Principal Typings in a Restricted Intersection Type System for Beta Normal Forms with de Bruijn Indices

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The λ -calculus with de Bruijn indices assembles each α -class of λ -terms in a unique term, using indices instead of variable names. Intersection types provide finitary type polymorphism and can characterise normalisable λ -terms through the property that a term is normalisable if and only if it is typeable. To be closer to computations and to simplify the formalisation of the atomic operations involved in β -contractions, several calculi of explicit substitution were developed mostly with de Bruijn indices. Versions of explicit substitutions calculi without types and with simple type systems are well investigated in contrast to versions with more elaborate type systems such as intersection types. In a previous work, we introduced a de Bruijn version of the λ -calculus with an intersection type system and proved that it preserves subject reduction, a basic property of type systems. In this paper a version with de Bruijn indices of an intersection type system originally introduced to characterise principal typings for β -normal forms is presented. We present the characterisation in this new system and the corresponding versions for the type inference and the reconstruction of normal forms from principal typings algorithms. We briefly discuss the failure of the subject reduction property and some possible solutions for it.

1 Introduction

The λ -calculus à la de Bruijn [6] was introduced by the Dutch mathematician N.G. de Bruijn in the context of the project Automath [24] and has been adopted for several calculi of explicit substitutions ever since (e.g. [7, 1, 18]). Term variables in the λ -calculus à la de Bruijn are represented by indices instead of names, assembling each α -class of terms in the λ -calculus [5] in a unique term with de Bruijn indices, thus turning it more "machine-friendly" than its counterpart. Calculi with de Bruijn indices have been investigated for both type free and simply typed versions. However, to the best of our knowledge, apart from [19], there is no work on using de Bruijn indices with more elaborate type systems such as intersection type systems.

Intersection types were introduced to provide a characterisation of the strongly normalising λ -terms [10, 11, 25]. In programming, the intersection type discipline is of interest because λ -terms corresponding to correct programs not typeable in the standard Curry type assignment system [13], or in extensions allowing some sort of polymorphism as in ML [23], are typeable with intersection types. In [31] an intersection type system for the λ -calculus with de Bruijn indices was introduced, based on the type system given in [16], and proved to satisfy the subject reduction property (SR for short); that is the property of preserving types under β -reduction: whenever $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma$ and $M \beta$ -reduces into $N, \Gamma \vdash N : \sigma$.

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A relevant problem in type theory is whether the system has principal typings (PT for short), which means that for any typeable term M there is a type judgement $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$ representing all possible typings (Γ', τ') of M in this system. Expansion variables are an important process for calculating PT [8]. Since [17] shows that a typing system similar to that of [31] would become incomplete if extended with expansion variables, we did not study the PT property for the system of [31]. Instead, we consider in this paper a restricted intersection type system for which we are able to establish the PT property for β -normal forms (β -nf for short). The concept of a most general typing is usually linked to syntactic operations and they vary from system to system. For example, the operations to obtain one typing from another in simply typed systems are *weakening* and *type substitutions*, mapping type variables to types, while in an intersection type system *expansion* is performed to obtain intersection types replicating a simple type through some specific rules. In [32] J. Wells introduced a system-independent definition of PT and proved that it was the correct generalisation of well known system-dependent definitions such as Hindley's PT for simple type systems [15]. The notion of principal typings has been studied for some intersection type systems ([12], [26], [27], [3], [20]) and in [12, 26] it was proved that PT for some term's β -nf is principal for the term itself. Partial PT algorithms were proposed in [27, 20]. In [8] S. Carlier and Wells presented the exact correspondence between the inference mechanism for their intersection type system and the β -reduction. They introduce the *expansion variables*, integrating expansion operations into the type system (see [9]).

