Linear Dependent Types and Relative Completeness*

Ugo Dal Lago and Marco Gaboardi
Dipartimento di Scienze dell’Informazione & EPI FOCUS
Università di Bologna & INRIA Sophia Antipolis
dallago,gaboardi@cs.unibo.it

Abstract

A system of linear dependent types for the lambda calculus with full higher-order recursion, called dℓPCF, is introduced and proved sound and relatively complete. Completeness holds in a strong sense: dℓPCF is not only able to precisely capture the functional behaviour of PCF programs (i.e. how the output relates to the input) but also some of their intensional properties, namely the complexity of evaluating them with Krivine’s Machine. dℓPCF is designed around dependent types and linear logic and is parametrized on the underlying language of index terms, which can be tuned so as to sacrifice completeness for tractability.

1 Introduction

Type systems are powerful tools in the design of programming languages. While they have been employed traditionally to guarantee weak properties of programs (e.g. “well-typed programs cannot go wrong”), it is becoming more and more evident that they can be useful when stronger properties are needed, such as security [VIS96, SM03], termination [BGR08], monadic temporal properties [KO09] or resource bounds [JHLH10].

One key advantage of type systems seen as formal methods is their simplicity and their close relationship with programs — checking whether a program has a type or even inferring the (most general) type of a program is often decidable. The price to pay is the incompleteness of most type systems: there are programs satisfying the property at hand which cannot be given a type. This is in contrast with other formal methods, like program logics [AdBO09] where completeness is always a desirable feature, although it only holds relatively to an oracle. Graphically, the situation is similar to the one in Figure 1: type systems can be found in the lower left corner of the diagram, where both the degree of completeness and the complexity of type checking or type inference are kept low; program logics, on the other hand, are confined to the upper-right corner, where checking for derivability is almost always undecidable.

One specific research field in which the just-described scenario manifests itself is implicit computational complexity, in which one aims at defining characterizations of complexity classes by programming languages and logical systems. Many type systems have been introduced capturing, for instance, the polynomial time computable functions [Hof99, BT09a, BGM10]. All of them, under mild assumptions, can be employed as tools to certify programs as asymptotically time efficient. However, a tiny slice of the polytime programs are generally typable, since the underlying complexity class FP is only characterized in a purely extensional sense — for every function in FP there is at least one typable program computing it.

The main contribution of this paper is a type system for the lambda calculus with full recursion, called dℓPCF, which is sound and complete. Types of dℓPCF are obtained, in the spirit of DML [XP99, Xi07], by decorating types of ordinary PCF [Plo77, Gun92] with index terms. These are first-order terms freely generated from variables, function symbols and a few more term constructs. They are indicated with metavariables like I, J, K. Type decoration reflects the standard

---

*This work is partially supported by the INRIA ARC project “ETERNAL”
decomposition of types into *linear types* (as suggested by linear logic [Gir87]), and is inspired by recent works on the expressivity of bounded logics [DLH09].

Index terms and linear types permit to describe program properties with a fine granularity. More precisely, $\texttt{d/PCF}$ enjoys the following two properties:

- **Soundness**: if $t$ is a program and $\vdash_{K} t : \texttt{Nat}[I, J]$, then $t$ evaluates to a natural number which lies between $I$ and $J$ and this evaluation takes at most a linear number of steps in $K$;
- **Completeness**: if $t$ is typable in $\texttt{PCF}$ and evaluates to a natural number $n$ in $m$ steps, then $\vdash_{1} t : \texttt{Nat}[n, n]$ where $I \leq m$.

Completeness of $\texttt{d/PCF}$ holds not only for programs (i.e. terms of ground types) but also for functions on the natural numbers (see Section 5.3 for further details). Moreover, typing judgments tell us something about the functional behaviour of programs but also about their non-functional one, namely the number of steps needed to evaluate the term in Krivine’s Abstract Machine.

As the title of this paper suggests, completeness of $\texttt{d/PCF}$ holds in a relative sense. Indeed, the behaviour of programs can be precisely captured only in presence of a complete oracle for the truth of certain assumptions in typing rules. This is exactly what happens in program logics such as Floyd-Hoare’s logic, where all the sound partial correctness assertions can be derived *provided* one is allowed to use all the true sentences of first order arithmetic as axioms [Coo78]. In $\texttt{d/PCF}$, those assumptions take the form of (in)equalities between index terms, to be verified when function symbols are interpreted as functions on natural numbers according to an equational program $\mathcal{E}$. Actually, the whole of $\texttt{d/PCF}$ is *parameterized* on such an $\mathcal{E}$, but while soundness holds independently of the specific $\mathcal{E}$, completeness, as is to be expected, holds only if $\mathcal{E}$ is sufficiently powerful to encode all total computable functions (i.e. if $\mathcal{E}$ is universal). In other words, $\texttt{d/PCF}$ can be claimed to be not a type system, but a *family* of type systems obtained by taking a specific $\mathcal{E}$ as the underlying “logic” of index terms. The simpler $\mathcal{E}$, the easier type checking and type inference are; the more complex $\mathcal{E}$, the larger the class of captured programs.

The design of $\texttt{d/PCF}$ have been very much influenced by linear logic [Gir87], and in particular by systems of indexed and bounded linear logic [GSS92, DLH09], which have been recently shown to subsume other ICC systems as for the class of programs they can capture [DLH09]. One of the many ways to “read” $\texttt{d/PCF}$ is as a variation on the theme of BLL [GSS92] obtained by generalizing polynomials to arbitrary functions. The idea of going beyond a restricted, fixed class of bounds comes from Xi’s work on DML [XP99, Xi07]. Cost recurrences for first order DML programs have been studied [Gro01]. No similar completeness results for dependent types are known, however.

This is a revised and extended version of a paper with the same title which has appeared in the proceedings of LICS 2011.
2 Types and Program Properties: An Informal Account

Consider the following program:

\[
\text{dbl} = \text{fix } f. \lambda x. \text{if } z \text{ then } x \text{ else } s(s(p(f(x)))).
\]

In a monomorphic, traditionally designed type system like PCF [Plo77, Gun92], the term \text{dbl} receives type \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}. As a consequence, \text{dbl} computes a function on natural numbers without “going wrong”: it takes in input a natural number, and produces in output another natural number (if any). The type \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}, however, does not give any information about which specific function on the natural numbers \text{dbl} computes. Indeed, in PCF (and in most real-world programming languages) any program computing a function on natural numbers, being it for instance the identity function or (a unary version of) the Ackermann function, can be typed by \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}.

Some modern type systems allow one to construct and use types like \(\tau = \text{Nat}[a] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2 \times a]\), which tell not only what set or domain (the interpretation of) the term belongs to, but also which specific element of the domain the term actually denotes. The type \(\tau\), for example, could be attributed only to those programs computing the function \(n \mapsto 2 \times n\). Types of this form can be constructed in dependent and sized type theories [XP99, BGR08]. The type system \(d\ell\text{PCF}\) introduced in this paper offers this possibility, too. But, as a first contribution, it further allows to specify imprecise types, like \(\text{Nat}[5, 8]\), which stands for the type of those natural numbers between 5 and 8.

A property of programs which is completely ignored by ordinary type systems is termination, at least if full recursion is in the underlying language. Typing a term \(t\) with \(\text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}\) does not guarantee that \(t\), when applied to a natural number, terminates. In PCF this is even worse: \(t\) could possibly diverge itself! Consider, as another example, a slight modification of \text{dbl}, namely

\[
\text{omega} = \text{fix } f. \lambda x. \text{if } z \text{ then } x \text{ else } s(s(f(x))).
\]

It behaves as \text{dbl} when fed with 0, but it diverges when it receives a positive natural number as an argument. But look: \text{omega} is not so different from \text{dbl}. Indeed, the second can be obtained from the first by feeding not \(x\) but \(p(x)\) to \(f\). And any type systems in which \text{dbl} and \text{omega} are somehow recognized as being fundamentally different must be able to detect the presence of \(p\) in \text{dbl} and deduct termination from it. Indeed, sized types [BGR08] and dependent types [Xi01] are able to do so.

Going further, we could ask the type system to be able not only to guarantee termination, but also to somehow evaluate the time or space consumption of programs. For example, we could be interested in knowing that \text{dbl} takes a polynomial number of steps to be evaluated on any natural number. This cannot be achieved neither using classical type systems nor using systems of sized types, at least when traditionally formulated. However, some type systems able to control the complexity of program exist. Good examples are type systems for amortized analysis [JHLH10, HAH11] or those using ideas from linear logic [BT09a, BGM10]. In those type systems, typing judgements carry, besides the usual type information, some additional information about the resource consumption of the underlying program. As an example, \text{dbl} could be given a type as follows

\[
\vdash \text{dbl} : \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}
\]

where \(I\) is some cost information for \text{dbl}. This way, building a type derivation and inferring resource consumption can be done at the same time.

The type system \(d\ell\text{PCF}\) we propose in this paper makes some further steps in this direction. First of all, it combines some of the ideas presented above with the ones of bounded linear logic. BLL allows one to explicitly count the number of times functions use their arguments (in rough notation, \(\llbracket m \sigma \rightarrow \tau \rrbracket\) says that the argument of type \(\sigma\) is used \(m\) times). This permits to extract natural cost functions from type derivations. The cost of evaluating a term will be measured by counting how many times function arguments need to be copied during evaluation. Making this
information explicit in types permits to compute the cost step by step during the type derivation process. By the way, previous works by the first author [DL09] show that this way of attributing a cost to (proofs seen as) programs is sound and precise as a way to measure their time complexity. Intuitively, typing judgements in $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$ can be thought as:

$$\Gamma \vdash J \rho a q t : !m \text{Nat}[a] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[I(a)].$$

where $g$ and $f$ can be derived while building a type derivation, exploiting the information carried by the modalities. In fact, the quantitative information in $!m$ allows to statically determine the number of times any subterm will be copied during evaluation. But this is not sufficient: analogously to what happens in $\text{BLL}$, $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$ makes types more parametric. A rough type as $!n \sigma \rightarrow \tau$ is replaced by the more parametric type $\Gamma a n s \sigma \rightarrow \tau$, which tell us that the argument will be used $n$ times, and each instance has type $\sigma$ where, however the variable $a$ is instantiated with a value less than $n$. This allows to type each copy of the argument differently but uniformly, since all instances of $\sigma$ have the same $\text{PCF}$ skeleton. This form of uniform linear dependence is actually crucial in obtaining the result which makes $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$ different from similar type systems, namely completeness.

Finally, as already stressed in the introduction, $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$ is also parametric in the class of functions (in the form of an equational program $\xi$) that can be used to reason about types and costs. This permits to tune the type system, as described in Section 6 below.

Anticipating on the next section, we can say that $\text{dbl}$ can be typed as follows in $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$:

$$\xi a \text{dbl} : [b < a] \cdot \text{Nat}[a] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2 \times a].$$

This tells us that the argument will be used $a$ times by $\text{dbl}$, namely a number of times equal to its value. And that the cost of evaluation will be itself proportional to $a$.

## 3 $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$

In this section, the language of programs and the type system $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$ for it will be introduced formally. Some of their basic properties will be described. The type system $\text{d}l\text{PCF}$ is based on the notion of index terms whose semantics, in turn, is defined by an equational program. As a consequence, all these notions must be properly introduced and are the subject of Section 3.1 below.

### 3.1 Index Terms and Equational Programs

Syntactically, index terms are built either from function symbols from a given signature or by applying any of two special term constructs.

Formally, a signature $\Sigma$ is a pair $(S, \alpha)$ where $S$ is a finite set of function symbols and $\alpha : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ assigns an arity to every function symbol. Index terms on a given signature $\Sigma = (S, \alpha)$ are generated by the following grammar:

$$I, J, K ::= a \mid f(I_1, \ldots, I_{\alpha(f)}) \mid \sum_{a < 1} J \mid \bigoplus_a^{I,J} K$$

where $f \in S$ and $a$ is a variable drawn from a set $V$ of index variables. We assume the symbols 0, 1 (with arity 0) and $+,-,$ (with arity 2) are always part of $\Sigma$. An index term in the form $\sum_{a < 1} J$ is a bounded sum, while one in the form $\bigoplus_a^{I,J} K$ is a forest cardinality. For every natural number $n$, the index term $n$ is just $1 + 1 + \ldots + 1$, $n$ times.

Index terms are meant to denote natural numbers, possibly depending on the (unknown) values of variables. Variables can be instantiated with other index terms, e.g. $I[J/a]$. So, index terms
can also act as first order functions. What is the meaning of the function symbols from Σ? It is the one induced by an equational program E. Formally, an \textit{equational program} E over a signature Σ and a set of variables V is a set of equations in the form \( t = s \) where both \( t \) and \( s \) are in \( O(\Sigma, V) \). We are interested in equational programs guaranteeing that, whenever symbols in Σ are interpreted as partial functions over \( \mathbb{N} \) and 0, 1, + and \( \div \) are interpreted in the usual way, the semantics of any function symbol \( f \) can be uniquely determined from \( E \). This can be guaranteed by, for example, taking \( E \) as an Herbrand-Gödel scheme [Odi89] or as an orthogonal constructor term rewriting system [BN98]. One may wonder why the definition of index terms is parametric on Σ and \( E \). As we will see in Section 6, being parametric this way allows us to tune our concrete type system from a highly undecidable but truly powerful machinery down to a tractable but less expressive formal system. An example of an equational program over the signature Σ consisting of two function symbols \texttt{add} and \texttt{mult} of arity two is the following set of rewriting rules (we tacitly assume \texttt{succ} to be part of Σ and to have its standard meaning):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add}(0, b) & \rightarrow b \\
\text{add}(\text{succ}(a), b) & \rightarrow \text{succ}(\text{add}(a, b)) \\
\text{mult}(0, b) & \rightarrow 0 \\
\text{mult}(\text{succ}(a), b) & \rightarrow \text{add}(b, \text{mult}(a, b))
\end{align*}
\]

What about the meaning of bounded sums and forest cardinalities? The first is very intuitive: the value of \( \sum_{a=0}^{I} J \) is simply the sum of all possible values of \( J \) with \( a \) taking the values from 0 up to \( I \), excluded. Forest cardinalities, on the other hand, require some more effort to be described. Informally, \( \bigoplus_{a}^{J} K \) is an index term denoting the number of nodes in a forest composed of \( J \) trees described using \( K \). All the nodes in the forest are (uniquely) identified by natural numbers. These are obtained by consecutively visiting each tree in pre-order, starting from \( I \). The term \( K \) has the role of describing the number of children of each forest node \( n \) by properly instantiating the variable \( a \), e.g the number of children of the node 0 is \( K[0/a] \). More formally, the meaning of a forest cardinality is defined by the following two equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
\bigoplus_{a}^{0} K & = 0 \\
\bigoplus_{a}^{J+1} K & = \left( \bigoplus_{a}^{J} K \right) + 1 + \left( \bigoplus_{a}^{1+1+\oplus_{a}^{J} K.K[1+\oplus_{a}^{J} K/a]} \right)
\end{align*}
\]

Equation (1) says that a forest of 0 trees contains no nodes. Equation (2) tells us that a forest of \( J+1 \) trees contains:

- The nodes in the first \( J \) trees;
- plus the nodes in the last tree, which are just one plus the nodes in the immediate subtrees of the root, considered themselves as a forest.

