in two distinct flavors for types and terms: a homogeneous relation $A \sqsubseteq_i B$ on types $A, B : \Box_i$ of a common universe level i, and a heterogeneous relation $a \bowtie_i B$ between terms a : A and b : B. These two precision relations are internalized as two new primitive type formers, and their content is described by their behaviour on their type parameters. In practice we present these relations through a confluent reduction system in Fig. 4, corresponding to a definition by case analysis on the type parameters, which is how the model of §5 proceeds. We note $a \mathrel{\blacksquare}_A a'$ for $a \mathrel{\sqsubseteq}_A a' \wedge a' \mathrel{\sqcap}_A \mathrel{\sqsubseteq}_A a$.

Let us now explain the two main properties we expect to hold. First, the precision relation should be *transitive*: there should be an operation \cdot such that if $e:A\sqsubseteq_i B$ and $e':B\sqsubseteq_i C$ then $e\cdot e':A\sqsubseteq_i C$. Second, the precision relation cannot be reflexive. Indeed, reflexivity at function types $A\to B$ entails monotonicity: due to the way we define precision, if a function $f:A\to B$ verifies $f\sqsubseteq f$ then for any $a_A\sqsubseteq_A a', fa_B\sqsubseteq_B fa'$. But we do not want to globally forbid such non-monotone features, as we rather made the design choice to allow some non-monotonicity in GRIP, e.g. the catch construct. As a consequence, reflexivity becomes a property, and we say that a type $A:\Box_i$ is self-precise, noted A^{\sqsubseteq_i} , when it is a reflexive element of \sqsubseteq_i . Similarly, a term a:A is called self-precise, noted a^{\sqsubseteq_A} , when it is related to itself by A^{\sqsubseteq_A} . Not every type is self-precise, but the precision relation is $a_{a} = a_{a} = a_{a}$

Let us now turn to the actual content of the precision relations as defined in Fig. 4. Term and type precision are internally supported by adding two new term formers, whose typing is given by the first two rules \sqsubseteq -Type-Wf and \sqsubseteq -Wf. \square -Refl-Ty next states that each universe \square_i is self-precise (as a type), \mathbb{P} -Refl-Ty that \mathbb{P} is self-precise at level 0, and ι -Cong-Ty and \mathbb{L} -Cong-Ty that ι and \mathbb{L} are congruent for precision on types at the adequate levels. Precision at product types is the crux of the definition of precision, we defer its explanation of Π -Cong to after the other rules. For now, it is only important to note that contrarily to other type formers, there is no rule to relate product

⁴In order to obtain transitivity on function types, the precision relation needs to be at least co-transitive, a property obtained here as a consequence of quasi-reflexivity.

$$\begin{array}{c} \sqsubseteq \text{-Type-Wf} \\ \Gamma \vdash A, B : \square_{i} \\ \Gamma \vdash A, B : \square_{i} \\ \Gamma \vdash A, B : \square_{i} \\ \Gamma \vdash A \sqsubseteq_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \sqsubseteq \text{-WF} \\ \Gamma \vdash A, B : \square_{i} \\ \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A = \square_{i} B : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash A : \mathbb{P} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash$$

Fig. 4. Precision on types and terms

types *as terms*, only *as types*. This is the technical counterpart of the intuition given in §2.3 that precision between products should be guarded by an explicit use of cumulativity.

Next come the rules for type formers as terms: all of them—apart, crucially, from product types—are either directly self-precise (as terms of \Box_i) or congruent because they are congruent for type precision and bounded above by $?_{\Box}$. Indeed, heterogeneous precision between types reduces to homogeneous precision between types more precise than $?_{\Box_i}$ by virtue of \Box - \sqsubseteq , tying the knot

between the two notions. As a consequence, a proof of precision $A_{\square_i} \sqsubseteq_{\square_i} A$ entails that $A \sqsubseteq_i A$ as well as $A \sqsubseteq_i ?_{\square_i}$. \square_i , $\mathbb P$ are bounded by $?_\square$ via \square -?-Bound, $\mathbb P$ -?-Bound, whereas ι require that its parameter is self-precise, rule ι -?-Bound, and $\mathbb L$ that its parameter is bounded by $?_\square$, rule $\mathbb L$ -?-Bound. The two exceptional types err_\square and $?_\square$ are also self-precise, both as types and terms of the universe, using instances of err -Refl and ?-Refl.

More generally, the rules err-Refl and ?-Refl ensure that the terms err_A and ?_A are in relation with themselves, while err- \sqsubseteq and ?- \sqsubseteq say that they are respectively minimal and maximal—for self-precise terms of a self-precise type.

Heterogeneous precision between propositions is degenerate (\mathbb{P} - \mathbb{L}), meaning that any two propositions are related by precision. Monotonicity of \mathbb{B} ox with respect to precision on propositions (\mathbb{B} ox-Cong) means that precision between boxed propositions is degenerate as well. To validate this, we endow \mathbb{B} ox types with a precision relation collapsing all terms (\mathbb{B} ox- \mathbb{L}). This is sensible, as it showcases the fact that no (self-precise) context should be allowed to distinguish two proofs of a proposition, since those, even \mathbb{B} oxed, ought to be observationally subsingletons. It also makes the eager erroring behavior of \mathbb{B} ox- \mathbb{B} ox sensible, since the error is as good an inhabitant of a \mathbb{B} oxed proposition as any.

Cumulativity preserves the relation between types coming from lower levels (ι - \sqsubseteq), meaning that coercions between a type and its lifting are monotone. On inductive types the precision relation closely resembles binary parametricity [Bernardy et al. 2012], relating a constructor to itself when arguments are related (\mathbb{L} - \mathbb{L} -nil, \mathbb{L} - \mathbb{L} -cons). Two no confusion principles (NoConf-nil-cons, NoConf-cons-nil) allow to deny the relatedness of lists that have distinct head constructors.