We present in this paper a de Bruijn version of the intersection type system originally introduced in [28], with the purpose of characterising the syntactic structure of PT for β -nfs. E. Sayag and M. Mauny intended to develop a system where, similarly to simply typed systems, the definition of PT only depends on type substitutions and, as a consequence, their typing system in [28] does not have SR. Although SR is the most basic property and should be satisfied by any typing system, the system infers types to all β -nfs and, because it is a restriction of more complex and well studied systems, is a reasonable way to characterise PT for intersection type systems. In fact, the system in [28] is a proper restriction of some systems presented in [3].

Below, we give some definitions and properties for the untyped λ -calculus with de Bruijn indices, as in [31]. We introduce the type system in Section 2, where some properties are stated and counterexamples for some other properties, such as SR, are presented. The type inference algorithm introduced here, its soundness and completeness are at the end of Section 2. The characterisation of PT for β -nfs and the reconstruction algorithm are presented in Section 3. Both algorithms introduced here are similar to the ones presented in [28].

1.1 λ -calculus with de Bruijn indices

Definition 1. The set of terms Λ_{dB} of the λ_{dB} -calculus, the λ -calculus with de Bruijn indices, is defined inductively by: $M, N \in \Lambda_{dB} ::= \underline{n} | ((MN)) | \lambda M$ where $n \in \mathbb{N}^* = \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$.

Definition 2. FI(M), the set of free indices of $M \in \Lambda_{dB}$, is defined by: $FI(\underline{n}) = \{\underline{n}\}$ $FI((M_1 M_2)) = FI(M_1) \cup FI(M_2)$ $FI(\lambda.M) = \{\underline{n-1}, \forall \underline{n} \in FI(M), n > 1\}$

The free indices correspond to the notion of free variables in the λ -calculus with names, hence M is called closed when $FI(M) = \emptyset$. The greatest value of FI(M) is denoted by sup(M). In [31] we give the formal definitions of those concepts. Following, a lemma stating properties about *sup* related with the structure of terms.

Lemma 1 ([31]). *1.* $sup((M_1 M_2)) = max(sup(M_1), sup(M_2)).$

2. If sup(M) = 0, then $sup(\lambda . M) = 0$. Otherwise, $sup(\lambda . M) = sup(M) - 1$.

Terms like $((...(M_1 M_2) M_3)...) M_n)$ are written as $(M_1 M_2 \cdots M_n)$, as usual. The β -contraction definition in this notation needs a mechanism which detects and updates free indices of terms. Intuitively, the **lift** of *M*, denoted by M^+ , corresponds to an increment by 1 of all free indices occurring in *M*. Thus, we are able to present the definition of the substitution used by β -contractions, similarly to [2].

Definition 3. Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. The β -substitution for free occurrences of \underline{n} in $M \in \Lambda_{dB}$ by term N, denoted as $\{\underline{n}/N\}M$, is defined inductively by (m-1) if m > n

$$1. \{\underline{n}/N\}(M_1 M_2) = (\{\underline{n}/N\}M_1 \{\underline{n}/N\}M_2) \quad 3. \{\underline{n}/N\}\underline{m} = \begin{cases} \underline{m-1}, \ ij \ m > n \\ N, \ if \ m = n \\ \underline{n}, \ if \ m < n \end{cases}$$
$$2. \{\underline{n}/N\}(\lambda.M_1) = \lambda.\{n+1/N^+\}M_1$$

Observe that in item 2 of Definition 3, the lift operator is used to avoid captures of free indices in *N*. We present the β -contraction as defined in [2].

Definition 4. β *-contraction in the* λ_{dB} *-calculus is defined by* $(\lambda . MN) \rightarrow_{\beta} \{\underline{1}/N\}M$.

Notice that item 3 in Definition 3 is the mechanism which does the substitution and updates the free indices in M as consequence of the lead abstractor elimination. The β -reduction is defined to be the λ -compatible closure of the β -contraction defined above. A term is in β -normal form, β -nf for short, if there is no possible β -reduction.