To better understand forest cardinalities, consider the following forest comprising two trees:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{and consider an index term } K \text{ with a free index variable } a \text{ such that } K[n/a] = 3 \text{ for } n = 1; \\
K[n/a] = 2 \text{ for } n \in \{2, 8\}; \ K[n/a] = 1 \text{ when } n \in \{0, 6, 9, 11\}; \text{ and } K[n/a] = 0 \text{ when } n \in
\end{align*}
\]

\[5\]
{3, 4, 7, 10, 12}. That is, $K$ describes the number of children of each node. Then $\otimes_a^{0.2} K = 13$ since it takes into account the entire forest; $\otimes_a^{0.1} K = 8$ since it takes into account only the leftmost tree; $\otimes_a^{0.0} K = 5$ since it takes into account only the second tree of the forest; finally, $\otimes_a^{2.3} K = 6$ since it takes into account only the three trees (as a forest) in the dashed rectangle.

One may wonder what is the role of forest cardinalities in the type systems. Actually, they play a crucial role in the treatment of recursion, where the unfolding of recursion produces a tree-like structure whose size is just the number of times the (recursively defined) function will be used *globally*. Note that the value of a forest cardinality could also be undefined. For instance, this happens when infinite trees, corresponding to diverging recursive computations, are considered.

The expression $[\Pi]_\rho^\varepsilon$ denotes the meaning of $I$, defined by induction along the lines of the previous discussion, where $\rho : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is an assignment and $\varepsilon$ is an equational program giving meaning to the function symbols in $I$. Since $\varepsilon$ does not necessarily interpret such symbols as *total* functions, and moreover, the value of a forest cardinality can be undefined, $[\Pi]_\rho^\varepsilon$ can be undefined itself. A *constraint* is an inequality in the form $I \preceq J$. A constraint is *true* in an assignment $\rho$ if $[\Pi]_\rho^\varepsilon$ and $[J]_\rho^\varepsilon$ are both defined and the first is smaller or equal to the latter. Now, for a subset $\phi$ of $\mathcal{V}$, and for a set $\Phi$ of constraints involving variables in $\phi$, the expression

$$\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon I \preceq J$$

denotes the fact that the truth of $I \preceq J$ semantically follows from the truth of the constraints in $\Phi$. Similarly, one can define the meaning of expressions like $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon I = J$ or $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon I \simeq J$, the latter standing for the equality of $I$ and $J$ in the sense of Kleene. When both $\phi$ and $\Phi$ are empty, such expressions can be written in a much more concise form, e.g. $I \simeq J$ stands for $\emptyset; \emptyset \models^\varepsilon I \simeq J$.

The expression $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon I = I$ indicates that (the semantics of) $I$ is *defined* for the relevant values of the variables in $\phi$; this is usually written as $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon I \bot$.

The following two lemmas are useful, and will be crucial when proving the Substitution Lemma.

**Lemma 1**

$$\frac{1 + J, K}{\Delta} a H \simeq \frac{J, K}{\Delta} a H \{a + I/a\}. $$

**Proof.** We use a coinductive argument. By definition:

\[
\begin{align*}
1 + J, 0 & \quad \Delta a H \simeq 0; \\
J, K & \quad \Delta a H \{a + I/a\} \simeq 0; \\
1 + J, K + 1 & \quad \Delta a H \simeq \Delta a H + 1 + \Delta a H; \\
J, K + 1 & \quad \Delta a H \{a + I/a\} \simeq \Delta a H \{a + I/a\} + 1 + \Delta a H \{a + I/a\}; \\
& \quad 1 + J, 1 + \otimes_a^{1+J,K} H, H, H \{1 + J, 1 + \otimes_a^{1+J,K} H/a\} \\
& \quad \Delta a \quad H \{a + I/a\}.
\end{align*}
\]

This concludes the proof. $\square$

**Lemma 2**

$$\frac{1, J}{\Delta} a I \simeq \sum_{b \leq J} \frac{0, 1}{\Delta} a I \{a + 1 + \Delta I/a\}. $$
Proof. We use a coinductive argument. By definition:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{b<0} \alpha I[a + 1 + \frac{b}{a}] &\cong 0 \\
\sum_{b<1+1} \alpha I[a + 1 + \frac{b}{a}] &\cong 0
\end{align*}
\]

where \(K\) is \(\alpha^{1,J} I\) and \(H\) is \(\sum_{b<1} \alpha^{0,1} I[a + 1 + \alpha^{1,b} I/a]\). Now, by definition and by Lemma 1

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{b<1+1} \alpha I[a + 1 + \frac{b}{a}] &\cong 1 + \alpha^{1,K+1/a} I[a + 1 + \alpha^{1,K+1/a} I/a]
\end{align*}
\]

This concludes the proof.

Before embarking in the description of the type system, a further remark on the role of index terms could be useful. Index terms are not meant to be part of programs but of types. As a consequence, computation will not be carried out on index terms but on proper terms, which are the subject of Section 3.2 below.

3.2 The Type System

Terms are generated by the following grammar:

\[
t ::= x | n | s(t) | p(t) | \lambda x.t | tu | \text{ifz } t \text{ then } u \text{ else } v | \text{fix } x.t
\]

where \(n\) ranges over natural numbers and \(x\) ranges over a set of variables. A notion of size \(|t|\) for a term \(t\) will be useful in the sequel. This can be defined as follows:

\[
|x| = |p| = 1;
|s| = 2;
|a| = n;
|s(t)| = |s| + |t| + 1;
|p(t)| = |p| + |t| + 1;
|\lambda x.t| = |t| + 1;
|tu| = |t| + |u| + 1;
|\text{ifz } t \text{ then } u \text{ else } v| = |t| + |u| + |v| + 1;
|\text{fix } x.t| = |t| + 1.
\]

Notice that for technical reasons it is convenient to take here the size of \(s\) equal to 2. Terms can be typed with a well-known type system called PCF. Types are those generated by the basic type \(\text{Nat}\) and the binary type constructor \(\to\). Typing rules are in Figure 2. A notion of weak-head
\[\frac{\Gamma, x : \sigma \vdash x : \sigma}{\Gamma, x : \sigma \vdash \lambda x.t : \sigma \rightarrow \tau} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \sigma \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash u : \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash tu : \tau} \]

\[\frac{\Gamma \vdash \text{if} z \ \text{then} \ u \ \text{else} \ v}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fix} \ x.t : \sigma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \Nat \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{s}(t) : \Nat}{\Gamma \vdash \text{s}(t) : \Nat} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash p(t) : \Nat}{\Gamma \vdash p(t) : \Nat} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash n : \Nat}{\Gamma \vdash \text{s}(n) : \Nat} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \text{p}(n + 1) : \Nat}{\Gamma \vdash n + 1 : \Nat} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash 0 : \Nat}{\Gamma \vdash \text{p}(0) : \Nat}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if} z \ 0 \ \text{then} \ u \ \text{else} \ v & \rightarrow u \\
\text{if} z \ n + 1 \ \text{then} \ u \ \text{else} \ v & \rightarrow v \\
\text{fix} \ x.t & \rightarrow t\{\text{fix} \ x.t/x\}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
t & \rightarrow u \\
\text{s}(t) & \rightarrow \text{s}(u) \\
\text{p}(t) & \rightarrow \text{p}(u) \\
t & \rightarrow v \\
t & \rightarrow w \\
\text{if} z \ \text{then} \ u \ \text{else} \ v & \rightarrow \text{if} z \ w \ \text{then} \ u \ \text{else} \ v
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 2: The PCF Type System.

Figure 3: Weak-head Reduction

reduction \(\rightarrow\) can be easily defined: see Figure 3. A term \(t\) is said to be a program if it can be given the PCF type \(\Nat\) in the empty context.

Almost all the definitions about \(d\)PCF in this and the next sections should be understood as parametric on an equational program \(\mathcal{E}\) over a signature \(\Sigma\). For the sake of simplicity, however, we will often avoid to explicitly mention \(\mathcal{E}\) and leave it implicit.

\(d\)PCF can be seen as a refinement of PCF obtained by a linear decoration of its type derivation. Basic and modal types are defined as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma, \tau & ::= \Nat[I, J] \mid A \rightarrow \sigma \\
A, B & ::= [a < I] \cdot \sigma
\end{align*}
\]

where \(I, J\) range over index terms and \(a\) ranges over index variables. \(\Nat[I]\) is syntactic sugar for \(\Nat[I, I]\). Modal types need some comments. As a first approximation, they can be thought of as quantifiers over type variables. So, a type like \(A = [a < I] \cdot \sigma\) acts as a binder for the index variable \(a\) in the basic type \(\sigma\). Moreover, the condition \(a < I\) says that \(A\) consists of all the instances of the basic type \(\sigma\) where the variable \(a\) is successively instantiated with the values from 0 to (the value of) \(I - 1\), i.e. \(\sigma[0/a], \ldots, \sigma[I - 1/a]\). For those readers who are familiar with linear logic, in particular with BLL, the modal type \([a < I] \cdot \sigma\) is a generalization of the BLL formula \(l_{a < b}\sigma\) to arbitrary index terms. As such it can be thought of as representing the type \(\sigma[0/a] \otimes \ldots \otimes \sigma[I - 1/a]\). In analogy to what happens in the standard linear logic decomposition of the intuitionistic arrow, i.e. \(!A \rightarrow B = A \Rightarrow B\), it is sufficient to restrict to modal types appearing in negative position, similarly to DLAL [BT09b]. Finally, for those readers with some knowledge of DML, modal types are in a way similar to DML’s subset sort constructions [Xi07].

We always assume that index terms appearing inside types are defined for all the relevant values of the variables in \(\phi\). This is captured by the judgement \(\phi; \Phi \vdash^\mathcal{E} \sigma \downarrow\), whose rules are in Figure 4.

In the typing rules, modal types need to be manipulated in an algebraic way. For this reason, two operations on modal types need to be introduced. The first one is a binary operation \(\uplus\) on modal types. Suppose that \(A = [a < I] \cdot \mu[a/c]\) and that \(B = [b < J] \cdot \mu[I + b/c]\). In other words,
A consists of the first $I$ instances of $\mu$, i.e. $\mu\{0/c\}, \ldots, \mu\{1 - 1/c\}$ while $B$ consists of the next $J$ instances of $\mu$, i.e. $\mu\{1 + 0/c\}, \ldots, \mu\{1 + J - 1/c\}$. Their sum $A \uplus B$ is naturally defined as a modal type consisting of the first $I + J$ instances of $\mu$, i.e. $[c < I + J] \cdot \mu$. An operation of bounded sum on modal types can be defined by generalizing the idea above: suppose that

$$ A = [b < J] \cdot \sigma \left( \sum_{d < a} J[d/a] + b/c \right). $$

Then its **bounded sum** $\sum_{a < 1} A$ is $[c < \sum_{a < 1} J] \cdot \sigma$.

To every type $\sigma$ corresponds a type $\{\sigma\}$ of ordinary PCF, namely a type built from the basic type $\text{Nat}$ and the arrow operator $\rightarrow$:

$$ \{\text{Nat}[I, J]\} = \text{Nat}; $$

$$ \{[a < 1] \cdot \sigma \rightarrow \tau\} = \{\sigma\} \rightarrow \{\tau\}. $$

Central to $\text{dPCF}$ is the notion of subtyping. An inequality relation $\sqsubseteq$ between (basic and modal) types can be defined using the formal system in Figure 5. This relation corresponds to lifting index inequalities at the type level. The equivalence $\phi; \Phi \vdash \sigma \equiv \tau$ holds when both $\phi; \Phi \vdash \sigma \sqsubseteq \tau$ and $\phi; \Phi \vdash \tau \sqsubseteq \sigma$ can be derived from the rules in Figure 5.

It is now time to introduce the main object of this paper, namely the type system $\text{dPCF}$. **Typing judgements** of $\text{dPCF}$ are expressions in the form

$$ \phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash \frac{\in \cal E}{I} t : \sigma \quad (4) $$

where $\Gamma$ is a **typing context**, that is, a set of term variable assignments of the shape $x : A$ where each variable $x$ occurs at most once. The expression (4) can be informally read as follows: for every values of the index variables in $\phi$ satisfying $\Phi$, $t$ can be given type $\sigma$ and cost $I$ once its free term variables have types as in $\Gamma$. In proving this, equations from $\cal E$ can be used.

Typing rules are in Figure 6, where binary and bounded sums are used in their natural generalization to contexts. A **type derivation** is nothing more than a tree built according to typing rules. A **precise type derivation** is a type derivation such that all premises in the form $\sigma \sqsubseteq \tau$ (respectively, in the form $I \leq J$) are required to be in the form $\sigma \equiv \tau$ (respectively, $I = J$).

First of all, observe that the typing rules are syntax-directed: given a term $t$, all type derivations for $t$ end with the same typing rule, namely the one corresponding to the last syntax rule used in building $t$. In particular, no explicit subtyping rule exists, but subtyping is applied to the context.
in every rule. A syntax-directed type system offers a key advantage: it allows one to prove the statements about type derivations by induction on the structure of terms. This greatly simplifies the proof of crucial properties like subject reduction.

Typing rules have premises of three different kinds:

- Of course, typing a term requires typing its immediate subterms, so typing judgements can be rule premises.
- As just mentioned, typing rules allow to subtype the context Γ, so subtyping judgements can be themselves rule premises.
- The application of typing rules (and also of subtyping rules, see Figure 5) sometimes depends on the truth of some inequalities between index terms in the model induced by E.

As a consequence, typing rules can only be applied if some relations between index terms are consequences of the constraints in Φ. These assumptions have a semantic nature, but could of course be verified by any sound formal system. Completeness (see Section 5), however, only holds if all true inequalities can be used as assumptions. As a consequence, type inference but also type (derivation) checking are bound to be problematic from a computational point of view. See Section 6 for a more thorough discussion on this issue.

As a last remark, note that each rule can be seen as a decoration of a rule of ordinary PCF. More: for every d/PCF type derivation π of φ; Γ ⊢ t : σ there is a structurally identical derivation in PCF for the same term, i.e. a derivation ([π] : ([Γ]) ⊢ t : [σ]).