Finally, we need to explain how function types are related by (type) precision. For simplicity, we start with the non-dependent case that takes the standard shape found in other gradual languages: two function types $A \to B$ and $A' \to B'$ are related whenever their domains and codomains are related: $A \sqsubseteq_i A' \land B \sqsubseteq_i B'$. The relation of precision $f_{A \to B} \sqsubseteq_{A' \to B'} g$ between functions $f: A \to B$ and $g: A' \to B'$ has to ensure that (1) f is monotone with respect to the precision on A and B; and (3) given inputs a: A, a': A' related by precision $a_A \sqsubseteq_A a', f a: B$ is related to g a': B' by $_B \sqsubseteq_B$. Condition (3) boils down to the standard definition of (binary) parametricity on function types. Additional conditions (1-2) are required to ensure quasi-reflexivity at function types: since we do not want to globally impose that functions respect precision, we need to explicitly require that precision only relates monotone functions. For a function $f: A \to B$ between self-precise types, being self-precise is logically equivalent to being monotone with respect to precision, so conditions (1-3) are equivalent in that case.

In the case of dependent function types (Π -Cong), domains must be related similarly to the non-dependent case but the codomains must now be related *as type families*, meaning that they are required to satisfy variants of the conditions (1-3) with respect to type precision. Finally, the relation between dependent functions is described by Π - \sqsubseteq and requires again that both functions are monotone and map related input to related outputs, at the adequate types.

Example 2 (Necessity of monotonicity in function types). Consider the two functions of type $\mathbb{O} \to \text{unit}$ given by $f := \operatorname{catch}_{\mathbb{O}}(\lambda(x:\mathbb{O}).\operatorname{unit})$ () $\operatorname{err}_{\operatorname{unit}}$ and $g := \operatorname{catch}_{\mathbb{O}}(\lambda(x:\mathbb{O}).\operatorname{unit})$? unit () using the eliminator for the empty inductive type \mathbb{O} , $\operatorname{catch}_{\mathbb{O}}: \Pi(P:\mathbb{O} \to \square)(h_{\operatorname{err}}:P\operatorname{err}_{\mathbb{O}})(h_{?}:P?_{\mathbb{O}})(x:\mathbb{O}).Px$. These functions verify that $\forall x \in \mathbb{O} = \mathbb{O} = \mathbb{O} = \mathbb{O}$, but neither f or g are monotone. As a consequence, precision on function types need to be restricted to monotone

⁵In the case of lists and using transitivity, we can derive solely from these two rules that any non-exceptional constructor is discriminable from $\text{err}_{\mathbb{L}A}$, $?_{\mathbb{L}A}$, e.g. that $\text{nil}_{\mathbb{L}A} \not\sqsubseteq_{\mathbb{L}A} \text{err}_{\mathbb{L}A}$, and $?_{\mathbb{L}A} \not\sqsubseteq_{\mathbb{L}A} \text{err}_{\mathbb{L}A}$. For other inductive types such as $\mathbb O$ or unit, these rules should be assumed primitively, e.g.? $_{\mathbb O} \not\sqsubseteq_{\mathbb O} \text{err}_{\mathbb O}$ for the empty type $\mathbb O$.

functions. Taking f to be instead the constant function with value err_{unit} , or g the constant function with value $?_{unit}$ shows that we really need both functions to be monotone.

4.2 Properties of Precision

We now extend the theory with properties about precision that are validated by our model (presented in §5), in order to allow users to reason abstractly about precision proofs in GRIP. Thus, whenever we say that a property "holds" in this section, it should be understood as a twofold statement: first, the property is validated in the model, and so we add a new constant in GRIP, witnessing its truth.

Embedding-projection pairs. Why do we care so much about precision? The fundamental reason is that casts between types that are related by precision are well-behaved. We adopt the approach of New and Ahmed [2018] to characterize well-behaved pairs of casts as those that form an embedding projection pair (ep-pair). In our setting that allows non monotone functions, the definition of an ep-pair needs to be relativized to self-precise elements.

DEFINITION 1 (Embedding projection pairs). A pair of functions ($\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle : A \to B, \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle : B \to A$) is an embedding projection pair, notation $\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle + \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle$, when:

Monotonicity both $\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle$ and $\langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle$ are monotone with respect to precision,

$$\forall a \ a' : A, a \ _A \sqsubseteq_A a' \rightarrow \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle \ a \ _B \sqsubseteq_B \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle \ a'$$

$$\forall b \ b' : B, b \ _B \sqsubseteq_B b' \rightarrow \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle \ b \ _B \sqsubseteq_B \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle \ b'$$

Adjunction for any self-precise terms a:A,b:B the following adjunction property is verified

$$a^{\sqsubseteq_A} \wedge b^{\sqsubseteq_B} \quad \to \quad \langle B \Longleftarrow A \rangle \, a_{B} \sqsubseteq_B b \longleftrightarrow a_A \sqsubseteq_A \langle A \Longleftarrow B \rangle \, b,$$

Retraction a self-precise term a : A is equiprecise with its downcast-upcast:

$$a^{\sqsubseteq_A} \rightarrow \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle a_A \sqsubseteq_A a$$

The reverse precision relation is a consequence of reflexivity and the adjunction property.

We call $\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle - : A \to B$ the **upcast** associated to the ep-pair and $\langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle - : B \to A$ the **downcast**.

PROPOSITION 3. In GRIP, any pair of casts ($\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle : A \to B, \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle : B \to A$) between types $A \sqsubseteq_i B$ related by precision forms an embedding projection pair witnessed by

$$\sqsubseteq$$
-ep-pair : $\forall A B$, $A \sqsubseteq_i B \rightarrow \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle + \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle$.

Proof. The addition of the constant \sqsubseteq -ep-pair is justified by the model of GRIP presented in §5, in particular by the functorial component of El in Theorem 9 providing an ep-pair for any two types related by precision.

Order-like properties. In order to establish that two types are related by precision, we can use the generic axioms of the precision relations described in Fig. 5 beside those of Fig. 4. Type precision is a quasi-reflexive and transitive relation, and so is term precision at any self-precise type, meaning that ${}_A\sqsubseteq_A$ is quasi-reflexive and transitive whenever A^{\sqsubseteq_i} . Moreover, using Fig. 4, they admit err and ? as respectively smallest and largest (self-precise) elements. More generally, heterogeneous term precision satisfies indexed variants of quasi-reflexivity and transitivity on self-precise types.