Lemma 2. A term $N \in \Lambda_{dB}$ is a β -nf iff N is one of the following :

- $N \equiv \underline{n}$, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$.
- $N \equiv \lambda . N'$ and N' is a β -nf.
- $N \equiv \underline{n}N_1 \cdots N_m$, for some $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and $\forall 1 \leq j \leq m$, N_j is a β -nf.

Proof. Necessity proof is straightforward from β -nf definition. *Sufficiency* proof is by induction on the structure of $N \in \Lambda_{dB}$.

2 The type system and properties

Definition 5. 1. Let \mathscr{A} be a denumerably infinite set of type variables and let α, β range over \mathscr{A} .

2. The set \mathcal{T} of restricted intersection types is defined by:

 $\tau, \sigma \in \mathscr{T} ::= \mathscr{A} \,|\, \mathscr{U} \to \mathscr{T} \qquad u \in \mathscr{U} ::= \omega \,|\, \mathscr{U} \land \mathscr{U} \,|\, \mathscr{T}$

Types are quotiented by taking \wedge to be commutative, associative and to have ω as the neutral element.

3. Contexts are ordered lists of $u \in \mathcal{U}$, defined by: $\Gamma ::= nil | u.\Gamma$

 Γ_i denotes the *i*-th element of Γ and $|\Gamma|$ denotes the length of Γ .

 $\omega^{\underline{n}}$ denotes the sequence $\omega.\omega....\omega$ of length *n* and let $\omega^{\underline{0}}.\Gamma = \Gamma$.

The extension of \wedge to contexts is done by taking nil as the neutral element and $(u_1.\Gamma) \wedge (u_2.\Delta) = (u_1 \wedge u_2).(\Gamma \wedge \Delta)$. Hence, \wedge is commutative and associative on contexts.

4. Type substitution maps type variables to types. Given a type substitution s: A → T, the corresponding extensions for elements in U and for contexts are straightforward. The domain of a substitution s is defined by Dom(s) = {α | s(α) ≠ α} and let [α/σ] denote the substitution s such that Dom(s) = {α}. For two substitutions s₁ and s₂ with disjoint domains, let s₁ + s₂ be defined by

$$(s_1+s_2)(\alpha) \begin{cases} s_i(\alpha) & \text{if } \alpha \in Dom(s_i), \text{for } i \in \{1,2\} \\ \alpha & \text{if } \alpha \notin Dom(s_1) \cup Dom(s_2) \end{cases}$$

5. TV(u) is the set of type variables occurring in $u \in \mathcal{U}$. Extension to contexts is straightforward.

The set ${\mathscr T}$ defined here is equivalent to the one defined in [28].

Lemma 3. 1. If $u \in \mathcal{U}$, then $u = \omega$ or $u = \wedge_{i=1}^{n} \tau_i$ where n > 0 and $\forall 1 \le i \le n, \tau_i \in \mathcal{T}$.

2. If $\tau \in \mathscr{T}$, then $\tau = \alpha$, $\tau = \omega \rightarrow \sigma$ or $\tau = \wedge_{i=1}^{n} \tau_{i} \rightarrow \sigma$, where n > 0 and $\sigma, \tau_{1}, \ldots, \tau_{n} \in \mathscr{T}$.

Proof. 1. By induction on $u \in \mathcal{U}$.

2. By induction on $\tau \in \mathscr{T}$ and Lemma 3.1.

Definition 6. 1. The typing rules for system SM are given as follows:

$$\frac{1:\langle \tau.nil \vdash \tau \rangle}{\underline{1:}\langle \tau.nil \vdash \tau \rangle} \text{ var } \qquad \frac{M:\langle u.\Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle}{\lambda.M:\langle \Gamma \vdash u \to \tau \rangle} \to_{i} \\
\frac{\underline{n:}\langle \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle}{\underline{n+1}:\langle \omega.\Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle} \text{ varn } \qquad \frac{M:\langle nil \vdash \tau \rangle}{\lambda.M:\langle nil \vdash \omega \to \tau \rangle} \to_{i}' \\
\frac{\underline{M_{1:}\langle \Gamma \vdash \omega \to \tau \rangle}}{(M_{1}M_{2}):\langle \Gamma \land \Delta \vdash \tau \rangle} \to_{e}' \\
\frac{\underline{M_{1:}\langle \Gamma \vdash \wedge_{i=1}^{n}\sigma_{i} \to \tau \rangle}}{(M_{1}M_{2}):\langle \Gamma \land \Delta \vdash \tau \rangle} \to_{e}' \\
\frac{M_{1:}\langle \Gamma \vdash \wedge_{i=1}^{n}\sigma_{i} \to \tau \rangle}{(M_{1}M_{2}):\langle \Gamma \land \Delta^{1} \land \cdots \land \Delta^{n} \vdash \tau \rangle} \to_{e}'$$

2. System SM_r is obtained from system SM, replacing rule var by rule

$$\underline{1:} \langle \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_n \to \alpha.nil \vdash \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_n \to \alpha \rangle (n \ge 0) \quad \text{var}_r$$

Type judgements will be of the form $M : \langle \Gamma \vdash_s \tau \rangle$, meaning that term M has type τ in system S provided Γ for FI(M). Briefly, M has type τ with Γ in S or (Γ, τ) is a typing of M in S. The S is omitted whenever its is clear to which system we are referring to.

Note that *SM* is a proper extension of SM_r , hence properties stated for the system *SM* are also true for the system SM_r . The following lemma states that *SM* is relevant in the sense of [14].

Lemma 4. If $M: \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM} \tau \rangle$, then $|\Gamma| = sup(M)$ and $\forall 1 \le i \le |\Gamma|$, $\Gamma_i \ne \omega$ iff $\underline{i} \in FI(M)$.

Proof. By induction on the derivation $M: \langle \Gamma \vdash u \rangle$.

- If $\underline{1}: \langle \tau.nil \vdash \tau \rangle$, then $|\Gamma| = 1 = sup(\underline{1})$. Note that $FI(\underline{1}) = \{\underline{1}\}$ and $\Gamma_1 = \tau$.
- If $\underline{\underline{n}: \langle \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle}_{\underline{n+1}: \langle \omega.\Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle}$, then by IH one has $|\Gamma| = sup(\underline{n}) = n$, $\Gamma_n \neq \omega$ and $\forall 1 \leq i < n$, $\Gamma_i = \omega$. Thus, $|\omega.\Gamma| = 1 + |\Gamma| = n+1 = sup(\underline{n+1})$, $(\omega.\Gamma)_{n+1} = \Gamma_n \neq \omega$, $(\omega.\Gamma)_1 = \omega$ and $\forall 1 \leq i < n$, $(\omega.\Gamma)_{i+1} = \Gamma_i = \omega$.
- Let $\frac{M: \langle u.\Gamma \vdash \sigma \rangle}{\lambda.M: \langle \Gamma \vdash u \to \sigma \rangle}$. By IH, $|u.\Gamma| = sup(M)$ and $\forall 0 \le i \le sup(M) 1$, $(u.\Gamma)_{i+1} \ne \omega$ iff $\underline{i+1} \in FI(M)$. Hence, $sup(M) = 1 + |\Gamma| > 0$ and, by Lemma 1.2, $sup(\lambda.M) = sup(M) 1 = |\Gamma|$. By Definition 2, $\forall 1 \le i \le sup(\lambda.M)$, $\underline{i} \in FI(\lambda.M)$ iff $\underline{i+1} \in FI(M)$, thus, $(u.\Gamma)_{i+1} = \Gamma_i \ne \omega$ iff $\underline{i} \in FI(\lambda.M)$.
- Let $\frac{M:\langle nil \vdash \sigma \rangle}{\lambda.M:\langle nil \vdash \omega \to \sigma \rangle}$. By IH one has |nil| = sup(M) = 0. Thus, by Lemma 1.2, $sup(\lambda.M) = sup(M) = |nil|$. Note that $FI(M) = FI(\lambda.M) = \emptyset$.