### 3.3 An Example

In this section, we will show how d/PCF can give a sensible type to the example we talked about in the Introduction, namely

\[
dbl = \text{fix } f. \lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } s(s(f(p(x))))\]
First of all, let us take a look at a subterm of $dbl$, namely $t = \text{ifz } x \text{ then } \varnothing \text{ else } s(s(f(p(x))))$.
In plain PCF, $t$ receives the type $\text{Nat}$ in an environment where $x$ has type $\text{Nat}$ and $f$ has type $\text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}$. Presumably, a $d\ell\text{PCF}$ type for $t$ can be obtained by appropriately decorating the type above. In other words, we are looking for a type derivation with conclusion:

$$\phi; \Phi; x : [a < I] \cdot \text{Nat}[J], f : [b < K] \cdot ([c < H] \cdot \text{Nat}[L] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[M]) \vdash^\varnothing t : \text{Nat}[P],$$

But how should we proceed? What we would like, at the end of the day, is being able to describe how the value of $t$ depends on the value of $x$, so we could look for a type derivation in this form:

$$d; \varnothing; x : [I] \cdot \text{Nat}[d], f : [b < K] \cdot ([H] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varnothing t : \text{Nat}[2d],$$

where $[a < I]$ (respectively, $[c < H]$) has been abbreviated into $[I]$ (respectively, $[H]$) because the bound variable $a$ (respectively, $c$) does not appear free in the underlying type. But how to give values to $I$, $K$, and $H$? One could be tempted to define $I$ simply as 2, since there are two occurrences of $x$ in $t$. However, in view of the role played by $x$ and $f$ in $dbl$, I should be rather defined taking into account the number of times $a$ will be copied along the computation of $dbl$ on any input. A good guess could be, for example, $d + 1$. Similarly, $H$ could be $d$. But how about $K$? How many times $f$ is used? If $d = 0$, then $f$ is not called, while if $d > 0$, the function is called once. In other words, a guess for $H$ could be $d > 0$, where we use the infix notation for the operator $>$ just to improve readability. Let us now try to build a derivation for

$$d; \varnothing; x : [d + 1] \cdot \text{Nat}[d], f : [d > 0] \cdot ([d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varnothing t : \text{Nat}[2d].$$

Actually, it has the following shape

$$\pi : d; \varnothing; x : [I] \cdot \text{Nat}[d] \vdash^\varnothing x : \text{Nat}[d]$$

$$\rho : d; d \leq 0; x : [d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d], f : [d > 0] \cdot ([d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varnothing \varnothing : \text{Nat}[2d]$$

$$\sigma : d; d > 0; x : [d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d], f : [d > 0] \cdot ([d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varnothing \varrho : \text{Nat}[2d]$$

$$\xi : d; d > 0; x : [d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d], f : [d > 0] \cdot ([d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varrho f(p(x)) : \text{Nat}[2d - 1]$$

where assignments to types in the form $[0] \cdot \sigma$ have been omitted from contexts. Now, $\pi$ and $\rho$ can be easily built, while $\sigma$ requires a little effort: it is the type derivation

$$\mu : d; d > 0; f : [d > 0] \cdot ([d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varrho f : [d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]$$

$$\xi : d; d > 0; x : [I] \cdot \text{Nat}[d] \vdash^\varrho p(x) : \text{Nat}[d - 1]$$

$$\Delta : d; d > 0; x : [d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d], f : [d > 0] \cdot ([d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varrho f(p(x)) : \text{Nat}[2d - 1]$$

where $\mu$ and $\xi$ can be easily built. Summing up, $t$ can indeed be given the type we wanted it to have. As a consequence, we can say that

$$d; \varnothing; f : [d > 0] \cdot ([d] \cdot \text{Nat}[d - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(d - 1)]) \vdash^\varrho \lambda x.t : [d + 1] \cdot \text{Nat}[d] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2d].$$

However, we have only solved half of the problem, since the last step (namely typing the fixpoint) is definitely the most complicated. In particular, the rule $R$ requires an index variable $b$ which somehow ranges over all recursive calls. A different but related type can be given to $\lambda x.t$, namely

$$a, b < a + 1; f : [a > b] \cdot ([a - b] \cdot \text{Nat}[a - b - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(a - b - 1)]) \vdash^\varrho \lambda x.t : [a - b + 1] \cdot \text{Nat}[a - b] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(a - b)].$$

By the way, this does not require rebuilding the entire type derivation (see the properties in the forthcoming Section 3.4). Let us now check whether the judgement above can be the premise of
the rule $R$. Following the notation in the typing rule $R$ we can stipulate that:

\[
\begin{align*}
I &= a > b; \\
K &= 0; \\
L &= a + 1; \\
\sigma &= [a - b] \cdot \text{Nat}[a - b - 1] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(a - b - 1)]; \\
\tau &= [a - b + 1] \cdot \text{Nat}[a - b] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2(a - b)]; \\
\mu &= \tau \{0/b\} = [a + 1] \cdot \text{Nat}[a] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[2a].
\end{align*}
\]

$\Gamma = \Delta = \emptyset$

We can conclude that, since $a < (a > b)$ implies $a = 0$:

\[
\begin{align*}
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{a}{b} \\
\end{array} \\
\frac{b + 1, a}{b}
\end{align*}
\]

\[0, 1 \\
\]

\[a, b; a < (a > b) \vdash \begin{array}{cc}
\frac{a, b}{b + 1, a} \\
\end{array} \] \\

\[I = 0
\]

\[\tau \{\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{a, b}{b + 1, a} \\
\end{array} I + b + 1/b\} = \tau \{b + 1/b\} = \sigma
\]

and, ultimately, that $a; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset^{dbl} \mu$.

### 3.4 Properties

This section is mainly concerned with subject reduction. Subject reduction will only be proved for closed terms, since the language is endowed with a weak notion of reduction and, as a consequence, reduction cannot happen in the scope of a lambda abstraction. The system $\ell\text{PCF}$ enjoys some nice properties that are both necessary intermediate steps towards proving subject reduction and essential ingredients for proving soundness and relative completeness. These properties permit to manipulate the judgements being sure that derivability is preserved.

First of all, the constraints $\Phi$ in a typing judgement can be made stronger without altering the rest:

**Lemma 3 (Constraint Strengthening)** Let $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash t : \sigma$ and $\phi; \Psi \vdash^E \Phi$. Then, $\phi; \Psi; \Gamma \vdash t : \sigma$.

**Proof.** It follows easily by definition of $\phi; \Psi \vdash^E \Phi$. \hfill \Box

Note that a sort of strenghtening holds also for weights.

**Lemma 4 (Weight Monotonicity)** Let $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash t : \sigma$ and $\phi; \Phi \vdash^E \Psi \subseteq J$. Then, $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash t : \sigma$.

**Proof.** It follows easily by induction on the derivation proving $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash t : \sigma$. \hfill \Box

Moreover, subtyping can be freely applied both to the context $\Gamma$ (contravariantly) and to the type $\sigma$ (covariantly), leaving the rest of the judgement unchanged:

**Lemma 5 (Subtyping)** Suppose $\phi; \Phi; x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n \vdash t : \sigma$ and $\phi; \Phi \vdash B_i \subseteq A_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $\phi; \Phi \vdash \sigma \subseteq \tau$. Then, $\phi; \Phi; x_1 : B_1, \ldots, x_n : B_n \vdash t : \tau$.

**Proof.** By induction on the structure of a derivation $\Pi$ for $\phi; \Phi; x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n \vdash t : \sigma$

Let us examine some interesting cases:
Lemma 8 (Index Term Substitution) Let \( \phi \in \text{Index Term} \). Then,
\[
\phi; \Phi; x : [a < I] \cdot \mu \vdash \sigma \quad \text{V}
\]

\[
\phi; \Phi; x : [a < I] \cdot \mu \vdash \sigma \quad \text{V}
\]

then, by assumption we have \( \phi; \Phi; x \in [a < I] \cdot \mu \), so in particular \( B = [a < J] \cdot \gamma \) and \( \phi; \Phi; x \in [a < J] \cdot \gamma \equiv [a < 1] \cdot \sigma \). Moreover, by assumption we have \( \phi; \Phi; x \in \sigma \{0/a\} \equiv \tau \), so in particular \( \tau = \tau \{0/a\} \). Hence, we have \( \phi; \Phi; x \in [a < 1] \cdot \gamma \equiv [a < 1] \cdot \sigma \). Thus \( \phi; \Phi; x \in [a < J] \cdot \gamma \equiv [a < 1] \cdot \tau \). So we can derive
\[
\phi; \Phi; x : [a < J] \cdot \gamma \vdash \tau \{0/a\} \quad \text{V}
\]

If \( \Pi \) is
\[
\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash _K t : [a < I] \cdot \sigma \rightarrow \gamma
\]
\[
\phi; a; \Phi, a < I; \Delta \vdash _H u : \sigma
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi; x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n \vdash \gamma \sum_{a < 1} \Delta
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi; x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n \vdash _K \sum_{a < 1} \Delta t u : \gamma \quad A
\]

then, by transitivity we have \( \phi; \Phi; x \in B_i \in \Delta_i \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \) and \( \phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash _E \gamma \equiv \tau \). So, by induction hypothesis we have \( \phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash t : [a < I] \cdot \sigma \rightarrow \tau \). So we can conclude:
\[
\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash t : [a < I] \cdot \sigma \rightarrow \tau
\]
\[
\phi; a; \Phi, a < I; \Delta \vdash u : \sigma
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi; x_1 : B_1, \ldots, x_n : B_n \vdash \gamma \sum_{a < 1} \Delta
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi; x_1 : B_1, \ldots, x_n : B_n \vdash _K \sum_{a < 1} \Delta t u : \tau \quad A
\]

The other cases are similar. \( \square \)

Weakening holds for term contexts

**Lemma 6 (Context Weakening)** Let \( \phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash _I t : \sigma \). Then, \( \phi; \Phi; \Gamma, \Delta \vdash _I t : \sigma \)

**Proof.** Easy, by induction on the derivation proving \( \phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash _I t : \sigma \). \( \square \)

Another useful transformation on type derivations is substitution of an index variable for an index term:

**Lemma 7 (Index Term Substitution respect subtyping)** Let \( \phi, a; \Phi \vdash \theta \equiv \gamma \) and \( I \) be an index term. Then, \( \phi; \Phi[I/a] \vdash \theta[I/a] \equiv \gamma[I/a] \).

**Proof.** Easy. \( \square \)

**Lemma 8 (Index Term Substitution)** Let \( \phi, a; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash _I t : \sigma \). Then we have
\[
\phi; \Phi; \Gamma[I/a] \vdash _I[I/a] t : \sigma[I/a]
\]

for every \( J \) such that \( \phi, \Phi \vdash E J \). \( \square \)

**Proof.** By induction on the structure of a derivation \( \Pi \) for
\[
\phi, a; \Gamma \vdash _K t : \sigma
\]

Let us examine some cases:
• If $\Pi$ is just
\[
\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon K \geq 0
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi \vdash [b < J] \cdot \sigma \subseteq [b < 1] \cdot \tau
\]
\[
\phi; a; \Phi; x : [b < J] \cdot \sigma \vdash_{K} x : \tau\{0/b\}
\]
then, by Lemma 7 we have $\phi; \Phi[1/a] \vdash [b < J[1/a]] \cdot \sigma[1/a] \subseteq [b < 1] \cdot \tau[1/a]$. So, we can derive
\[
\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon K[1/a] \geq 0
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi[1/a] \vdash [b < J[1/a]] \cdot \sigma[1/a] \subseteq [b < 1] \cdot \tau[1/a]
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi[1/a]; x : [b < J[1/a]] \cdot \sigma[1/a] \vdash_{K[1/a]} x : \tau[1/a] \{0/b\}
\]
\[
\phi; a; \Phi; \Gamma, x : [b < J] \cdot \sigma \vdash_{K} t : \tau
\]
\[
\phi; a; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash_{K} \lambda x. t : [b < J] \cdot \sigma \to \tau
\]
then, by the induction hypothesis we get
\[
\phi; \Phi[1/a]; \Gamma[1/a], x : [b < J[1/a]] \cdot \sigma[1/a] \vdash_{K[1/a]} t : \tau[1/a]
\]
As a consequence, we can conclude by
\[
\phi; \Phi[1/a]; \Gamma[1/a], x : [b < J[1/a]] \cdot \sigma[1/a] \vdash_{K[1/a]} t : \tau[1/a]
\]
\[
\phi; \Phi[1/a]; \Gamma[1/a] \vdash_{K[1/a]} \lambda x. t : [b < J[1/a]] \cdot \sigma[1/a] \to \tau[1/a]
\]
\[
L
\]
since $[a < J[1/a]] \cdot \sigma[1/a] \to \tau[1/a] = ([a < J] \cdot \sigma \to \tau)[1/a]$. The other cases are similar.

Index variables can be instantiated:

**Lemma 9 (Instantiation)** Let $\phi; a; \Phi, a \not\in I \vdash_{K} t : \sigma$. If $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon J \leq 1$, then, $\phi; \Phi[1/a] \vdash_{K[1/a]} t : \sigma[1/a]$.

**Proof.** By Lemma 8 and Lemma 5.

Moreover a Generation Lemma will be useful.

**Lemma 10 (Generation)**
1. Let $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash_{K} \lambda x. t : \sigma$, then $\sigma = [a < 1] \cdot \tau \to \mu$ and $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma, x : [a < I] \cdot \tau \vdash_{K} t : \mu$.
2. Let $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash_{K} \varnothing : \text{Nat}[I, J]$, then $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon \varnothing = 0$.
3. Let $\phi; \Phi; \Gamma \vdash_{K} \overline{n} + 1 : \text{Nat}[I, J]$, then $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon \overline{n} \geq 1$.

**Proof.** All the points are immediate by an inspection of the rules.

We are now ready to embark on a proof of subject reduction. As usual, the first step is a substitution lemma:

**Lemma 11 (Term Substitution)** Let $\phi; a; \Phi, a \not\in I \not\vdash_{J} t : \sigma$ and $\phi; \Phi; x : [a < I] \cdot \sigma, \Delta \vdash_{K} u : \tau$. Then we have $\phi; \Phi; \Delta \vdash_{H} u[t/x] : \tau$ with $\phi; \Phi \models^\varepsilon H \leq K + I + \sum_{n < 1} J$.