Quasi-reflexivity and transitivity

Decomposition of casts

$$\frac{\text{Upper-Decomposition}}{\Gamma \vdash w_{AX} : A \sqsubseteq_{i} X} \frac{\Gamma \vdash w_{BX} : B \sqsubseteq_{i} X}{\Gamma \vdash w_{BX} : a \sqsubseteq_{A}} \frac{\Gamma \vdash w_{a} : a^{\sqsubseteq_{A}}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{upper-decomp } w_{AX} \ w_{BX} \ w_{a} : \langle B \Leftarrow X \rangle \ \langle X \Leftarrow A \rangle \ a \ \underline{\bot}_{B} \ \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle \ a}$$

Decomposition of heterogenous term precision

$$\operatorname{For} A \sqsubseteq_i X, B \sqsubseteq_i X, \qquad a \mathrel{_{A}\sqsubseteq_{B}} b \qquad \leftrightarrow \qquad a^{\sqsubseteq_{A}} \quad \wedge \quad \langle X \Leftarrow A \rangle \, a \mathrel{_{X}\sqsubseteq_{X}} \langle X \Leftarrow B \rangle \, b \quad \wedge \quad b^{\sqsubseteq_{B}} \quad (1)$$

Fig. 5. Axioms of precision

Functoriality & monotonicity of casts.

Characterization of heterogenous term precision

For
$$A^{\sqsubseteq_i}, B^{\sqsubseteq_i}, \quad a_{A}\sqsubseteq_B b \quad \leftrightarrow \quad a_{A}\sqsubseteq_A \langle A \Leftarrow B \rangle b \quad \land \quad b^{\sqsubseteq_B}$$
 (2)

Fig. 6. Properties of precision

Decomposition of casts and heterogeneous precision. A further fundamental property of casts is that they decompose through any type less precise than both the source and the target of the cast: if $A \sqsubseteq_i X$ and $B \sqsubseteq_i X$, then for any self-precise term a : A, the cast $\langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle$ a is equiprecise to an upcast from A to X followed by a downcast to B:

$$a^{\sqsubseteq_A} \to \langle B \Leftarrow X \rangle \langle X \Leftarrow A \rangle a \mathrel{\underline{\bot}}_B \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle a$$

Heterogenous term precision ${}_A\sqsubseteq_B$ satisfy a similar decomposition property Eq. (1) expressing that the relation between self-precise elements can be reduced to homogeneous precision at any common upper bound X of A, B for type precision. In particular, whenever A, B: \square_i are more precise than $?_{\square_i}$, that is when A, B are self-precise as terms of \square_i , $?_{\square_i}$ provides such a common upper bound for precision. As long as precision and cast are concerned, self precise types A, B: \square_i that are not bounded by $?_{\square_i}$ can be adequately replaced by ι A and ι B, thanks to ι -Cong-Ty and ι - \sqsubseteq , for which $?_{\square_{i+1}}$ is an upper bound. As a consequence of these properties, heterogeneous term precision between self precise types can be reformulated using solely homogeneous precision at

A, B and casts:

Composing casts. Using UPPER-DECOMPOSITION and the monotonicity of embedding projection pairs, we can show that the ep-pair induced by precision are functorial: casting a self-precise term a of a self-precise type A to A itself is equiprecise to a (Cast-Id), a succession of upcasts between precision-related types combine to a single upcast (UPCAST-COMP) and similarly for downcasts (Downcast-Comp).

Failure of threesomes. Since casts decompose in a well-behaved way through any upper bound, it is natural to wonder whether a similar property would hold for lower bounds, as can be found in threesomes [Siek and Wadler 2010] in the simply-typed gradual setting. In general, if $Y \sqsubseteq_i A$, $Y \sqsubseteq_i B$ we can derive from properties of casts that for any self-precise term a:A, $\langle B \Leftarrow Y \rangle \langle Y \Leftarrow A \rangle a$ $_B \sqsubseteq_B \langle B \Leftarrow A \rangle a$, and taking $A=B=\mathbb{N}$, $Y=\text{err}_{\square_i}$ and a=0 shows that this precision ordering can be strict. We could still expect that this relation is an equiprecision when Y is sufficiently close to both A and B, typically when it is their meet $A \sqcap B$ for the precision relation. Such a condition is known as the Beck-Chevalley condition in the literature on hyperdoctrines and descent [Lawvere 1970], and the following counterexample shows that this property does not hold in GRIP.

Example 4 (No cast decomposition through meets). Computing the meet of $X_1 = \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ and $X_2 = \Pi(b : \mathbb{B})$ (if b then \mathbb{N} else \mathbb{B}) gives

$$X_1 \sqcap X_2 = \Pi(x : \mathbb{N} \sqcap \mathbb{B}) \ \mathbb{N} \sqcap (\text{if } \langle \mathbb{B} \longleftarrow \mathbb{N} \sqcap \mathbb{B} \rangle x \text{ then } \mathbb{N} \text{ else } \mathbb{B})$$

$$= \Pi(x : \text{err}_{\square}) \ \mathbb{N} \sqcap (\text{if } \text{err}_{\mathbb{B}} \text{ then } \mathbb{N} \text{ else } \mathbb{B})$$

$$= \Pi(x : \text{err}_{\square}) \ \mathbb{N} \sqcap \text{err}_{\square}$$

$$= \text{err}_{\square} \rightarrow \text{err}_{\square}$$

Now computing the result of casting $f: X_1 := \lambda(n:\mathbb{N})$.5 to X_2 directly and through $X_1 \sqcap X_2$, and evaluating both results on true, we obtain

```
(\langle X_2 \Leftarrow X_1 \rangle f) \text{ true} = (\lambda(b : \mathbb{B}).\langle \text{if } b \text{ then } \mathbb{N} \text{ else } \mathbb{B} \Leftarrow \mathbb{N} \rangle f (\langle \mathbb{N} \Leftarrow \mathbb{B} \rangle b)) \text{ true}
= (\lambda(b : \mathbb{B}).\langle \text{if } b \text{ then } \mathbb{N} \text{ else } \mathbb{B} \Leftarrow \mathbb{N} \rangle f \text{ err}_{\mathbb{N}}) \text{ true}
= (\lambda(b : \mathbb{B}).\langle \text{if } b \text{ then } \mathbb{N} \text{ else } \mathbb{B} \Leftarrow \mathbb{N} \rangle 5) \text{ true}
= \langle \text{if true then } \mathbb{N} \text{ else } \mathbb{B} \Leftarrow \mathbb{N} \rangle 5 = \langle \mathbb{N} \Leftarrow \mathbb{N} \rangle 5 = 5
```