- Let $\frac{M_1: \langle \Gamma \vdash \omega \to \tau \rangle}{(M_1 M_2): \langle \Gamma \land \Delta \vdash \tau \rangle}$. By IH, $|\Gamma| = sup(M_1)$, $\forall 1 \le i \le |\Gamma|$ one has $\Gamma_i \neq \omega$ iff $\underline{i} \in FI(M_1)$, $|\Delta| = sup(M_2)$ and $\forall 1 \le j \le |\Delta|$ one has $\Delta_j \neq \omega$ iff $\underline{j} \in FI(M_2)$. By Lemma 1.1 one has $sup((M_1 M_2)) = max(sup(M_1), sup(M_2)) = max(|\Gamma|, |\Delta|) = |\Gamma \land \Delta|$. Let $1 \le l \le |\Gamma \land \Delta|$ and suppose w.l.o.g. that $l \le |\Gamma|, |\Delta|$. Thus, $(\Gamma \land \Delta)_l = \Gamma_l \land \Delta_l \neq \omega$ iff $\Gamma_l \neq \omega$ or $\Delta_l \neq \omega$ iff $\underline{l} \in FI(M_1) \cup FI(M_2) = FI((M_1 M_2))$.
- Let $\frac{M_1: \langle \Gamma \vdash \wedge_{k=1}^n \sigma_k \to \tau \rangle \qquad M_2: \langle \Delta^1 \vdash \sigma_1 \rangle \dots M_2: \langle \Delta^n \vdash \sigma_n \rangle}{(M_1 M_2): \langle \Gamma \land \Delta^1 \land \dots \land \Delta^n \vdash \tau \rangle}.$ By IH, $|\Gamma| = sup(M_1), \forall 1 \le i \le I$ $|\Gamma|$ one has $\Gamma_i \neq \omega$ iff $\underline{i} \in FI(M_1)$ and $\forall 1 \le k \le n, |\Delta^k| = sup(M_2)$ and $\forall 1 \le j \le |\Delta^k|$ one has $\Delta_j^k \neq \omega$ iff $\underline{j} \in FI(M_2)$. Let $\Delta' = \Delta^1 \land \dots \land \Delta^n$. Thus, $|\Delta'| = sup(M_2)$ and $\forall 1 \le j \le |\Delta'|, \Delta'_j \neq \omega$ iff $\underline{j} \in FI(M_2)$. The proof is analogous to the one above.

Note that, by Lemma 4 above, system SM is not only relevant but there is a strict relation between the free indices of terms and the length of contexts in their typings. Following, a generation lemma is presented for typings in SM and some specific for SM_r

Lemma 5 (Generation). *1.* If $\underline{n}: \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM} \tau \rangle$, then $\Gamma_n = \tau$.

- 2. If $\underline{n}: \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM_r} \tau \rangle$, then $\tau = \sigma_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \sigma_k \rightarrow \alpha$ for $k \ge 0$.
- 3. If $\lambda . M : \langle nil \vdash_{SM} \tau \rangle$, then either $\tau = \omega \to \sigma$ and $M : \langle nil \vdash \sigma \rangle$ or $\tau = \wedge_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} \to \sigma$, n > 0, and $M : \langle \wedge_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i}.nil \vdash_{SM} \sigma \rangle$ for some $\sigma, \sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n} \in \mathscr{T}$.
- 4. If $\lambda . M : \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM} \tau \rangle$ and $|\Gamma| > 0$, then $\tau = u \rightarrow \sigma$ for some $u \in \mathscr{U}$ and $\sigma \in \mathscr{T}$, where $M : \langle u.\Gamma \vdash_{SM} \sigma \rangle$.
- 5. If $\underline{n} M_1 \cdots M_m : \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM_r} \tau \rangle$, then $\Gamma = (\omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_m \to \tau \cdot nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m$, $\forall 1 \le i \le m$, $M_i : \langle \Gamma^i \vdash_{SM_r} \sigma_i \rangle$ and $\tau = \sigma_{m+1} \to \cdots \to \sigma_{m+k} \to \alpha$.