**Proof.** As usual, this is an induction on the structure of a type derivation for $u$. All relevant inductive cases require some manipulation of the type derivation for $t$. The previous lemmas give exactly the right degree of “malleability”. Let $\Pi$ be a derivation for
\[
\phi; \Phi; x : [a < I] \cdot \sigma, \Delta \vdash_{K} u : \tau
\]
Let us examine some interesting cases:
• Suppose we have $\phi, a; \Phi, a \prec I; \emptyset \vdash t : \tau$ and consider $\Pi$ to be just

$$
\phi; \Phi \models K \geq 0 \\
\phi; \Phi \vdash [a \prec I] \cdot \sigma \subseteq [a \prec I] \cdot \tau \\
\phi; \Phi; x : [a \prec I] \cdot \sigma, \Delta \vdash_K x : \tau [a/\emptyset] V
$$

Then, by definition, from $\phi; \Phi \vdash [a \prec I] \cdot \sigma \subseteq [a \prec I] \cdot \tau$ it follows that

$$
\phi; \Phi, a \prec I \vdash \sigma \subseteq \tau
$$

and

$$
\phi; \Phi \models 1 \prec I.
$$

Applying Lemma 9 we have

$$
\phi; \Phi [a/\emptyset]; \emptyset \vdash_I t : \tau [a/\emptyset]
$$

and since $\Phi$ does not contain free occurrences of $a$ we obtain:

$$
\phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_I t : \tau [a/\emptyset]
$$

Now, by applying Lemma 6 and Lemma 4 we can conclude

$$
\phi; \Phi; \Delta \vdash_{K + 1 + \sum_{a \in I}} t : \tau [a/\emptyset]
$$

since clearly Equation 6 implies

$$
\phi; \Phi \models J [a/\emptyset] \subseteq K + I + \sum_{a \in I} J
$$

• Let us consider the case $\Pi$ ends by an instance of the $A$ rule. In particular, without loss of generality we can consider a situation as:

$$
\phi; \Phi; \Delta_1, x : [a \prec K] \cdot \gamma \vdash_{L_1} v : [b \prec J] \cdot \mu \rightarrow \tau \\
\phi; b; \Phi, b \prec J; \Delta_2, x : [a \prec H] \cdot \gamma [K + a + \sum_{d \in B} H [d/\emptyset] / a] \vdash_{L_2} u : \mu \\
\phi; \Phi \vdash_{L_1 + \sum_{a \in J} L_2 \vdash u : \tau} \Sigma, x : [a \prec I] \cdot \sigma \subseteq \Delta \vdash \sum_{b \in J} \Delta_2, x : [a \prec K] \cdot \gamma \psi [a \prec \sum_{b \in J} H] \cdot \gamma [K + a/\emptyset]
$$

By assumption we have

$$
\phi; \Phi, a \prec I; \emptyset \vdash_{J_2} t : \sigma
$$

and

$$
\phi; \Phi \vdash [a \prec I] \cdot \sigma \subseteq [a \prec K + \sum_{b \prec J} H] \cdot \gamma = [a \prec K] \cdot \gamma \psi [a \prec \sum_{b \in J} H] \cdot \gamma [K + a/\emptyset]
$$

By definition of subtyping,

$$
\phi; \Phi, a \prec K + L \vdash \sigma \subseteq \gamma
$$

where $L = \sum_{b \in J} H$ and

$$
\phi; \Phi \vdash E K + L \preceq I
$$

So, by Lemma 3, we have

$$
\phi; \Phi, a \prec K + L; \emptyset \vdash_{J_2} t : \sigma
$$

and by Lemma 5 we have

$$
\phi; \Phi, a \prec K + L; \emptyset \vdash_{J_2} t : \gamma
$$

Applying again Lemma 3 we obtain

$$
\phi; \Phi, a \prec K; \emptyset \vdash_{J_2} t : \gamma
$$
and by induction hypothesis we get
\[ \phi; \Phi; \Delta_1 \vdash_{I_3} v[t/x] : [b < J] \cdot \mu \rightarrow \tau \]
with \( \phi; \Phi \vdash^E J_3 \leq L_1 + K + \sum_{a < K} J_2 \). Recalling that
\[ \phi; \Phi, a < K + L; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} t : \gamma \]
we observe that
\[ \phi, b, c; \Phi, a < K + c + \sum_{d < b} H[d/b], b < J, c < H \vdash^E \Phi, a < K + L \]
By Lemma 3 we get
\[ \phi, b, c; \Phi, a < K + c + \sum_{d < b} H[d/b], b < J, c < H; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} t : \gamma \]
and by Lemma 5 we obtain
\[ \phi; \Phi, a < H, b < J; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} t : \gamma \{ K + a + \sum_{d < b} H[d/b]/a \} \]
then, by the induction hypothesis we get
\[ \phi; \Phi, b < J; \Delta_2 \vdash_{I_4} u[t/x] : \mu \]
with \( \phi; \Phi \vdash^E J_4 \leq L_2 + H + \sum_{a < H} J_2 \) And we can conclude as follows:
\[ \phi; \Phi; \Delta_1 \vdash_{I_3} v[t/x] : [b < J] \cdot \mu \rightarrow \tau \]
\[ \phi; \Phi; \Delta_2 \vdash_{I_4} u[t/x] : \mu \]
\[ \phi, a; \Phi \vdash \Sigma \subseteq \Delta_1 \cup \sum_{b < j} \Delta_2 \]
\[ \phi; \Phi; \Sigma \vdash_{I_3 + J + \sum_{b < j} J_4} v[t/x]u[t/x] : \tau \]
with
\[ \phi; \Phi \vdash^E J_3 + J + \sum_{b < j} J_4 \leq (L_1 + K + \sum_{a < K} J_2) + J + \sum_{b < 1} (L_2 + H + \sum_{a < H} J_2) \leq (L_1 + \sum_{b < 1} L_2) + \sum_{a < 1} J_2. \]
The other cases are similar. \( \square \)

**Theorem 1 (Subject Reduction)** Let \( \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash t : \sigma \) and \( t \rightarrow u \). Then, \( \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash u : \sigma \), where \( \phi; \Phi \vdash J \leq I \).

**Proof.** By induction on the structure of a derivation \( \Pi \) for \( \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash t : \sigma \) Let us examine the distinct cases:

- **If \( \Pi \) is**
  \[ \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{I} \lambda x.t : [a < I] \cdot \sigma \rightarrow \tau \]
  \[ \phi; \Phi, a < I; \emptyset \vdash_{K} u : \sigma \]
  \[ \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{I_3 + \sum_{a < I} (\lambda x.t)u} : \tau \]
  By Lemma 10, case 1, we have \( \phi; \Phi; x : [a < I]; \sigma \vdash t : \tau \). Then by lemma 11 we can conclude:
  \[ \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} t[u/x] : u \]
  for \( \phi; \Phi \vdash_{I_2} L \leq J + I + \sum_{a < I} K \).

- **If \( \Pi \) is**
  \[ \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} Q \vdash \text{Nat}[J, K] \]
  \[ \phi; \Phi, J \leq 0; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} v_1 : \tau \]
  \[ \phi; \Phi, K \geq 1; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} v_2 : \tau \]
  \[ \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2 + K} \text{if} \ Q \text{ then } v_1 \text{ else } v_2 : \tau \]
  By Lemma 10, case 2, we have \( \phi; \Phi \vdash_{I_2} J \leq 0 \). So, by Lemma 3 we can conclude \( \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{I_2} v_1 : \tau \).
• If \( \Pi \) is
\[
\phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{\Pi} n + 1 : \text{Nat}[J, K] \\
\phi; \Phi, J < 0; \emptyset \vdash_L v_1 : \tau \\
\phi; \Phi, K \geq 1; \emptyset \vdash_L v_2 : \tau \\
\phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{\Pi + L} \text{if } n + 1 \text{ then } v_1 \text{ else } v_2 : \tau
\]
By Lemma 10, case 3, we have \( \phi; \Phi \models J \geq 1 \). So, by Lemma 3 we have \( \phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_L v_2 : \tau \).

• If \( \Pi \) is
\[
\phi; \Phi \vdash \bigotimes_b^{0,1} I \leq L, P \\
\phi, b; \Phi, b < L; x : [a < I] \cdot \sigma \vdash_K t : \tau \\
\phi; \Phi \vdash \tau(0/b) \subseteq \mu \\
\phi, a, b; \Phi, a < I, b < L \vdash \tau(\bigotimes_b^{b+1,a} I + b + 1/b) \subseteq \sigma \\
\phi; \Phi; \emptyset \vdash_{\Pi + 1 + \sum b \leq L, K} \text{fix } x.t : \mu \tag{R}
\]
Since \( \phi; \Phi \models 0 < L \), by Lemma 9 we have
\[
\phi; \Phi; x : [a < I(0/b)] \cdot \sigma(0/b) \vdash_K t(0/b).
\]
Now, by Lemma 2, we can easily obtain that
\[
\phi; \Phi \vdash 0,1 I = 1 + \sum_{c < I(0/b)} 0,1 I + 1, c b + 1 I/b.
\]
With some manipulations of the indices and by defining \( M \) to be
\[
\bigotimes_b^{0,1} b + 1 + \bigotimes_b^{1, c} I/b
\]
and \( N \) to be \( 1 + b + \sum_{c < a} M \) we obtain
\[
\phi, a, b; \Phi, a < I(0/b), b < M(a/c); x : [d < I(N/b)] \cdot \sigma(d/a) \{N/b\} \vdash_K N/b \vdash t : \tau\{N/b\} \tag{7}
\]
Moreover, since by Lemma 2 we have for every \( c \):
\[
\sum_{c < e} M \simeq \bigotimes_b^{1, e} I
\]
we can show
\[
\bigotimes_b^{0,1} I/N/b \simeq \bigotimes_b^{0,1} I/1 + b + \sum_{c < a} M/b \simeq \bigotimes_b^{0,1} I/1 + b + \bigotimes_b^{1, a} I/b \simeq M/a/c \tag{8}
\]
By Lemma 9 and thanks to the fact that:
\[
\phi, a, b, d; \Phi, a < I(0/b), b < M(a/c), d < I[N/b] \vdash \\
\tau[N/b]\{b + 1 + \bigotimes_b^{b+1,d} I[N/b]/b\} \simeq \tau[N + 1 + \bigotimes b^{N+1,d} I/b]
\]
we also obtain:
\[
\phi, a, b, d; \Phi, a < I(0/b), b < M(a/c), d < I[N/b] \vdash \\
\tau[N/b]\{b + 1 + \bigotimes_b^{b+1,d} I[N/b]/b\} \subseteq \sigma(d/a)\{N/b\} \tag{9}
\]
So, using the equations 7, 8 and 9 as premises in \( R \) rule application, we can conclude
\[
\phi; \Phi, a < I[0/b]; \mathcal{O} \vdash M[a/c] \equiv 1 + \sum_{b < M[a/c]} K[N/b] \text{ fix } x.t: \tau \{ N[0/b]/b \}
\]
But instantiating the last hypothesis of \( \Pi \), we obtain
\[
\phi; a; \Phi, a < I[0/b] \vdash \tau \{ \biguplus_b I + 1/b \} \equiv \sigma \{ 0/b \}
\]
By Lemma 2, we can prove that
\[
\biguplus_b I + 1 = N[0/b]
\]
and, as a consequence, that
\[
\phi; \Phi, a < I[0/b]; \mathcal{O} \vdash M[a/c] \equiv 1 + \sum_{b < M[a/c]} K[N/b] \text{ fix } x.t: \tau \{ 0/b \}.
\]
By the substitution Lemma 11 we obtain:
\[
\phi; \Phi; \mathcal{O} \vdash_H t \{ \text{fix } x.t/x \} : \tau \{ 0/b \}
\]
with
\[
\phi; \Phi \vdash H \equiv K\{0/b\} + I\{0/b\} + \sum_{a < I\{0/b\}} (M\{a/c\} - 1 + \sum_{b < M\{a/c\}} K\{N/b\})
\]
By Lemma 5 we obtain the wanted type and since we have
\[
\phi; \Phi \vdash K\{0/b\} + I\{0/b\} + \sum_{a < I\{0/b\}} (M\{a/c\} - 1 + \sum_{b < M\{a/c\}} K\{N/b\})
\]
\[
\leq \biguplus_b I + K\{0/b\} + \sum_{a < I\{0/b\}} \sum_{b < M\{a/c\}} K\{1 + b + \sum_{c < a} M/b\}
\]
and
\[
\phi; \Phi \vdash \biguplus_b I + (K\{0/b\} + \sum_{a < I\{0/b\}} \sum_{b < M\{a/c\}} K\{1 + b + \sum_{c < a} M/b\}) \leq P - 1 + \sum_{b < L} K
\]
the conclusion follows.
This concludes the proof.

\[ \square \]

4 Intensional Soundness

Subject reduction already implies an extensional notion of soundness for programs: if a term \( t \) can be typed with \( \mathcal{O}; \mathcal{O} \vdash_K t : \text{Nat}[I,J] \), then its normal form (if any) is a natural number between \([I]\) and \([J]\). However, subject reduction does not tell us whether the evaluation of \( t \) terminates, and in how much time. Has \( K \) anything to do with the complexity of evaluating \( t \)?

The only information that can be extracted from the Subject Reduction Theorem is that \( K \) does not increase.

In this section, intensional soundness (Theorem 2 below) for the type system \( d\text{PCF} \) will be proved. A Krivine’s Machine \( K_{\text{PCF}} \) for PCF programs will be first defined in Section 4.1. Given a program (i.e. a closed term of base type), the machine \( K_{\text{PCF}} \) either evaluates it to normal form or diverges. A formal connection between the machine \( K_{\text{PCF}} \) and the type system \( d\text{PCF} \) will be established by means of a weighted typability notion for machine configurations, introduced in Section 4.2. This notion is the fundamental ingredient to keep track of the number of machine steps.
4.1 The $K_{PCF}$ Machine

The Krivine’s Machine has been introduced as a natural device to evaluate pure lambda-terms under a weak-head notion of reduction [Kri07]. Here, the standard Krivine’s Machine is extended to a machine $K_{PCF}$ which handles not only abstractions and applications, but also constants, conditionals and fixpoints.

The configurations of the machine $K_{PCF}$, ranged over by $C, D, \ldots$, are triples $C = (t, \rho, \xi)$ where $\rho$ and $\xi$ are two additional constructions: $\rho$ is an environment, that is a (possibly empty) finite sequence of closures; while $\xi$ is a (possibly empty) stack of contexts. Stacks are ranged over by $\xi, \theta, \ldots$. A closure, as usual, is a pair $c = (t, \rho)$ where $t$ is a term and $\rho$ is an environment. A context is either a closure, a term $s$, a term $p$, or a triple $(u, v, \rho)$ where $u, v$ are terms and $\rho$ is an environment.

The transition steps between configurations of the machine $K_{PCF}$ are given in Figure 7. The transition rules need some comments. First of all, a naïve management of name variables is used. A more effective description could be, however, given by using the standard de Bruijn indexes. Note that the triple $(u, v, \rho)$ is used as a context for the conditional construction; moreover, in a recursion step, a copy of the recursive term is put in a closure on the top of the current environment. As usual, the symbol $\prec$ denotes the reflexive and transitive closure of the transition relation $\to$. The relation $\to^*$ implements weak-head reduction. Weak-head normal form and the normal form coincide for programs. So the machine $K_{PCF}$ is a correct device to evaluate programs. For this reason, the notation $t \downarrow n$ can be used as a shorthand for $t \to^* (u, v, \rho)$. Moreover, notations like $C \downarrow^*$ could also be used to stress that $C$ reduces to an irreducible configuration in exactly $n$ steps. The proof of the formal correctness of the implementation is outside the scope of this paper, however it should be clear that it could be obtained as a simple extension of the original one [Kri07].

Intensional soundness will be proved by studying how the weight $I$ of any program $t$ evolves during the evaluation of $t$ by $K_{PCF}$. This is possible because every reduction step in $t$ is decomposed into a number of transitions in $K_{PCF}$, and this decomposition highlights when, precisely, the weight changes. The same would be more difficult when performing plain reduction on terms. Proving intensional soundness this way requires, however, to keep track of the types and weights of all objects in a machine configuration. In other words, the type system should be somehow generalized to an assignment system on configurations.