and

$$(\langle X_2 \Leftarrow X_1 \sqcap X_2 \rangle \langle X_1 \sqcap X_2 \Leftarrow X_1 \rangle f) \text{ true} = (\langle X_2 \Leftarrow \text{err}_{\square} \rightarrow \text{err}_{\square} \rangle \langle \text{err}_{\square} \rightarrow \text{err}_{\square} \Leftarrow X_1 \rangle f) \text{ true}$$

$$= (\langle X_2 \Leftarrow \text{err}_{\square} \rightarrow \text{err}_{\square} \rangle \lambda(x : \text{err}_{\square}). \text{ err}_{\text{err}_{\square}}) \text{ true}$$

$$= (\lambda(b : \mathbb{B}). \text{err}_{\text{if } b \text{ then } \mathbb{N} \text{ else } \mathbb{B}}) \text{ true} = \text{err}_{\mathbb{N}}$$

Note that for these examples the call-by-name behavior of err [Pédrot and Tabareau 2018] is crucial. In particular, $\langle X_2 \Leftarrow X_1 \rangle f \not\sqsubseteq \langle X_1 \Leftarrow X_1 \sqcap X_2 \rangle \langle X_1 \sqcap X_2 \Leftarrow X_2 \rangle f$ and the cast from X_1 to X_2 cannot be decomposed through a type more precise than both X_1 and X_2 . This counterexample can be adapted to use dependent sums Σ instead of dependent products, showing that this phenomenon is proper to type dependency and function types are not crucial.

Note that all the properties presented in this section only apply to self-precise terms. The behavior of cast on types or terms that are not self-precise, typically non monotone functions, is left partially unconstrained.

Dynamic Gradual Guarantee. A crucial property of precision is that self-precise contexts (*i.e.*, functions for a type A to $\mathbb B$) are monotone. As explained in §2.4, this is a form of Dynamic Gradual Guarantee, and it follows directly from the definition of precision for functions.

Theorem 5 (Dynamic Gradual Guarantee). For any $A: \square$ and boolean context $C: A \to \mathbb{B}$ such that $C = A \to \mathbb{B}$ such that $C \to \mathbb{B}$ such that

4.3 Monotone Fragment

By adequately restricting GRIP, we can consider a fragment where every term is monotone. On that fragment, precision between functions only needs a single heterogeneous component, bypassing boilerplate proofs of monotonicity. In practice, a characterization of this fragment could be used to automatically synthesize monotonicity proofs and lift a sizeable share of the burden imposed to the programmer.

There are two main non-monotone features in GRIP. The catch constructor, which purposely allows for a non-monotone treatment of err and ? (see Example 2), is the first source of non-monotone terms. The second source of non-monotone terms lie in the use of Π to produce terms of a universe, which cannot be monotone due to the Fire Triangle of Graduality. However, Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] explain how to sidestep the latter obstruction by systematically lifting Π types by one universe level up, a soluution employed in their CastCIC $^{\uparrow}$ system—the only variant of CastCIC that satisfies both normalization and graduality, by sacrificing conservativity over CIC. We can rethink CastCIC $^{\uparrow}$ as an attempt to guarantee that every well-typed term is self-precise in order to globally satisfy graduality. Inspired by this technique, we construct GRIP $^{\uparrow}$, a subsystem of GRIP where every term is self-precise.

Monotone catch. The typical non-monotone construction in GRIP, is the catch construction on inductive types (see Example 2). However there is a generic way to prove that a catch is monotone, assuming adequate precision hypotheses on its arguments. In the case of lists, monotonicity of catch $_{\Box A}^{\Box}$ amounts to:

$$\forall l \ l', \ l_{\parallel A} \sqsubseteq_{\parallel A} l' \rightarrow \mathsf{catch}_{\parallel A}^{\square} \ P \ h_{\mathsf{nil}} \ h_{\mathsf{cons}} \ h_{\mathsf{err}} \ h_{?} \ l_{p,l} \sqsubseteq_{p,l'} \ \mathsf{catch}_{\parallel A}^{\square} \ P \ h_{\mathsf{nil}} \ h_{\mathsf{cons}} \ h_{\mathsf{err}} \ h_{?} \ l'$$

A natural proof of monotonicity proceeds by successive induction on l and l' using catch. The cases with distinct head constructors, e.g. l = nil, $l' = \text{cons } a \, l''$, are contradictory thanks to the no-confusion rules for precision on list (for instance NoConfusion-cons). For the valid cases, we need to assume that the branches h_{nil} and h_{cons} are less precise than h_{err} and more precise than $h_{\text{?}}$, and that h_{cons} is self-precise, e.g. $h_{\text{err}} p_{\text{err}_{\mathbb{L} A}} \sqsubseteq p_{\text{nil}} h_{\text{nil}}$. In particular, $\text{ind}_{\mathbb{L}} \sqcap p_{\text{nil}} h_{\text{cons}} := \text{catch}_{\mathbb{L} A} \sqcap p_{\text{nil}} h_{\text{cons}} = \text{catch}_{\mathbb{L} A} \sqcap p_{\text{nil}} h_{\text{cons}} =$

GRIP[↑], a gradual fragment of GRIP. In Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022], the system CastCIC[↑] is both gradual and normalizing, at the cost of being more conservative than CIC: some terms are typable in CIC, but not in CastCIC[↑]. This is done by systematically increasing the level of a Π type. Drawing inspiration from this, we can define GRIP[↑], which has exactly the same rules for typing and conversion as Figs. 1 and 2, but for rule Prod replaced by the following rule Π -GRIP[↑], and uses of catch[□]_{Π} restricted to ind[□]_{Π} as defined above.