Proof. 1. By induction on the derivation $\underline{n}: \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM} \tau \rangle$. Note that $(\omega, \Gamma)_{n+1} = \Gamma_n$.

- 2. By induction on the derivation $\underline{n}: \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM_r} \tau \rangle$.
- 3. By case analysis on the derivation $\lambda . M : \langle nil \vdash_{SM} \tau \rangle$.
- 4. By case analysis on the derivation $\lambda . M : \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM} \tau \rangle$, for $|\Gamma| > 0$.
- 5. By induction on m.

If m = 0, then, by Lemma 5.2, $\tau = \sigma_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \sigma_k \rightarrow \alpha$. Thus, by Lemmas 4 and 5.1, $\Gamma = \omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \tau \cdot nil$.

If m = m' + 1, then by case analysis the last step of the derivation is

$$\frac{\underline{n}\,M_1\cdots M_{m'}:\langle\Gamma\vdash\wedge_{j=1}^l\tau_j\to\tau\rangle}{(\underline{n}\,M_1\cdots M_{m'}\,M_{m'+1}):\langle\Gamma\wedge\Delta^1\wedge\cdots\wedge\Delta^l\vdash\tau\rangle}$$

By IH, $\Gamma = (\omega \frac{n-1}{2}, \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_{m'} \to (\wedge_{j=1}^l \tau_j \to \tau).nil) \wedge \Gamma^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \Gamma^{m'}, \forall 1 \le i \le m', M_i : \langle \Gamma^i \vdash_{SM_r} \sigma_i \rangle$ and $\wedge_{j=1}^l \tau_j \to \tau = \sigma_{m'+1} \to \cdots \to \sigma_{m'+k} \to \alpha$. Therefore, $\tau = \sigma_{m'+2} \to \cdots \to \sigma_{m+k} \to \alpha, l = 1$ and $\tau_1 = \sigma_{m'+1}$. Hence, taking $\Gamma^{m'+1} = \Delta^1$ and $\sigma_{m'+1} = \tau_1$, the result holds.

Following, we will give counterexamples to show that neither subject expansion nor reduction holds. **Example 1.** In order to have the subject expansion property, we need to prove the statement: If $\{\underline{1}/N\}M$: $\langle \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle$ then $((\lambda .M N)): \langle \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle$. Let $M \equiv \lambda .\underline{1}$ and $N \equiv \underline{3}$, hence $\{\underline{1}/\underline{3}\}\lambda .\underline{1} = \lambda .\underline{1}$. We have that, by generation lemmas, $\lambda .\underline{1}: \langle nil \vdash \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rangle$. Thus, $\lambda .\lambda .\underline{1}: \langle nil \vdash \omega \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rangle$ and $\underline{3}: \langle \omega .\omega .\beta .nil \vdash \beta \rangle$, then $(\lambda .\lambda .\underline{1} \ \underline{3}): \langle \omega .\omega .\beta .nil \vdash \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rangle$.

For subject reduction, we need the statement: If $((\lambda . M N)): \langle \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle$ then $\{\underline{1}/N\}M: \langle \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle$. Note that if we take *M* and *N* as in the example above, we have the same problem as before but in the other way round. In other words, we have a restriction on the original context after the β -reduction, since we loose the typing information regarding $N \equiv \underline{3}$.