4.2 Types and Weights for Configurations

Assigning types and weights to configurations amounts to somehow keeping track of the nature of all terms appearing in environments and stacks. This is captured by the following complex, although natural, definitions:
Definition 1 A closure \((t,c_1 \cdots c_n)\) is said to be \((\phi;\Phi)\)-typable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(J\) if

\[
\phi;\Phi; x_1 : [a < I_1] \cdot \tau_1, \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \tau_n \vdash_K t : \sigma
\]

and each \(c_i\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_1)\)-typable with type \(\tau_i\) and weight \(H_i\) \((1 \leq i \leq n)\), and

\[
\phi;\Phi \models J = K + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n.
\]

A stack \(\xi\) is said to be \((\phi;\Phi)\)-acceptable for \(\sigma\) with weight \(J\) and type \(\tau\) if either:

- \(\xi = \varepsilon\) and \(\phi;\Phi \models J = 0\), and \(\sigma = \tau\);
- or \(\xi = c \cdot \theta, \sigma = [a < I] \cdot \gamma \rightarrow \mu, c\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I)\)-typable with type \(\gamma\) and weight \(K\), \(\theta\) is \((\phi;\Phi)\)-acceptable for \(\mu\) with weight \(H\) and type \(\tau\) and \(\phi;\Phi \models J = H + \sum_{a < I} K + I\);
- or \(\xi = t, \sigma = \text{Nat}[I,L]\) and \(\theta\) is itself \((\phi;\Phi)\)-acceptable for some \(\text{Nat}[K,H]\) with weight \(J\) and type \(\tau\), where \(\phi;\Phi \vdash \text{Nat}[I + 1, L + 1] \subseteq \text{Nat}[K,H]\);
- or \(\xi = (t, u) \cdot \theta, \sigma = \text{Nat}[I,L], (t, \rho)\) is \((\phi;\Phi, I \leq 0)\)-typable with \(\mu\) and weight \(K\), \((u, \rho)\) is \((\phi;\Phi, L \geq 1)\)-typable with \(\mu\) and weight \(K\), \(\theta\) is \((\phi;\Phi)\)-acceptable for \(\mu\) with weight \(H\) and type \(\tau\), and \(\phi;\Phi \models J = K + H\).

A configuration \((t, \rho, \xi)\) is \((\phi;\Phi)\)-typable with type \(\tau\) and weight \(I\) if the closure \((t, \rho)\) is \((\phi;\Phi)\)-typable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(K\) and the environment \(\xi\) is \((\phi;\Phi)\)-acceptable for \(\sigma\) with type \(\tau\) and weight \(J\), and \(\phi;\Phi \models I = J + K\).

A formal connection between typed terms and typed configurations could be established as expected, moreover, such connection could be shown to be preserved by reduction. However, the following lemma will be sufficient in the sequel.

Lemma 12 Let \(t \in \mathcal{P}\). Then, \(\phi;\Phi; \emptyset \vdash t : \sigma\) if and only if \((t, \epsilon, \epsilon)\) is \((\phi;\Phi)\)-typable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(I\).

Proof. It follows immediately from the definition. \(\square\)

Analogous notions of acceptability and typability can be given for \(\text{dPCF}\). They can be obtained by simplifying those for \(\text{dPFC}\):

Definition 2 A closure \((t,c_1 \cdots c_n)\) is typable with type \(\sigma\) if \(x_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, x_n : \tau_n \vdash t : \sigma\), and each \(c_i\) is itself typable with type \(\tau_i\) \((1 \leq i \leq n)\). A stack \(\xi\) is acceptable for \(\sigma\) with type \(\tau\) if either:

- \(\xi = \varepsilon\) and \(\sigma = \tau\);
- or \(\xi = c \cdot \theta, \sigma = \mu \rightarrow \gamma, c\) is typable with type \(\mu\), \(\theta\) is acceptable for \(\gamma\) with type \(\tau\);
- or \(\xi = s \cdot \theta, \sigma = \text{Nat} \) and \(\theta\) is acceptable for \(\text{Nat}\) with type \(\tau\);
- or \(\xi = p \cdot \theta, \sigma = \text{Nat} \) and \(\theta\) is acceptable for \(\text{Nat}\) with type \(\tau\);
- or \(\xi = (t, u, \rho) \cdot \theta, \sigma = \text{Nat}, (t, \rho)\) is typable with type \(\mu\), \((u, \rho)\) is typable with type \(\mu\), \(\theta\) is acceptable for \(\mu\) with type \(\tau\).

A configuration \((t, \rho, \xi)\) is typable with type \(\tau\) if the closure \((t, \rho)\) is typable with type \(\sigma\) and the environment \(\xi\) is acceptable for \(\sigma\) with type \(\tau\).

4.3 Measure Decreasing and Intensional Soundness

An important property of Krivine’s Machine says that during the evaluation of programs only subterms of the initial program are recorded in the environment. This justifies the notion of size for configurations, denoted \(|C|\), that will be used in the sequel. This is defined as \(|(t, \rho, \xi)| = |t| + |\xi|\).

The size \(|\xi|\) of a stack \(\xi\) is defined as the sum of sizes of its elements, and \(|(t, \rho)| = |t|, |s| = 2, |p| = 1, and |(t, u, \rho)| = |t| + |u|\). Moreover, another consequence of the same property is the following lemma.
Lemma 13 Let \( t \in \mathcal{P} \) and let \( C = (t, \epsilon, \epsilon) \). Then, for each \( D = (u, \rho, \xi) \) such that \( C \rightarrow^* D \) and for each \( v \in \rho \) and \( \xi \), \( |v| \leq |t| \).

Proof. Easy, by induction on the length of the reduction \( C \rightarrow^* D \). Indeed, a strengthening of the statement is needed for induction to work. In particular, not only \( |v| \leq |t| \) for every \( v \) in \( \rho \) and \( \xi \), but also for the non-head-subterms of \( u \), where the set of head subterms of any term \( w \) can be defined easily by induction on the structure of \( w \), e.g. the head subterms of \( w = de \) are \( w \) itself and the head subterms of \( d \). \( \square \)

Intensional Soundness (Theorem 2) will express the fact that for a program \( t \in \mathcal{P} \) such that \( \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash^t t : \mathsf{Nat}[J,K] \), the number \( \|t\|_{\rho} \) is a good estimate of the number of steps needed to evaluate the program. Moreover, thanks to subject reduction, the numbers \( \|J\|_{\rho} \) and \( \|K\|_{\rho} \) give an upper and a lower bound, respectively, to the result of such an evaluation. This is proved by showing that during the reduction a measure, expressed as the combination of the weight and the size of a configuration, decreases. This requires, in particular, to extend some of the properties in Section 3.4 from terms to configurations. As an example, substitution holds on configurations, too:

Lemma 14 If \((t, \rho)\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \sigma \) and weight \( H \), then it is also \((\phi; \Phi[J/a])\)-typable with type \( \sigma[J/a] \) and weight \( H[J/a] \) for every \( J \) such that \( \phi, \Phi \vdash J \).

Proof. By induction on the definition of \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typability using Lemma 9. \( \square \)

Moreover, we have:

Lemma 15 Let \( \phi, \Phi \vdash [a < 1] : \sigma \subseteq [a < J + K] : \tau \) and let \((t, \rho)\) be \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < 1)\)-typable with type \( \sigma \) and weight \( H \). Then, \((t, \rho)\) is also \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < J)\)-typable with type \( \tau \) and weight \( H \). Moreover, \((t, \rho)\) is also \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < K)\)-typable with type \( \tau[J + a/a] \) and weight \( H[J + a/a] \).

The key step towards intensional soundness is the following:

Lemma 16 (Measure Decreasing) Suppose \((t, \epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow^* D \rightarrow E \) and let \( D \) be \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( I \) and type \( \sigma \). Then one of the following holds:
1. \( E \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( J \) and type \( \sigma \), \( \phi, \Phi \vdash I = J \) but \( |D| > |E| \);
2. \( E \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( J \) and type \( \sigma \), \( \phi, \Phi \vdash I > J \) and \( |E| < |D| + |I| \);

Proof. The proof is by cases on the reduction \( D \rightarrow E \). Condition 1 can be shown to apply to all the cases but the one in which \( D = (x, c_1 \cdots c_n, \xi) \). In that one, weight decreasing relies on the side condition in the typing rule for variables, while the bound on the size increasing comes from Lemma 13. We just present some cases, the others can be obtained analogously:

- Consider the case \( D = (\text{ifz } t_1 \text{ then } u \text{ else } v, \rho, \xi) \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( I \) and type \( \gamma \). We want to prove the point 1, that is \( E = (t, \rho, (u, v, \rho) : \xi) \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( J \) and type \( \gamma \) where \( \phi, \Phi \vdash I = J \) and \( |D| > |E| \). The latter (i.e., \( |D| > |E| \)) is immediate, so we consider the former. By definition we have for some \( \sigma \) and some \( J_1, K \) such that \( I = J_1 + K \):
  (i) \( (\text{ifz } t_1 \text{ then } u \text{ else } v, \rho) \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \sigma \) and weight \( J_1 \),
  (ii) \( \xi \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \( \sigma \) and weight \( K \) with type \( \gamma \).
- Point (i) implies that if \( \rho = c_1, \ldots, c_n \) we have a situation like the following

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\phi, \Phi \vdash x_1 : [a < 1] \cdot \mu_1, \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \mu_n \vdash t_1 : \mathsf{Nat}[L_1, L_2] \\
\phi, \Phi \vdash L_1 \leq 0 \vdash x_1 : [a < I_1] \cdot \mu_1 \cdot [a + a/a], \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \mu_n \cdot [a + a/a] \vdash K_1, u : \sigma \\
\phi, \Phi \vdash L_2 \geq 1 \vdash x_1 : [a < I_1] \cdot \mu_1 \cdot [a + a/a], \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \mu_n \cdot [a + a/a] \vdash K_1, v : \sigma \\
\phi, \Phi \vdash [a < 1] \cdot \tau_i \vdash [a < I_i] : \mu_i \cdot [a < I_i] : \mu_i \cdot [a + a/a] \\
\phi, \Phi \vdash \text{ifz } t_1 \text{ then } u \text{ else } v : \sigma
\end{array}
\]
and for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $c_i$ is itself $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_i)$-typable with type $\tau_i$ and weight $H_i$ and, finally,

$$J_1 = J_2 + K_1 + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n.$$ 

By Lemma 15, we have that every $c_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ is also $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_i^1)$-typable with type $\tau_i$ and weight $H_i$ and $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_i^2)$-typable with type $\tau_i^1$ and weight $H_i^1$. So we have that $(t_1, \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with type $Nat[L_1, L_2]$ and weight

$$J_3 = K_1 + I_1^1 + \ldots + I_n^1 + \sum_{a < I_1^1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n^1} H_n.$$ 

Analogously, we have that $(u, \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi, L_1 < 0)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight

$$J_4 = K_1 + I_1^2 + \ldots + I_n^2 + \sum_{a < I_1^2} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n^2} H_n.$$ 

Moreover, we have that $(u, \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi, L_2 \geq 1)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight

$$J_4 = K_1 + I_1^2 + \ldots + I_n^2 + \sum_{a < I_1^2} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n^2} H_n.$$ 

So, by definition we have that $(t, u, \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-acceptable for $Nat[L_1, L_2]$ with type $\gamma$ and weight

$$J_5 = J_2 + K_1 + I_1^1 + \ldots + I_n^1 + I_n^2 + \ldots + I_n^2 + \sum_{a < I_1^1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n^2} H_1 + \sum_{a < I_1^2} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n^1} H_1 + a/a + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n^2} H_1 + a/a + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n^2} H_1 + a/a$$

and this is clearly equal to $J_1$, so the conclusion $I = J_1 + K = J_5 + K = J$ follows.

- Consider the case $D = (\lambda x.t, \rho, c; \xi)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with weight $I$ and type $\gamma$. We want to prove the point 1, that is $E = (t, c \cdot \rho, \xi)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with weight $J$ and type $\gamma$ where $\phi; \Phi \models I = J$ and $|D| > |E|$. The latter (i.e. $|D| > |E|$) is immediate, so we consider the former. By definition we have for some $\gamma$ and some $J_1, K$ such that $I = J_1 + K$:

  (i) $(\lambda x.t, \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight $J_1$,

  (ii) $c \cdot \xi$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\sigma$ with weight $K$ and type $\gamma$.

By definition and by Generation Lemma 10, the point (i) implies $\phi; \Phi; x_1 : [a < I_1] \cdot \tau_1, \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \tau_n, x : [a < L] \cdot \sigma_1 \vdash t : \tau$ and that if $\rho = c_1, \ldots, c_n$ we have a situation like the following

$$\phi; \Phi; x_1 : [a < I_1] \cdot \tau_1, \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \tau_n, x : [a < L] \cdot \sigma_1 \vdash t : \tau$$

and for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $c_i$ is itself $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_i)$-typable with type $\tau_i$ and weight $H_i$ and, finally,

$$J_1 = J_2 + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n.$$ 

By definition, point (ii) implies that $c$ is $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < L)$-typable with type $\sigma_1$ and weight $K_1$ and, $\xi$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\tau$ and weight $H$ with type $\gamma$ and $K = H + \sum_{a < L} K_1 + L$. Hence we have:

$$\phi; \Phi; x_1 : [a < I_1] \cdot \tau_1, \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \tau_n, x : [a < L] \cdot \sigma_1 \vdash t : \tau$$

where $c$ is $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < L)$-typable with type $\sigma_1$ and weight $K_1$, and for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $c_i$ is itself $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_i)$-typable with type $\tau_i$ and weight $H_i$. This means that $(t, c \cdot \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with type $\tau$ and weight $K_2$, where

$$K_2 = J_2 + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n + L + \sum_{a < L} K_1.$$ 

Moreover, since $\xi$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\tau$ and weight $H$, we can conclude that $E$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with weight $J = K_2 + H$. Finally it is immediate to verify that $\phi; \Phi \models \xi I = J$ and so the conclusion.
• Consider the case $D = (\mathfrak{n}, \rho, s \cdot \xi)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with weight $I$ and type $\gamma$. We want to prove the point 1, that is $E = (\mathfrak{n} + 1, \rho, \xi)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with weight $J$ and type $\gamma$ where $\phi; \Phi \vdash I = J$ and $|D| > |E|$. The latter is easy: $|D| = |\mathfrak{n}| + |s \cdot \xi| = n + 2 + |\xi| > n + 1 + |\xi| = |\mathfrak{n} + 1| + |\xi| = |E|$, so we consider the former.

By definition we have for $\text{Nat}[H, L]$ and some $J_1, K$ such that $I = J_1 + K$:

(i) $(\mathfrak{n}, \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with type $\text{Nat}[H, L]$ and weight $J_1$,

(ii) $s \cdot \xi$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\text{Nat}[H, L]$ and weight $K$ with type $\gamma$.