$$\frac{\Pi\text{-}\mathsf{GRIP}^{\uparrow}}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}^{\uparrow}} A: \square_{i} \qquad \Gamma, x: A \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}^{\uparrow}} B: \square_{i}}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}^{\uparrow}} \Pi x: A.B: \square_{i+1}}$$

To distinguish the two, we use \vdash_{GRIP} for judgments in GRIP, and \vdash_{GRIP}^{\uparrow} for judgments in GRIP^{\uparrow}. It is rather straightforward to define a translation [–] from GRIP^{\uparrow} to GRIP: the translation preserves

all term and type constructor but Π types where it adds an explicit coercion due to cumulativity:

$$\begin{aligned}
[\Pi x : A.B] &:= \iota(\Pi x : [A].[B]) \\
[\lambda x : A.t] &:= \uparrow(\lambda x : [A].[t]) \\
[t u] &:= (\downarrow [t]) [u]
\end{aligned}$$

Extending this translation to contexts in a pointwise fashion, we obtain the following correctness lemma.

LEMMA 6. The translation [−] from GRIP[↑] to GRIP forms a syntactic model:

```
(1) If \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}^{\uparrow}} t : A \text{ and } t \rightsquigarrow t' \text{ in } \mathsf{CastCIC}^{\uparrow} \text{ then } [\Gamma] \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}} [t] \equiv [t'] : [A] \text{ in } \mathsf{GRIP};
```

```
(2) If \Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}^{\uparrow}} t : A \ then \ [\Gamma] \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}} [t] : [A].
```

Proof. For point (1), β -reduction is preserved thanks to Coe-Retr and all other rules are the same in both systems. Point (2) is then immediate from the observation that Π -GRIP[↑] can be translated to an application of Prod followed by Cum, Abs is translated to an application of the same rule followed by Coe, and App is modified with an application of Coe-Inv.

Theorem 7 (Self-precision of GRIP[†] embedding). If $\vdash_{GRIP^{\uparrow}} t : A \text{ then } [t]^{\sqsubseteq_{[A]}}$ is derivable.

Proof. We prove more generally that if $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}^{\uparrow}} t : A$ then we can build a proof t' such that $[\Gamma]_{\varepsilon} \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}} t' : [t]_{0} \sqsubseteq_{[A]_{0}} \sqsubseteq_{[A]_{1}} [t]_{1}$, where $[\Gamma, x : A]_{\varepsilon} := [\Gamma]_{\varepsilon}, x_{0} : [A]_{0}, x_{1} : [A]_{1}, x_{\varepsilon} : x_{0} \sqsubseteq_{[A]_{0}} \sqsubseteq_{[A]_{1}} x_{1}$, and $[x]_{i} := x_{i}$. The proof proceeds by induction on the typing derivation. The case of $\inf_{A} f$ has already been outlined above, thus we only treat the other central case where $t = \Pi x : A.B$.

By induction hypothesis, we have $[\Gamma]_{\varepsilon} \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}} ih_A : [A]_0 \models_{[\Box_i]_0} \sqsubseteq_{[\Box_i]_1} [A]_1$ and $[\Gamma]_{\varepsilon}, x_0 : [A]_0, x_1 : [A]_1, x_{\varepsilon} : x_0 \models_{[A]_0} \sqsubseteq_{[A]_1} x_1 \vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}} ih_B : [B]_0 \models_{[\Box_i]_0} \sqsubseteq_{[\Box_i]_1} [B]_1$, and need to prove that $\iota(\Pi x_0 : [A]_0.[B]_0) \models_{[\Box_{i+1}]_0} \sqsubseteq_{[\Box_{i+1}]_1} \iota(\Pi x_1 : [A]_1.[B]_1)$. Hence, using $\Box \vdash \sqsubseteq$, ι -Cong-Ty and ι -?-Bound, that $\Pi x_0 : [A]_0.[B]_0 \sqsubseteq_i \Pi x_1 : [A]_1.[B]_1$. The two heterogeneous precision required by Π -Cong are direct consequences of ih_A and ih_B using $\Box \vdash \sqsubseteq$ to relate type and term precision at level i. Finally, the monotonicity of $[B]_0$ and $[B]_1$ are consequences of ih_B and quasi-reflexivity of precision that holds because every type in the context is self-precise.

Combining this theorem with Theorem 5, we get that the DGG holds for any GRIP^\uparrow context.

Corollary 8 (Dynamic Gradual Guarantee for GRIP^\uparrow). If $\vdash_{\mathsf{GRIP}^\uparrow} C: A \to \mathbb{B}$, then for any x, y such that $x \models_{[A]} \sqsubseteq_{[A]} y$ is derivable, also $(\downarrow [C]) x \models_{\mathbb{B}} (\downarrow [C]) y$ is.

Terms that fall outside of the GRIP^{\uparrow} fragment include recursive dependent arities such as nArrow (§ 2.3), and pathological terms such as Ω (§ 1) that would be non-terminating in a globally gradual system such as GCIC^G. More interestingly, examples like mult^{err}_L (§ 2.5) can be manually proven to be gradual even if they do not belong to GRIP^{\uparrow} because they use catch locally.

5 A MODEL OF A REASONABLY GRADUAL TYPE THEORY

In this section we prove Theorem 1, that is the relative consistency of GRIP with a hierarchy of n universes with respect to MLTT⁶ with (n+1) universes and a type of definitionally proof irrelevant propositions. To do so, we exhibit a model where types are equipped with a relation reflecting precision. We formalized the components of this model (for two universes \square_0 and \square_1) in Coq. The construction of the model can be stratified in 3 layers:

- first, a computational layer that provides meaning to casts and exceptional terms err_A,?_A;
- second, a relational layer that equips every type with a relation and defines a compatible global heterogeneous relation between elements;

⁶With the standard type formers \mathbb{O} , $\mathbb{1}$, \mathbb{Z} , W, Σ, Id and Π.

Fig. 7. Simplified code for the universe of codes and of cast.

third, a logical layer ensuring that said relations do capture well-behaved casts whenever all
inputs are adequately related.