The point (i) implies that for $\rho = c_1, \ldots, c_k$ we have a situation like the following

$$\phi; \Phi \vdash M \geq 0 \quad \phi; \Phi \vdash H \leq n \quad \phi; \Phi \vdash n \leq L$$

and for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $c_i$ is itself $(\phi; a; \Phi, a < I_i)$-typable with type $\tau_i$ and weight $H_i$ and, finally,

$$J_1 = M + I_1 + \ldots + I_k + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_k} H_k.$$ 

The point (ii) implies that $\xi$ is itself $(\phi; \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\text{Nat}[H_1, L_1]$ and weight $K$ with type $\gamma$. And so, the conclusion.

• Consider the case $D = (\text{fix} \ x.t, \rho, \xi)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with weight $I$ and type $\gamma$. We want to prove the point 1, that is $E = (t, (\text{fix} \ x.t, \rho); \Phi, \xi)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with weight $J$ and type $\gamma$ where $\phi; \Phi \vdash I = J$ and $|D| > |E|$. The latter is easy: $|D| = |\text{fix} \ x.t| + |\xi| > |t| + |\xi| = |E|$, so we consider the former.

By definition we have for some $\mu$ and some $J_1, K$ such that $I = J_1 + K$:

(i) $(\text{fix} \ x.t, \rho)$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-typable with type $\mu$ and weight $J_1$,

(ii) $\xi$ is $(\phi; \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\mu$ and weight $K$ with type $\gamma$.

The point (i) implies that if $\rho = c_1, \ldots, c_n$ we have a situation like the following

$$\phi, b; \Phi, b < L; \Gamma, x : [a < P] : \sigma \vdash t : \tau$$

with $\Sigma = x_1 : [a < I_1] \cdot \tau_1, \ldots, x_n : [a < I_n] \cdot \tau_n$ and for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $c_i$ is itself $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_i)$-typable with type $\tau_i$ and weight $H_i$ and, finally,

$$J_1 = R = 1 + \sum_{b < L} K + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n.$$ 

By using manipulations of the indices similar to the one used in the proof of the Subject Reduction, we can derive:

$$\phi; \Phi; \Gamma_1 x : [a < P; 0/b] : \sigma; 0/b \vdash t : \mu$$

for $\Gamma_1$ such that $\phi; \Phi \vdash \Gamma_1 \subseteq \Gamma[0/b]$, and

$$\phi; \Phi, a < P; 0/b; \Sigma_1 \vdash t : \sigma[0/b].$$
for \( M = \bigotimes_b^{0,1} P[b + 1] + \bigotimes_c^{0,0} P/b \) and \( N = 1 + b + \sum_{a} M \) and \( \phi; \Phi, a < P/0/b \vdash \Sigma_i \subseteq \sum_{b < M[a/c]} \Gamma[N/b] \). In particular, we can choose \( \Gamma_1 \) and \( \Sigma_1 \) such that:

\[ \phi; \Phi \vdash \Sigma \equiv \sum_{a < P[0/b]} \Sigma_1 + \Gamma_1 \subseteq \sum_{a < P[0/b]} \sum_{b < M[a/c]} \Gamma[N/b] + \Gamma[0/b] \equiv \sum_{b < L} \Gamma \]

So we have that \((I, (\text{fix } x.t, \rho) : \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \mu \) and weight \( K_2 \) where

\[ K_2 = K[0/b] + P[0/b] + \sum_{a < P[0/b]} (M[a/c] \vdash 1 + \sum_{b < M[a/c]} K[N/b]) \]

\[ + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n \]

\[ = R \vdash 1 + \sum_{b < L} K + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n = J_1 \]

Since by point \((ii)\) we have also that \( \xi \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \( \mu \) and weight \( K \) with type \( \gamma \), the conclusion.

- Consider the case \( D = (x_m, ((t_0, \rho_0), \ldots, (t_n, \rho_n)), \xi) \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( I \) and type \( \gamma \). We want to prove the point 2, that is \( E = (t_m, \rho_m, \xi) \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( J \) and type \( \gamma \) where \( \phi; \Phi \vdash I > J \) and \( |E| < |D| + |I| \). The latter (i.e., \(|E| < |D| + |I| \)) is immediate by Lemma 13, so we consider the former. By definition we have for some \( \sigma \) and some \( J_1, K \) such that \( I = J_1 + K \):

  1. \((x_m, ((t_0, \rho_0), \ldots, (t_n, \rho_n))) \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \sigma \) and weight \( J_1 \),
  2. \( \xi \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \( \sigma \) and weight \( K \) with type \( \gamma \).

The point (i) implies a situation like the following where \( \sigma = \tau[0/a] \):

\[ \phi; \Phi \vdash J_2 \equiv 0 \]

\[ \phi; \Phi \vdash [a < I_m] : \tau_m \equiv [a < 1] : \tau \]

\[ \phi; \Phi; x_1 : [a < I_1] ; \ldots ; x_n : [a < I_n] ; \tau_n, a \vdash J_2, x_m : \tau[0/a] \]

and for every \( 1 \leq i \leq n, (t_i, \rho_i) \) is itself \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_i)\)-typable with type \( \tau_i \) and weight \( H_i \) and, finally,

\[ J_1 = J_2 + I_1 + \ldots + I_n + \sum_{a < I_1} H_1 + \ldots + \sum_{a < I_n} H_n. \]

So, in particular we have that \((t_m, \rho_m) \) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_m)\)-typable with type \( \tau_m \) and weight \( H_m \). Since \( \phi; \Phi \models \varepsilon 1 \leq I_m \), from Lemma 9 and since \( a \) is not free in \( \Phi \) we have that \((t_m, \rho_m) \) is also \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \tau[0/a] \) and weight \( H_m[0/a] + K \). From this and point (ii) it follows that \( E \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \( J = H_m[0/a] + K \). Now, note that by hypothesis we have \( \phi; \Phi \models \varepsilon 1 \leq I_m \) and so in particular we have \( \phi; \Phi \models \varepsilon H_m[0/a] < J_1 \). Thus, the conclusion \( \phi; \Phi \models \varepsilon I > J \) follows.

This concludes the proof. \( \square \)

It is worth noticing that if \( \Phi \) is inconsistent, the inequality \( \phi; \Phi \models I > J \) in Lemma 16, point 2, does not necessary imply weight decreasing. Indeed, intensional soundness only holds in presence of a consistent set of constraints:

**Theorem 2 (Intensional Soundness)** Let \( \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash t : \text{Nat}[J, K] \) and \( t \uparrow^n m \). Then,

\[ n \leq |I| \cdot |[I]| \]

**Proof.** By induction on \( n \), making essential use of Lemma 16 and Lemma 13. \( \square \)
5 Relative Completeness

This section is devoted to proving relative completeness for the type system d/PCF. In fact, two relative completeness theorems will be presented. The first one (Theorem 4) states relative completeness for programs: for each PCF program t that evaluates to a numeral n there is a type derivation in d/PCF whose index terms capture both the number of reduction steps and the value of n. The second one (Theorem 5) states relative completeness for functions: for each PCF term t : Nat \rightarrow Nat computing a total function f in time expressed by a function g there exists a type derivation in d/PCF whose index terms capture both the extensional behaviour f and the intensional property embedded into g.

Relative completeness does not hold in general. Indeed, it holds only when the underlying equational program E is universal, i.e. when it is sufficiently expressive to encode all total computable functions. A universal equational program is introduced in Section 5.1.

Relative completeness for programs will be proved using a weighted form of subject expansion (Theorem 3) similar to the one holding in intersection type theories. This will be proved in Section 5.2. The proof of relative completeness for functions needs a further step: a uniformization result (Lemma 23) relying on the properties of the universal model. This is the subject of Section 5.3.

5.1 Universal Equational Program

Since the class of equational programs is clearly recursively enumerable, it can be put in one-to-one correspondence with natural numbers, using a coding scheme à la Gödel. Such a coding, as usual, can be used to define a universal equational program \( U \) that is able to simulate all equational programs (including itself).

Let \( E, f \) be the natural number coding an equational program \( E \) and a function symbol \( f \) defined on it. This can be easily computed from (a description of) \( E \) and \( f \). A signature \( \Sigma_U \) containing just the symbol empty of arity 0 and the symbols pair and eval of arity 2 is sufficient to define the universal program \( U \). For each \( f \) of arity \( n \), the equational program \( U \) satisfies

\[
\llbracket \text{eval}(E, f, \text{pairing}_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) \rrbracket^U_\rho = \llbracket f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \rrbracket^E_\rho
\]

where \( \text{pairing}_n(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \) is defined by induction on \( n \):

\[
\text{pairing}_0 = \text{empty};
\]
\[
\text{pairing}_{n+1}(t_1, \ldots, t_{n+1}) = \text{pair}(\text{pairing}_n(t_1, \ldots, t_n), t_{n+1}).
\]

This way, \( U \) acts as an interpreter for any equational program.

The universal equational program \( U \) enjoys some nice properties which are crucial when proving subject expansion. The following lemma says, for example, that sums and bounded sums can always be formed (modulo \( \equiv \)) whenever index terms are built and reasoned about using the universal program:

**Lemma 17** 1. For every A and B such that \( |A| = |B| \) there are C and D such that \( \phi; \emptyset \vdash^{U} C \equiv A, \phi; \emptyset \vdash^{U} D \equiv B \) and \( C \uplus D \) is defined.

2. For every A and I there is B such that \( \phi, a; \emptyset \vdash^{U} B \equiv A \) and \( \sum_{a < 1} B \) is defined.

5.2 Subject Expansion and Programs Relative Completeness

Weighted subject expansion (Theorem 3) says that typing is preserved while weights increase by at most one along any \( K_{PCF} \) expansion step. This is somehow the converse of the Measure Decreasing Lemma. Weighted subject expansion, however, does not hold in general but only when the universal equational program \( U \) is considered.

In order to prove weighted subject expansion, only typing that carry precise weight information should be considered. Formally, a configuration \( D \) is said to be \((\phi; \Phi)\)-precisely-typable with weight I and type \( \sigma \) if it is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight I and type \( \sigma \) by precise type derivations. The type
of a precisely-typable configuration, in other words, carries exact information about the value of the objects at hand.

Furthermore, only particular typing transformations should be considered, namely those that leave the weight information unaltered. In order to achieve this, some properties of the objects at hand.

Let $\gamma$ be a precisely-typable configuration, in other words, carries exact information about the value of $\gamma$.

Lemma 18 Let $(t, \rho)$ be $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < 1)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight $H$ and $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < J)$-typable with type $\sigma \{a + 1 \} a$ and weight $H \{a + 1 \} a$. Then, $(t, \rho)$ is also $(\phi, a; \Phi, a < 1 + J)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight $H$.

Proof. By simultaneous induction on the derivations that $(t, \rho)$ is typable with type $\sigma$ and $\sigma \{a + 1 \} a$ and weight $H$ and $H \{a + 1 \} a$ respectively. Using the universal model properties. □

Lemma 19 Let $(t, \rho)$ be $(\phi, a, b, \Phi, a < 1, b < J)$-typable with type $\sigma \{\sum_{c < a} J_1 \} c / a + b / c \}$ and weight $H \{\sum_{c < a} J_1 \} c / a + b / c \}$. Then, $(t, \rho)$ is also $(\phi, a, b, \Phi, c < \sum_{a < 1} J)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight $H$.

Proof. By induction on the derivations that $(t, \rho)$ is typable with type $\sigma \{\sum_{c < a} J_1 \} c / a + b / c \}$ and weight $H \{\sum_{c < a} J_1 \} c / a + b / c \}$. Using the universal model properties. □

It is now time to state weighted subject expansion, since all the necessary ingredients have been introduced:

Theorem 3 (Weighted Subject Expansion) Let $D$ be $(\phi, \Phi)$-precisely-typable with weight $I$ and type $\sigma$ and let $C$ be typable with type $[\tau]$. Then, $C \to D$ implies that $C$ is $(\phi, \Phi)$-precisely-typable with weight $J$ and type $\sigma$ where $\phi, \Phi \vdash J \leq I + 1$.

Proof. The proof is by cases on the shape of the reduction $C \to D$. We just present some cases, the others can be obtained analogously.

- Consider the case

$C = (\emptyset, \rho, (t, u, \mu); \xi) \to (t, \mu, \xi) = D$

By assumption we have that $C$ is typable and that $D$ is $(\phi, \Phi)$-precisely-typable with weight $I$ and type $\gamma$. So, for some $J_1, K$ and $\sigma$ we have $I = J_1 + K$ where:

(i) $(t, \mu)$ is $(\phi, \Phi)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight $J_1$.

(ii) $\xi$ is $(\phi, \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\sigma$ and weight $K$ with type $\gamma$.

Since (i) we clearly also have $(t, \mu)$ is $(\phi, \Phi, 0 \leq 0)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight $J_1$. Moreover, since $\Phi, 1 \leq 0$ is an inconsistent set of constraints, and since $C$ is typable, as remarked above, we also have that $(u, \mu)$ is $(\phi, \Phi, 1 \leq 0)$-typable with type $\sigma$ and weight $J_1$. This means in particular that $(t, u, \mu); \xi$ is $(\phi, \Phi)$-acceptable for type $\text{Nat}[0]$ and weight $J_1 + K$ with type $\gamma$. Now, assume that $\rho = (t_1, \rho_1) \cdots (t_n, \rho_n)$ where $(t_i, \rho_i)$ is typable with type $\tau_i$. By Lemma 6 we can build a derivation for

$\phi, \Phi; x_1 : [\alpha_1 < 0] : \tau_1 \cdots x_n : [\alpha_n < 0] : \tau_n \vdash \emptyset : \text{Nat}[0]$

where each $\tau_i$ is a decoration of $\tau_i$. Moreover, since for every $i$ the set of constraints $\Phi, \alpha_i < 0$ is inconsistent, as remarked above, we have that every $(t_i, \rho_i)$ is $(\phi, \Phi, \alpha_i < 0)$-typable with weight $0$ and type $\tau_i$. So, we have that $(\emptyset, \rho)$ is $(\phi, \Phi)$-typable with weight $0$ and type $\text{Nat}[0]$. Summing up, we obtain that $C$ is $(\phi, \Phi)$-precisely-typable with weight $0 + J_1 + K = I$ and type $\gamma$ and so the conclusion follows.
Consider the case
\[ C = (\lambda x. t, \rho, c \cdot \xi) \rightarrow (t, c \cdot \rho, \xi) = D \]

By assumption we have that \( C \) is typable and that \( D \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-precisely-typable with weight \( I \) and type \( \gamma \). So, for some \( J_1, K \) and \( \sigma \) we have \( I = J_1 + K \) where:

(i) \((t, c \cdot \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \sigma \) and weight \( J_1 \),

(ii) \( \xi \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \( \sigma \) and weight \( K \) with type \( \gamma \)

By (i) we have
\[
\phi; \Phi; x_1 : [a_1 < I_1^1] : \sigma_1^1, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I_n^1] : \sigma_1^1 \vdash L_1 t : \sigma
\]

and each \( c_i \in c \cdot \rho \) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_1^1)\)-typable with type \( \sigma_i^1 \) and weight \( H_i^1 \) where:
\[
J_1 = L_1 + I_1^1 + \cdots + I_n^1 + \sum_{a_i < I_1^1} H_1^1 + \cdots + \sum_{a_n < I_n^1} H_n^1
\]

Without loss of generality we can consider the case where \( x = x_1 \) and \( c = c_1 \). So, in particular we can build a derivation ending as
\[
\phi; \Phi; x_2 : [a_2 < I_1^1] : \sigma_2^1, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I_n^1] : \sigma_n^1 \vdash L_1 \lambda x_1. t : [a_1 < I_1^1] : \sigma_1^1 \rightarrow \sigma
\]

and we have that \((\lambda x_1. t, \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \([a_1 < I_1^1] : \sigma_1^1 \rightarrow \sigma \) and weight \( J_2 \) where
\[
J_2 = L_1 + I_2^1 + \cdots + I_n^1 + \sum_{a_2 < I_2^1} H_2^1 + \cdots + \sum_{a_n < I_n^1} H_n^1
\]

Since clearly \( c_1 \) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_1^1)\)-typable with type \( \sigma_1^1 \) and weight \( H_1^1 \), by definition we have that \( c_1 \cdot \xi \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for \([a_1 < I_1^1] : \sigma_1^1 \rightarrow \sigma \) and weight \( K + I_1^1 + \sum_{a_i < I_1^1} H_i^1 \) with type \( \gamma \). So we can conclude that \( D = (\lambda x. t, \rho, c \cdot \xi) \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \gamma \) and weight
\[
J_2 + K + I_1^1 + \sum_{a_i < I_1^1} H_i^1
\]

Since clearly
\[
I = J_1 + K = J_2 + K + I_1^1 + \sum_{a_i < I_1^1} H_i^1 = J
\]

we have the conclusion.