Computational layer. The computational layer closely resembles the discrete model of Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022], and we explain here its main features. The introduction of exceptional terms follows the approach of ExTT [Pédrot and Tabareau 2018]. Its main point is to extend each inductive type with two new constructors, one for ? and one for err. Product types and functions are left unmodified, defining ? and err pointwise.

We depart from this model on universes, so that we can define the cast primitive by case analysis on types. Taking inspiration from Boulier et al. [2017], we interpret types as *codes* when they are seen as terms, and as *the semantics of those codes* when they are seen as types. Thus, the standard interpretation for a term inhabiting a type is maintained, but a function taking as argument an element of the universe \square_i can now perform a case analysis on the code of the type. The precise construction of the interpretation of the universe hierarchy employs a technique presented by Sattler and Vezzosi [2020]. We first define an inductive family code : $\square_i \to \square_{i+1}$ describing codes for types and then pack it as $\square_i : \square_{i+1} := \Sigma(A : \square_i)$ code A, using the first projection as decoding. We can then define an operation cast : forall (A B : \square_i), $A \to B$ by induction on these codes, following the reduction rules of Fig. 2. Fig. 7 presents a simplified version of this construction, to which codes for the translation of the types err_{\square_i} , $?_{\square_i}$, \mathbb{P} , $\mathbb{L} A$ and \square_j (for j < i) are added in the actual development.

The exceptional model of Pédrot and Tabareau [2018] leave the interpretation of exceptions at the universe \square unspecified. We exploit this underspecification, and define err_{\square_i} as the unit type $\mathbbm{1}$ with a single element. $?_{\square_{i+1}}$ is interpreted by an inductive type unknown (Fig. 8) closed by all type constructors but dependent functions. Beyond the two constructors $\text{err}_{\text{unknown}}$ and unk_unknown interpreting respectively $\text{err}_{?_{\square}}$ and $?_{?_{\square}}$, univ_unknown allows to embed the preceding universe, cum_unknown hosts any type from said preceding universe (including product types), and $\text{list}_{\text{unknown}}$ can be used to embed lists of elements from \square_{i+1} . Additional inductive types would be represented with supplementary constructors. The interpretation of $?_{\square_0}$ do not use univ_unknown and cum_unknown.

Relational layer. We now endow the translation of every type with a homogeneous relation prec : forall (A : \square_i), A \rightarrow A \rightarrow SProp. Thanks to the characterization of heterogeneous precision in Fig. 6, we can use prec together with cast to obtain an heterogeneous relation on all types at the same universe level:

```
Let hprec (A B : \square_i) (a : El A) (b : El B) : SProp := prec A a (cast A B b) \land prec B b b.
```

```
Inductive unknown :=
                                               Inductive prec_unk : unknown \rightarrow unknown \rightarrow SProp :=
err_unknown
                                                 err_any: sp x → prec_unk err_unknown x
  univ_unknown (A : \square_i)
                                                 unk\_any : sp x \rightarrow prec\_unk x unk\_unknown
 cum_unknown (A : \square_i) (a : El A)
                                                univ_prec : A \square_i \sqsubseteq \square_i B \rightarrow
 list_unknown (1 : list unknown)
                                                 prec_unk (univ_unknown A) (univ_unknown B)
| unk_unknown.
                                                 cum_prec A a B b : sp A \rightarrow sp B \rightarrow hprec A B a b \rightarrow
                                                 prec_unk (cum_unknown A a) (cum_unknown B b)
                                                list_prec l1 l2 : lift_list prec_unk l1 l2 →
                                                 prec_unk (list_unknown l1) (list_unknown l2).
```

Fig. 8. Translation of $?_{\square}$ and its precision relation.

The construction of prec proceeds first by induction on the universe level, and then by induction on the code of the type. The cases for err_{\square_i} , \mathbb{P} , inductive types, dependent functions and cumulativity injection follow the formulae given for precision in Fig. 4. In particular, defining homogeneous precision at function types relies on heterogeneous precision on the codomain. On universes, we use precision for the smaller universe, obtained by induction hypothesis on the universe level. The precision for unknown is described on the right of Fig. 8. err_unknown and unk_unknown are respectively smaller and larger than self-precise terms of any summand. univ_prec embeds the relation from \square_i and cum_prec relate elements of self-precise types using the heterogeneous relation determined by \square_i . Finally, list_prec lifts the precision on unknown to lists.

Property layer. Once all definitions are in place, we need to show that the relations thus defined do characterize well-behaved casts. This is summarized by the following definitions.

DEFINITION 2 (Partial preorder). A partial preorder on a type X is a transitive and quasi-reflexive relation $_{X}\sqsubseteq_{X}$ on X.

An element x of a partial preorder X is self-precise, notation x^{\sqsubseteq_X} , when $x_{X}\sqsubseteq_X x$. A pair of functions $f: X \to Y, g: Y \to X$ between partial preorders X, Y forms an *embedding projection* pair if it satisfissies the condition of Definition 1. A type family with casts consists of a type family $B: A \to \square$ equipped with two functions $\bigcap_{a,a'}^B : B \ a \to B \ a'$ and $\bigcup_{a,a'}^B : B \ a' \to B \ a$.

DEFINITION 3 (Indexed partial preorder). If A is a partial preorder and B a type family with cast such that each B a is endowed with a relation $B_a \sqsubseteq B_a$, then B is an indexed partial preorder when

- whenever a^{\sqsubseteq_A} , ${}_{B\,a}{\sqsubseteq_{B\,a}}$ is a partial preorder; if $a_{A}{\sqsubseteq_A} a'$, then $({\uparrow\!\!\!\uparrow}_{a,a'}^B, {\downarrow\!\!\!\downarrow}_{a,a'}^B)$ forms an ep-pair;
- whenever a^{\sqsubseteq_A} , $b^{\sqsubseteq_{Ba}}$, $\uparrow_{\underline{a},\underline{a}}^{\underline{B}}$ $b \perp_{\underline{B}a} b \perp_{\underline{B}a} \downarrow_{\underline{a},\underline{a}}^{\underline{B}} b$;
- if $a_0 \ _A \sqsubseteq_A a_1 \ _A \sqsubseteq_A a_2$, $b \ ^{\sqsubseteq_{B a_0}}$, then $\bigcap_{a_1,a_2}^B \bigcap_{a_0,a_1}^B b \ \underline{\coprod}_{B a_2} \bigcap_{a_0,a_2}^B b \ and \ \bigcup_{a_2,a_1}^B \bigcup_{a_1,a_0}^B b \ \underline{\coprod}_{B a_2} \bigcup_{a_2,a_0}^B b$

Now the model validates the following:

Theorem 9 (Properties of precision). The universes \square_i is a partial preorder for term and type precision and the type families $El: \square_i \to \square_i$ equiped with cast are indexed partial preorders. unknown is a greatest element for term precision on the universe.

The proof of this theorem proceed by induction on multiset of codes, showing that the relation induced by a code is partial preorder, that pairs of casts between the partial preorders induced by a pair of codes form an ep-pair and that the eppairs induced by a triple of code compose adequately. To that end, we prove and use a lemmas asserting that type constructors from \square_i preserve partial preorders and ep-pairs, e.g. the relation on $\forall a : \text{El } A, \text{El}(B a)$ induced by a code code_Pi A B is a partial preorder whenever El A is a partial preorder and $El \circ B$ is an indexed partial preorder.

The properties presented in §4.2 are consequences of this theorem, using the decomposition of heterogeneous term relation through any upper bound for the precision relation, the fact that any type at universe level i is bounded by $?_{\Box_{i+1}}$ and cumulativity preserves and reflects precision.

Metatheoretical properties induced by the model. Since \mathbb{P} is translated to SProp and \bot to \bot in the model, any closed proof \vdash $e:\bot$ induces a corresponding closed term of an empty type in the target type theory. This proves the relative consistency of GRIP with respect to MLTT equipped with enough universes and extended with a type of strict proposition as claimed in Theorem 1. This result can be further refined by analyzing the translation of each reduction steps from Fig. 2 and realizing that these can be simulated by at least one step in the target type theory, reusing a proof technique found in Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022].

THEOREM 10 (Normalization of GRIP). GRIP is normalizing.

Proof sketch. Since each step of reduction in the source is mapped to at least one step of reduction in the target, any infinite reduction sequence in the source maps to an infinite reduction sequence in the target as well. Gilbert et al. [2019] show that MLTT+SProp is normalizing, so an infinite reduction sequence cannot exist in the target, and so not in the source either. □

6 EXTENSIONS OF GRIP

We now discuss several extensions of GRIP for future work.

6.1 Observational Equality

GRIP features two kinds of sorts, \square for (impure) computationally relevant types and $\mathbb P$ for definitionally proof irrelevant propositions. The main purpose of $\mathbb P$ is to be able to define precision internally in GRIP, by induction on types. In the recent work of Pujet and Tabareau [2022], $\mathbb P$ is used in the same way to define a notion of observational equality by induction on types, satisfying extensionality principles. It turns out that internal precision and observational equality can both be integrated in GRIP. We can add in $\mathbb P$ a notion of equality $x =_A y$ for any terms x and y of type A, together with a transport operation:

$$\frac{\Gamma \text{Ransport}}{\Gamma \vdash A: \square_i} \frac{\Gamma \vdash B: \square_i}{\Gamma \vdash \text{transport } A \ B \ e \ t: B} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t: A}{\Gamma}$$

Intuitively, transport can be seen as the *safe* version of cast, using a proof of equality between types in the logical layer as a guard to ensure it never fails.

There are two main interests in adding a notion of observational equality to GRIP. First, it allows us to state many properties than cannot be only stated using internal precision. For instance, equality is necessary to express internally what antisymmetry means for internal precision, and prove that it holds on types for which all terms are self-precise. Second, it provides a canonical way to express (non-gradual) subset types in GRIP, thus recovering a flavor of indexed inductive types.

6.2 Inductive Types

A large class of inductive types can be encoded using well-founded trees $\mathbb{W} A B$ with nodes indexed by $A: \square$ of arity $B: A \to \square$, a.k.a. \mathbb{W} -types [Altenkirch et al. 2015; Hugunin 2020]. A mild extension of GRIP could add such types $\mathbb{W} A B$ with a constructor $\sup_{A,B}: \Pi(a:A)(k:Ba\to \mathbb{W} A B)\to \mathbb{W} A B$ and a corresponding eliminator $\mathsf{catch}_{\mathbb{W} A B}$. These types would then be self-precise whenever A is a self-precise type and B self-precise as a type family. In general, it is not reasonable to expect \mathbb{W} -types to be below unknown, that is $\mathbb{W} A B_{\square_i} \sqsubseteq_{\square_i} ?_{\square_i}$, because the constructor $\mathbb{W} = \mathbb{W} = \mathbb{W}$

 \mathbb{W} -types, meaning that B a is a finite type for any a:A, however supports such a bounding rule so that finitary \mathbb{W} -types are also precise as terms in the universe. The inductive type of lists $\mathbb{L} X$ is an instance of a finitary \mathbb{W} -type with A = 1 + X, $B(\mathsf{inl}()) = \mathbb{O}$ and $B(\mathsf{inr} x) = \mathsf{unit}$.

It is also possible to add general indexed inductive types in \mathbb{P} , such as less-or-equal in \mathbb{N} . Gilbert et al. [2019] describe a general criterion to detect which inductive types in \mathbb{P} can be eliminated into \square . Basically, this criterion amounts to detecting when an indexed inductive type can be encoded with a fixpoint over its indices. This criterion also works for GRIP, and could be reused directly.

6.3 From GRIP to a Gradual Proof Assistant

GRIP is still quite far from a real-life proof assistant. As explained at the beginning of § 2, usual gradual systems are separated into two languages: a source language where types are compared in an optimistic way using the wildcard?, and a target language with casts to explicitly flag where those optimistic assumptions are made, so as to be able to raise errors in case of type incompatibilities discovered during program evaluation. Here we concentrated on designing the target language, as our contributions apply mostly to it, with the expectation that the source and elaboration layers as presented in Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022] could be easily adapted to our extensions. Consequently, we chose to present our type theory in a standard, undirected fashion, rather than using the bidirectional approach of Lennon-Bertrand et al. [2022]. However, building an actual proof assistant involves tackling that elaboration layer, and the many subtle points it involves, which were only partially solved by [Lennon-Bertrand et al. 2022]. One example would be the interaction between unification (the main and crucial feature of elaboration in e.g. Coq) and gradual features of the language, especially consistency.