Consider the case
\[ C = (\text{fix} x. t, \rho, \xi) \rightarrow (t, (\text{fix} x. t, \rho) \cdot \rho, \xi) = D \]

By assumption we have that \( C \) is typable and that \( D \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-precisely-typable with weight \( I \) and type \( \gamma \). So, for some \( J_1, K \) and \( \sigma \) we have \( I = J_1 + K \) where:

(i) \((t, (\text{fix} x. t, \rho) \cdot \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \( \sigma \) and weight \( J_1 \),

(ii) \( \xi \) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \( \sigma \) and weight \( K \) with type \( \gamma \)

By (i) we have
\[
\phi; \Phi; x : [a < I_0^1] : \sigma_0^1, \Gamma \vdash L_1 t : \sigma
\]

where
\[
\Gamma = x_1 : [a_1 < I_1^1] : \sigma_1^1, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I_n^1] : \sigma_n^1
\]

and \((\text{fix} x. t, \rho)\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_0^1)\)-typable with type \( \sigma_0^1 \) and weight \( H_0^1 \) and each \( c_i \in \rho \) is \((\phi; \Phi, a_i < I_1^1)\)-typable with type \( \sigma_i^1 \) and weight \( H_i^1 \) where:
\[
J_1 = L_1 + I_0^1 + \sum_{a_0 < I_0^1} H_0^1 + I_1^1 + \cdots + I_n^1 + \sum_{a_1 < I_1^1} H_1^1 + \cdots + \sum_{a_n < I_n^1} H_n^1
\]
By the definition of precise-typability and by the fact that \((\text{fix}\ x\cdot t, \rho)\) is \((\phi; a; \Phi, a < I_0^1)\)-typable with type \(\sigma_0^1\) and weight \(H_0^1\), we have

\[
\phi; a; \Phi, a < I_0^1; \Delta_1 \vdash_{L_2} \text{fix}\ x\cdot t : \sigma_0^1
\]

where \(H_0^1 = L_2 + M\). Moreover, we have \(P, M_1\) and \(\tau\) such that

\[
L_2 = \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P \vdash_{\mathbb{N}_{1}}^{0,1} + \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} M_1
\]

and

\[
\phi, a, b; \Phi, a < I_0^1, b < \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P; x : [c < P] \cdot \tau\{ \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P + b + 1/b\}, \Delta \vdash_{M_1} t : \tau
\]

with \(\phi; \Phi \vdash \sigma_0^1 = \tau\{0/b\}\) and \(\Delta_1 = \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P \cdot \Delta = x_1 : [a_1 < I_0^2]; \sigma_1^2, ... x_n : [a_n < I_0^2]; \sigma_n^2\) and

\[
M = I_1^2 + \ldots + I_n^2 + \sum_{a_1 < I_0^2} H_1^1 + \ldots + \sum_{a_n < I_0^2} H_n^1
\]

where each \(c_i \in \rho\) is also \((\phi; a; \Phi, a < I_0^1, a_i < I_0^2)\)-typable with type \(\sigma_i^2\) and weight \(H_i^1\).

By manipulations of the indices similar (but in the opposite direction) to the ones used in the proof of Subject Reduction and of the Intensional Soundness, and by using Lemma 17 we have an index term \(N\) such that

\[
\sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P \vdash_{\mathbb{N}_{1}}^{0,1} N = 1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} P
\]

and

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b < \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P; x : [a < N] \cdot \mu_1, \Sigma \vdash_{L_3} t : \mu
\]

where:

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b = 0 \vdash \mu = \sigma
\]

and

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b > 0, b < \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P \vdash_{\mathbb{N}_{1}} \mu = \tau
\]

and

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b = 0 \vdash \mu_1 = \sigma_0^1
\]

and

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b > 0, b < \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P \vdash_{\mathbb{N}_{1}} \mu_1 = \tau\{ \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P + b + 1/b\}
\]

and

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b = 0 \vdash L_3 = L_1
\]

and

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b > 0, b < \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P \vdash_{\mathbb{N}_{1}} L_3 = M_1
\]

Analogously we have:

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b = 0 \vdash \Sigma = \Gamma
\]

and

\[
\phi, b; \Phi, b > 0, b < \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P \vdash_{\mathbb{N}_{1}} \Sigma = \Delta
\]

So, by using again the \(R\) rule we obtain:

\[
\phi; \Phi; \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} \Sigma \vdash_{\mathbb{N}_{1}}^{0,1} N = 1 + \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P ; \text{fix}\ x\cdot t : \sigma
\]

Note in particular that we have:

\[
\sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} \Sigma = \Gamma \lor \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} \Delta = \Gamma + \sum_{a < I_0^1} \sum_{b < \mathbb{N}_{1}} P
\]
So, suppose
\[
\sum_{b < \otimes_0^{0.1} N} \Sigma = x_1: [a_1 < I_1] \cdot \sigma_1, \ldots, x_n: [a_n < I_n] \cdot \sigma_n
\]
where with some manipulations of the indices we have \(\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_1^1\) and \(\sigma_2^2\{a_1 + I_1 + \sum_{c < a} I_2^2/a_1\} = \sigma_2^2\). Similarly we have \(H_1^3\) such that \(H_1^3 = H_1^1\) and \(H_3^3\{a_1 + I_1 + \sum_{c < a} I_2^2/a_1\} = H_3^2\).

Since as outlined above, we have that \(c \in \rho\) is \((\phi, a_i; \Phi, a_i < I_1^1)-tympable with type \(\sigma_1^1\) and weight \(H_1^1\) and also that each \(c_i \in \rho\) is \((\phi, a_i; \Phi, a_i < I_1^1)-tympable with type \(\sigma_1^2\) and weight \(H_2^1\), by Lemma 18 and Lemma 19 we have that each \(c_i \in \rho\) is also \((\phi, a_i; \Phi, a_i < I_1^1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} I_1^2\)-tympable with type \(\sigma_1^2\) and weight \(H_2^1\).

From this follows that \((\text{fix } x.t, \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-tympable with type \(\sigma\) and weight:

\[
\left( \bigotimes_{b}^{0.1} N - 1 + \sum_{b < \otimes_0^{0.1} N} L_3 \right) + \left( I_1^1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} I_1^2 \right) + \cdots + \left( I_n^1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} I_n^2 \right) + \sum_{a_1 < (I_1^1 + \sum_{c < I_0^1} I_1^2)} H_1^1 + \cdots + \sum_{a_n < (I_n^1 + \sum_{c < I_0^1} I_n^2)} H_n^1
\]

Since:

\[
\sum_{a < I_1^1 + \sum_{c < I_0^1} I_1^2} H_1^3 = \sum_{a < I_1^1} H_1^3 + \sum_{a < \sum_{c < I_0^1} I_1^2} H_2^3 = \sum_{a < I_1^1} H_1^3 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} \sum_{a < I_1^1} H_2^3
\]

what remains to show is that the weight is preserved of the following:

\[
\left( \bigotimes_{b}^{0.1} N - 1 + \sum_{b < \otimes_0^{0.1} N} L_3 \right) = \left( 1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} \sum_{b < \otimes_0^{0.1} P} \right) - 1 + L_1 + \left( I_1^1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} \sum_{b < \otimes_0^{0.1} P} M_1 \right) = L_1 + I_0^1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} \left( \bigotimes_{b}^{0.1} P - 1 + \sum_{b < \otimes_0^{0.1} P} M_1 \right) = L_1 + I_0^1 + \sum_{a < I_0^1} L_2
\]

So, we have that \((\text{fix } x.t, \rho)\) is also \((\phi, a; \Phi)\)-tympable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(J_1\). Since \(\xi\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \(\sigma\) and weight \(K\) with type \(\gamma\), we can conclude that \(D = (\text{fix } x.t, \rho, \xi)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-tympable with type \(\gamma\) and weight \(I = J_1 + K = J\) and so we have the conclusion.

Consider the case

\[
C = \langle \text{if } z \text{ then } u \text{ else } v, \rho, \xi \rangle \to (t, \rho, (u, v, \rho) \cdot \xi) = D
\]

By assumption we have that \(C\) is tympable and that \(D\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-precisely-tympable with weight \(I\) and type \(\gamma\). So, for some \(J_1, K\) and \(\sigma\) we have \(I = J_1 + K\) where:

(i) \((t, \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-tympable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(J_1\),

(ii) \((u, v, \rho) \cdot \xi\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \(\sigma\) and weight \(K\) with type \(\gamma\).

So, in particular by (ii) and by the definition of precise-tympability we have \(\sigma = \text{Nat}[K_1, K_1]\) for some \(K_1\) and \(K = K_2 + K_3\) where \((u, \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi, K_1 \leq 0)\)-precisely-tympable with type \(\tau\) and weight \(K_2\), and \((v, \rho)\) is \((\phi; \Phi, \Phi, K_1 \geq 1)\)-precisely-tympable with type \(\tau\) and weight \(K_2\) and \(\xi\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \(\tau\) and weight \(K_3\) with type \(\gamma\). By (i) we have

\[
\phi; \Phi; x_1: [a_1 < I_1] \cdot \sigma_1, \ldots, x_n: [a_n < I_n] \cdot \sigma_n \vdash_{L_1} t : \text{Nat}[K_1, K_1]
\]

and each \((t_i, \rho_i)\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I_1^1)\)-tympable with type \(\sigma_1^1\) and weight \(H_1^1\) where:

\[
J_1 = L_1 + I_1^1 + \cdots + I_n^1 + \sum_{a_1 < I_1^1} H_1^1 + \cdots + \sum_{a_n < I_n^1} H_n^1
\]

Analogously, by (ii) we have

\[
\phi; \Phi, K_1 \leq 0; x_1: [a_1 < I_1^2] \cdot \sigma_2^1, \ldots, x_n: [a_n < I_n^2] \cdot \sigma_n^2 \vdash_{L_2} u : \tau
\]
and each \((t_i, \rho_i) \in \rho\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, K_1 \leq 0, a < I^2)\)-typable with type \(\sigma_i^2\) and weight \(H_i^2\), where:

\[
K_2 = L_2 + I_1^2 + \ldots + I_n^2 + \sum_{a_1 < I_1^2} H_1^2 + \cdots + \sum_{a_n < I_n^2} H_n^2
\]

Moreover,

\[
\phi; \Phi, K_1 \geq 1; x_1 : [a_1 < I_1^4]; \sigma_1^3, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I_n^4]; \sigma_n^3 \vdash \tau \rightarrow \tau
\]

and each \((t_i, \rho_i) \in \rho\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, J_2 \leq 0, a < I^2)\)-typable with type \(\sigma_i^3\) and weight \(H_i^3\), where:

\[
K_2 = L_3 + I_1^3 + \ldots + I_n^3 + \sum_{a_1 < I_1^3} H_1^3 + \cdots + \sum_{a_n < I_n^3} H_n^3
\]

One between \(\phi; \Phi, K_1 \geq 1\) and \(\phi; \Phi, K_1 \leq 0\) is clearly inconsistent. Without loss of generality suppose the latter, this means that we have

\[
\phi; \Phi, K_1 \geq 1; x_1 : [a_1 < I_1^4]; \sigma_1^3, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I_n^4]; \sigma_n^3 \vdash \tau
\]

and each \((t_i, \rho_i) \in \rho\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, J_2 \leq 0, a < I^3)\)-typable with type \(\sigma_i^3\) and weight \(H_i^3\). Moreover, since by assumption \([a_1 < I_1^4]; \sigma_1^3 = [a_1 < I_1^3]; \sigma_1^3\] by Lemma 17 we have types \([a_i < I_i^4]; \sigma_i^3\) and \([a_i < I_i^3]; \sigma_i^3\) with \(\emptyset \vdash [a_i < I_i^4]; \sigma_i^3 \equiv [a_i < I_i^3]; \sigma_i^3\) and \(\emptyset \vdash [a_i < I_i^3]; \sigma_i^3 \equiv [a_i < I_i^4]; \sigma_i^3\) and such that \(\phi \vdash [a_i < I_i^3]; \sigma_i^3 \cup [a_i < I_i^4]; \sigma_i^3\). So we can build a derivation as

\[
\begin{align*}
\phi; \Phi; x_1 : [a_1 < I_1^4]; \sigma_1^3, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I_n^4]; \sigma_n^3 \vdash \tau : \text{Nat}[K_1, K_1] \\
\phi; \Phi; K_1 \leq 0; x_1 : [a_1 < I_1^3]; \sigma_1^3, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I_n^3]; \sigma_n^3 \vdash \tau : \text{Nat}\[K_1, K_1] \quad \text{if } t \text{ then } u \text{ else } v : \tau
\end{align*}
\]

Moreover, by the properties of the subtyping equivalence stressed above, by the properties of the universal model and by Lemma 18 we have that each \((t_i, \rho_i) \in \rho\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I^4 + I^3)\)-typable with type \(\sigma_i^4\) and weight \(H_i^4\). So, \(\text{if } t \text{ then } u \text{ else } v, \rho\) is typable with type \(\tau\) and weight

\[
J_2 = L_1 + L_2 + I_1^4 + I_2^4 + \ldots + I_n^4 + I_n^5 + \sum_{I_1 + I_2} H_1^4 + \cdots + \sum_{I_n + I_n} H_n^4
\]

So, clearly I = J_1 + K_2 + K_3 = J_2 + K_3 = J and so the conclusion.