But even if one considers only the target language, incorporating it in an actual proof assistant is no small feat. In GRIP, we made a wealth of technical choices (impredicativity of \mathbb{P} , explicit cumulativity, and so on) that might need to be reconsidered if one wishes to integrate gradual features in a proof assistant that takes a different path. In particular, a proper treatment of universe levels is a challenge. For instance, a system more flexible (and probably easier to use) than GRIP would allow casts between types at different levels, but this would cause an unprecedented dependency between reduction (of casts) and universe levels, which in turn raises subtle implementation questions.

Similarly, we made some choices in the definition of precision, both in the rules of Fig. 4 and the properties reflected in GRIP in §4.2. They were in part guided by the aim to make the system as ready for use as possible, but they might need to be reconsidered in a practical implementation.

Finally, an interesting design point pertains to the catch primitive. Actual proof assistants usually do not rely on recursors, but instead provide facilities for pattern-matching in various forms. Implementations of catch should be adapted to those. In particular, a mechanism to present monotone catch as presented in §4.3 could take inspiration from the implementation of higher inductive types, with path-constructors replaced by monotonicity constraints.

7 RELATED WORK

Effects in dependent type theory. Incorporating effects in type theory, specifically errors as needed for gradual systems, is particularly challenging. Indeed, the presence of effects triggers a strong tension with the metatheoretic properties of CIC, putting logical consistency in danger, as clarified by the Fire Triangle of Pédrot and Tabareau [2020]. Several programming languages mix dependent types with effectful computation, either giving up on metatheoretical properties, such as Dependent Haskell [Eisenberg 2016], which allows diverging type-level expressions, or by restricting the dependent fragment to pure expressions [Swamy et al. 2016; Xi and Pfenning 1998]. Stump et al. [2010] study the sound coexistence of a type theory with diverging terms via an effect system and a mechanism of termination casts to recover totality for any term given a proof of its termination.

This mechanism is used in Trellys [Kimmell et al. 2012] and its successor Zombie [Casinghino et al. 2014], which are call-by-value dependently-typed languages that separate the pure logical fragment from the impure programming fragment using consistency classifiers in the typing judgment. This integrated approach supports sound reasoning about potentially diverging programs. Recently, Pédrot and Tabareau [2017, 2018] build up from general considerations on effects to specifically consider exceptions in type theory. Pédrot et al. [2019] introduce RETT, exploiting universe hierarchies to introduce a separation between an effectful, inconsistent layer and a pure, consistent one to reason about the effectful one. GRIP is directly inspired by RETT to support sound reasoning about gradual programs.

Strict propositions and observational equality. It has long been recognized that equality in standard MLTT is too syntactic. Observational type theory [Altenkirch et al. 2007] was proposed to address this issue, but only thanks to work on incorporating (definitional) irrelevance in dependent type theory [Abel and Scherer 2012; Gilbert et al. 2019] was it possible to recently turn this proposition into a concrete system [Pujet and Tabareau 2022], by using the definitionally proof-irrelevant sort to host the observational equality. The sort $\mathbb P$ and the precision relation of GRIP are very much inspired respectively by the sort of definitionally proof-irrelevant propositions of Gilbert et al. [2019] and the observational equality of Pujet and Tabareau [2022].

Directed type theory. Segal and Rezk types characterize well-behaved types in directed type theory [Riehl and Shulman 2017; Weaver and Licata 2020] in a fashion very similar to self-precise types in GRIP: Segal types have (up-to-homotopy) unique composition of morphisms (transitivity), while Rezk types satisfy a local notion of univalence (antisymmetry). In these works, any type is equipped with (higher) identities, an important difference with our setting where we do not globally ensure reflexivity of the precision relations, that is self-precision of types and terms.

Gradual typing and dependent types. This work continues a line of research in combining dependent types and dynamic type checking, as first explored by [Ou et al. 2004], more specifically following the gradual typing approach [Siek and Taha 2006; Siek et al. 2015], and extending it to a full-blown dependent type theory. Ou et al. [2004] study a programming language with separate dependently- and simply-typed fragments, using arbitrary runtime checks at the boundary. The blame calculus of Wadler and Findler [2009] considers subset types on base types, where the refinement is an arbitrary term, as in hybrid type checking [Knowles and Flanagan 2010], but lacks dependent function types. Tanter and Tabareau [2015] provide casts for subset types with decidable properties in Coq, and Dagand et al. [2018] support dependent interoperability [Osera et al. 2012] in Coq. All these approaches lack the notion of precision that is central to gradual typing. Gradual refinement types [Lehmann and Tanter 2017] differ from the gradual subset types presented here in that they are an extension of liquid types [Rondon et al. 2008] with imprecise logical formulas, based on an SMT-decidable logic about base types. Eremondi et al. [2019] study the gradualization of CC_{ω} , and propose approximate normalization to ensure decidable typechecking. Approximate normalization satisfies the dynamic gradual guarantee, but not graduality in the sense of [New and Ahmed 2018], because casting to an imprecise type and back can yield the unknown term instead of the original term. The most recent and complete attempt to gradualize CIC, upon which we build in this work, is the study of GCIC and its underlying cast calculus CastCIC [Lennon-Bertrand et al. 2022], which comes under three variants. GRIP is an extension of CastCIC that allows for sound reasoning about gradual programs and, thanks to internal precision, can account for the specific form of graduality supported by CastCIC^N, the normalizing conservative extension of CIC, and can embed CastCIC[†] as a subclass of terms that are self-precise. Eremondi et al. [2022] extends GCIC with gradual propositional equality using runtime witnesses of plausible equality, taking inspiration from evidence tracking in Abstracting Gradual Typing [Garcia et al. 2016].

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