* Consider the case

\[
C = (x_m, ((t_0, \rho_0), \ldots, (t_n, \rho_n)), \xi) \rightarrow (t_m, \rho_m, \xi) = D
\]

By assumption we have that \(C\) is typable with type \(\gamma\) and that \(D\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight I. So, in particular, each \((t_0, \rho_0)\) is typable with some type \(\mu_i\). Moreover, we have that for some \(J_1, K\) and \(\sigma\) we have I = J_1 + K and:

(i) \((t_m, \rho_n)\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(J_1\),

(ii) \(\xi\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-acceptable for type \(\sigma\) and weight \(K\) with type \(\gamma\)

Clearly, for a fresh \(a\) from (i) we have also that \((t_m, \rho_n)\) is \((\phi, a; \Phi, a < I)\)-typable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(J_1\). So, for \(x_m\) we can consider a derivation as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\phi; \Phi; x_1 : [a_1 < I] : \sigma \equiv [a < I] : \sigma \\
\phi; \Phi; K_1 \geq 1; x_1 : [a_1 < I^4] : \sigma_1^3, \ldots, x_n : [a_n < I^4] : \sigma_n^3 \vdash \tau : \text{Nat}[K_1, K_1]
\end{align*}
\]

where \([\sigma_i]\) = \(\mu_i\). Since clearly each \(\Phi, a_i < 0\) is inconsistent, we also have that each \((t_i, \rho_i)\) with \(1 \leq i \leq n\) and \(i \neq m\) is \((\phi, a_i; \Phi, a_i < 0)\)-typable with type \(\sigma_i\) and weight \(0\). So, we have that \((x_m, ((t_0, \rho_0), \ldots, (t_n, \rho_n)))\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with type \(\sigma\) and weight \(H = 0 + 1 + \sum_{n < 1} J_1 = 1 + J_1\). Thus, \(C\) is \((\phi; \Phi)\)-typable with weight \(J = 1 + J_1 + K\) and type \(\gamma\) and so the conclusion follows.

\(\square\)
Relative completeness for programs is a direct consequence of weighted subject expansion:

**Theorem 4 (Relative Completeness for Programs)** Let $t$ be a PCF program such that $t \downarrow^\pi$. Then, there exist two index terms $I$ and $J$ such that $[I]^\pi \leq n$ and $[J]^\pi = m$ and such that the term $t$ is typable in dPCF as $\emptyset; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash_I t : \text{Nat}[T]$. 

**Proof.** By induction on $n$ using the Weighted Subject Expansion Theorem and Lemma 12. □

### 5.3 Uniformization and Relative Completeness for Functions

It is useful to recall that by relative completeness for functions we mean the following: for each PCF term $t$ computing a total function $f$ in time expressed by a function $g$ there exists a type derivation in dPCF whose index terms capture both the extensional functional behaviour $f$ and the intensional property $g$. Anticipating on what follows, and using an intuitive notation, this can be expressed by a typing judgement similar to

$$a; \emptyset; x : \text{Nat}[a] \vdash_{g(a)} t : \text{Nat}[f(a)].$$

In order to show this form of relative completeness, a uniformization result for type derivations needs to be proved.

Suppose that $\{\pi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sufficiently “regular” (i.e. recursively enumerable) family of type derivations such that any $\pi_n$ is mapped by $[\cdot]_T$ to the same PCF type derivation. Uniformization tells us that with the hypothesis above, there is a single type derivation $\pi$ which captures the whole family $\{\pi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. In other words, uniformization is as an extreme form of polymorphism. Note that, for instance, uniformization does not hold in intersection types, where uniform typing permits only to define small classes of functions [Lei90, BLPS99, BPS03].

More formally, a family $\{\pi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of type derivations is said to be recursively enumerable if there is a computable function $f$ which, on input $n$, returns (an encoding of) $\pi_n$. Similarly, recursively enumerable families of index terms, types and modal types can be defined.

Before embarking on the proof of uniformization for type derivations, it makes sense to prove the same result for index terms and types, respectively.

**Lemma 20 (Uniformizing Index Terms)** Suppose that:

1. $\{I_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is recursively enumerable, where for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $I_n$ is an index term on a signature $\Sigma_I$;
2. There is a finite set of variables $\phi = a_1, \ldots, a_m$ such that any variables appearing in any $I_n$ is in $\phi$

Then there is a term $I$ on the signature $\Sigma_I$ such that $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^\Sigma_I I[n/a] \simeq I_n$ for every $n$.

**Proof.** Consider the function $f : \mathbb{N}^{m+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ defined as follows:

$$(x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_m) \mapsto [I_{x_0}]_{\Sigma_{x_0}}[a_1 \leftarrow x_1, \ldots, a_n \leftarrow x_m]$$

An algorithm computing $f$ can be defined as follows:

- From $x_0$, compute $I_{x_0}$. Again, this can be done effectively.
- Evaluate $I_{x_0}$ where the variables $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ takes values $x_1, \ldots, x_m$, respectively.

In other words, $f$ is computable. Thus, the existence of a term $I$ like the one required is a consequence of the universality of the equational program $\Sigma_I$. □

**Lemma 21 (Uniformizing Types and Modal Types)** Suppose that $\{\pi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is recursively enumerable and that:

1. for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\pi_n : \phi; \Phi_n \vdash^\Sigma \sigma_n \downarrow$;
2. for every $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $[\sigma_n] = [\sigma_m]$;
3. every $\Phi_n$ have the form $I^n_1 \leq J^n_1, \ldots, I^n_m \leq J^n_m$, where $m$ does not depend on $n$.

Then there is one type $\sigma$ and one derivation $\pi$ such that:

1. $\pi : \phi, a; \Phi \vdash^\Sigma \sigma \downarrow$;
2. $\Phi = I_1 \leq J_1, \ldots, I_m \leq J_m$
3. for every $1 \leq p \leq m$, both $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^{I_p} I_p[n/a] \simeq I_p^n$ and $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^{J_p} J_p[n/a] \simeq J_p^n$.
4. for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, it holds that $\phi; \Phi \vdash^{I_n} \sigma[n/a] \equiv \sigma_n$.

Moreover, the same statement holds for modal types.

**Proof.** The proof goes by induction on the structure of the type $[\sigma_0]$ and of the modal type $[\lambda_0]$. An essential ingredient in the proof is, of course, Lemma 20. \(\square\)

**Lemma 22** 1. If for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ it holds that $\phi; \Phi \vdash^{I_n} I_n[n/a] \simeq J_n[n/a]$, then $\phi, a; \Phi \vdash^{I} I \equiv J$.
2. If for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ it holds that $\phi; \Phi \vdash^{I_n} I_n[n/a] = J_n[n/a]$, then $\phi, a; \Phi \vdash^{I} I = J$.
3. If for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ it holds that $\phi; \Phi \vdash^{I_n} \sigma[n/a] \equiv \tau[n/a]$, then $\phi, a; \Phi \vdash^{I_n} \sigma \equiv \tau$.

**Lemma 23 (Uniformizing Type Derivations)** Suppose $\{\pi_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ recursively enumerable, and that:
1. for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\pi_n : \phi; \Phi_n; \Gamma_n \vdash^{I_n} t : \tau_n$;
2. for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\Phi_n = J^n_1 \leq K^n_1, \ldots, J^n_m \leq K^n_m$ where $m$ does not depend on $n$;
3. for every $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, $[\Gamma^n_n] = [\Gamma^n_m]$;
4. for every $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, $[\pi_n] = [\pi_m]$.

Then there is a type derivation $\pi$ such that:
1. $\pi = J_1 \leq K_1, \ldots, K_m \leq \mathbb{N}$ where $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^{I_n} I_n[n/a] \simeq J^n_n$ and $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^{I_n} K_n[n/a] \simeq K^n_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for every $1 \leq p \leq m$.
2. $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^{I_n} \sigma[n/a] \equiv \sigma_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
3. $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^{I_n} \Gamma^n[n/a] \equiv \Gamma^n_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
4. $\phi; \emptyset \vdash^{I_n} I^n[n/a] = I^n_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

**Proof.** The proof goes by induction on the structure of $t$. Some interesting cases:
- If $t$ is a variable $x$, then the type derivations $\pi_n$ all have the following shape:

$$\frac{\phi; \Phi_n \vdash^{I_n} [a < K_n] \cdot \sigma_n \equiv [a < 1] \cdot \tau_n}{\phi; \Phi_n; \Gamma_n, x : [a < K_n] \cdot \sigma_n \vdash^{I_n} x : \tau_n[0/a]} \quad V$$

By the hypothesis 2. and by Lemma 20, all the $\Phi_n$ can be made uniform into a single $\Phi$ with the desired properties. Also by Lemma 20, all the $J_n$ can be made uniform into a single $J$. The same is true for the $\Gamma_n$, using hypothesis 3 and Lemma 21. Now, observe that all the $[a < K_n] \cdot \sigma_n$ have the same PCF skeleton. By Lemma 21, they can be made uniform into a single modal type $[a < K] \cdot \sigma$. The same for $[a < 1] \cdot \tau_n$. By Lemma 22, we obtain that

$$\phi, b; \Phi \vdash^{I} [a < K] \cdot \sigma \equiv [a < 1] \cdot \tau$$

since $\phi; \Phi \vdash^{I_n} \sigma[n/a] \equiv \sigma_n$. We can then conclude that

$$\frac{\phi, b; \Phi \vdash^{I} [a < K] \cdot \sigma \equiv [a < 1] \cdot \tau}{\phi, b; \Phi; \Gamma, x : [a < K] \cdot \sigma \vdash^{I} x : \tau[0/a]} \quad V$$

This concludes the proof. \(\square\)

Uniformization is the key to prove relative completeness for functions from relative completeness for programs:

**Theorem 5 (Relative Completeness for Functions)** Suppose that $t$ is a PCF term such that $t : \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}$. Moreover, suppose that there are two (total and computable) functions $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that $t \equiv g[n] \equiv f(n)$. Then there are terms $I, J, K$ with $[I + J] \leq g$ and $[K] = f$, such that

$$a; \emptyset \vdash^{I} t : [b < J] \cdot \text{Nat}[a] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[K].$$
Proof. A consequence of relative completeness for programs (Theorem 4) and Lemma 23. Indeed, a type derivation for \( a; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash t : [b < J] \cdot \text{Nat}[a] \rightarrow \text{Nat}[K] \) can be obtained simply by uniformizing all type derivations \( \pi_n \) for programs in the form \( \tau_n \). In turn, those type derivations can be built effectively by way of subject expansion.

6 On the Undecidability of Type Checking

As we have seen in the last two sections, \( \text{dℓPCF} \) is not only sound, but complete: all true typing judgements involving programs can be derived, and this can be indeed lifted to first-order functions, as explained in Section 5.3.

There is a price to pay, however. Checking a type derivation for correctness is undecidable in general, simply because it can rely on semantic assumptions in the form of inequalities between index terms, or on subtyping judgements, which themselves rely on the properties of the underlying equational program \( \mathcal{E} \). If \( \mathcal{E} \) is sufficiently involved, e.g. if we work with \( \mathcal{U} \), there is no hope to find a decidable complete type checking procedure. In this sense, \( \text{dℓPCF} \) is a non-standard type system.

Indeed, \( \text{dℓPCF} \) is not actually a type system, but rather a framework in which various distinct type systems can be defined. Concrete type systems can be developed along two axis: on the one hand by concretely instantiating \( \mathcal{E} \), on the other by choosing specific and sound formal systems for the verification of semantic assumptions. This way sound and possibly decidable type systems can be derived. Even if completeness can only be achieved if \( \mathcal{E} \) is universal, soundness holds for every equational program \( \mathcal{E} \). Choosing a simple equational program \( \mathcal{E} \) results in a (probably incomplete) type system for which the problem of checking the inequalities can be much easier, if not decidable. And even if \( \mathcal{E} \) remains universal, assumptions could be checked using techniques such as abstract interpretation or theorem proving.

By the way, the just described problem is not peculiar to \( \text{dℓPCF} \). Unsurprisingly, program logics have the same problem, since the rule

\[
\frac{p \Rightarrow r \quad \{r\} P\{s\} \quad s \Rightarrow q}{\{p\} P\{q\}}
\]

is part of most relatively complete Hoare-Floyd logics and, of course, the premises \( p \Rightarrow r \) and \( s \Rightarrow q \) have to be taken semantically for completeness to hold.

7 \( \text{dℓPCF} \) and Implicit Computational Complexity

One of the original motivations for the studies which lead to the definition of \( \text{dℓPCF} \) came from Implicit Computational Complexity. There, one aims at giving characterizations of complexity classes which can often be turned into type systems or static analysis methodologies for the verification of resource usage of programs. Historically [Hof00, Mar00], what prevented most ICC techniques to find concrete applications along this line was their poor expressive power: the class of programs which can be recognized as being efficient by (tools derived from) ICC systems is often very small and does not include programs corresponding to natural, well-known algorithms. This is true despite the fact that ICC systems are extensionally complete — they capture complexity classes seen as classes of functions.

The kind of intensional completeness enjoyed by \( \text{dℓPCF} \) is much stronger: all PCF programs with a certain complexity can be proved to be so by deriving a typing judgement for them.

Of course, \( \text{dℓPCF} \) is not at all an implicit system: bounds appear everywhere! On the other hand, \( \text{dℓPCF} \) allows to analyze the time complexity of higher-order functional programs directly, without translating them into low level programs. In other words, \( \text{dℓPCF} \) can be viewed as an abstract framework where to experiment new implicit computational complexity techniques.
8 Related Work

Other type systems can be proved to satisfy completeness properties similar to the ones enjoyed by $d\ell$PCF.

The first example that comes to mind is the one of intersection types. In intersection type disciplines, the class of strongly and weakly normalizable lambda terms can be captured [DCGdl98]. Recently, these results have been refined in such a way that the actual complexity of reduction of the underlying term can be read from its type derivation [dC09, BL11]. What intersection types lack is the possibility to analyze the behaviour of a functional term in one single type derivation — all function calls must be typed separately [Lei90, BLPS99, BPS03]. This is in contrast with Theorem 5 which gives a unique type derivation for every PCF program computing a total function on the natural numbers.

Another example of type theories which enjoy completeness properties are refinement type theories [FP91], as shown in [Den98]. Completeness, however, only holds in a logical sense: any property which is true in all Henkin models can be captured by refinement types. The kind of completeness we obtain here is clearly more operational: the result of evaluating a program and the time complexity of the process can both be read off from its type.

As already mentioned in the Introduction, linear logic has been a great source of inspiration for the authors. Actually, it is not a coincidence that linear logic was a key ingredient in the development of one of the earliest fully-abstract game models for PCF. Indeed, $d\ell$PCF can be seen as a way to internalize history-free game semantics [AJM00] into a type system. And already BLL and QBAL, both precursors of $d\ell$PCF, have been designed being greatly inspired by the geometry of interaction. $d\ell$PCF is a way to study the extreme consequences of this idea, when bounds are not only polynomials but arbitrary first-order total functions on natural numbers.

References