One possible solution for those problems is to replace rule \rightarrow'_e by $\frac{M: \langle \Gamma \vdash \omega \rightarrow \tau \rangle}{(MN): \langle \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle}$

This approach was originally presented in [29], but a new notion replacing free index should be introduced since we would not have the typing information for all free indices occurring in a term. In [29], and in [30], no notion is presented instead of the usual free variables, which is wrongly used to state things that are not actually true.

The other way to achieve the desired properties is to think about the meaning of the properties itself. Since, by Lemma 4, the system is related to relevant logic (see [14]), the notion of restriction of contexts is an interesting way to talk about subject reduction. This concept was presented in [16] for environments, where environments expansion was also introduced for the sake of subject expansion. Note that this approach is not sufficient to regain subject expansion for system *SM*, since in rule \rightarrow'_e it is required that the term being applied is also typeable.

Even though, any β -nf is typeable with system SM_r . We introduce the type inference algorithm Infer for β -nfs, similarly to [28].

Definition 7 (Type inference algorithm). Let *N* be a β -nf:

```
Infer(N) = 
Case N = <u>n</u>
let <math>\alpha be a fresh type variable
return (\omega^{\underline{n-1}} . \alpha.nil, \alpha)
Case N = \lambda.N'
let (\Gamma', \sigma) = Infer(N')
if (\Gamma' = u.\Gamma) then
return (\Gamma, u \to \sigma)
else
return (nil, \omega \to \sigma)
Case N = (\underline{n}N_1 \cdots N_m)
let (\Gamma^1, \sigma_1) = Infer(N_1)
\vdots
(\Gamma^m, \sigma_m) = Infer(N_m)
\alpha be a fresh type variable
return ((\omega^{\underline{n-1}} . \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_m \to \alpha.nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m, \alpha)
```

Similarly to [28], the notion of *fresh type variables* is used to prove completeness. The freshness of a variable is to guarantee that each time some type variable is picked up from \mathscr{A} it is a new one. Therefore, two non overlapped calls to Infer return pairs with disjoints sets of type variables. Below, a runnig example of how the algorithm is applied is presented.

Example 2. Let $N \equiv \underline{2} \ (\lambda . \underline{1}) \ \underline{1} \ \lambda . (\underline{1} \ \underline{1})$. For $\operatorname{Infer}(N)$, the term N matches the third case, for n = 2. The algorithm is then called recursively as follows

Below, we show how each call is treated by the algorithm.

The case $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda . \underline{1})$ goes down recursively to obtain $\operatorname{Infer}(\underline{1}) = (\alpha_1 . nil, \alpha_1)$ and then one has that $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda . \underline{1}) = (nil, \alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1)$.

The case $\text{Infer}(\underline{1})$ returns $(\alpha_2.nil, \alpha_2)$. Note that we have to take a different type variable from the one used in the previous case.

The case $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda.(\underline{1}\ \underline{1}))$ goes down recursively to return $\operatorname{Infer}(\underline{1}) = (\alpha_3.nil, \alpha_3)$, for the subterm $\underline{1}$ on the right. For a fresh type variable α_4 , one has that $\alpha_3 \to \alpha_4.nil \land \alpha_3.nil = (\alpha_3 \to \alpha_4) \land \alpha_3.nil$. Hence, $\operatorname{Infer}(\underline{1}\ \underline{1}) = ((\alpha_3 \to \alpha_4) \land \alpha_3.nil, \alpha_4)$. Finally, $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda.(\underline{1}\ \underline{1})) = (nil, (\alpha_3 \to \alpha_4) \land \alpha_3 \to \alpha_4)$.

Now, let $\tau = (\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha_1) \rightarrow \alpha_2 \rightarrow ((\alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_4) \land \alpha_3 \rightarrow \alpha_4) \rightarrow \alpha_5$ for the fresh type variable α_5 . One has that $(\omega.\tau) \land nil \land (\alpha_2.nil) \land nil = \alpha_2.\tau.nil$. Therefore, $\text{Infer}(N) = (\alpha_2.\tau.nil, \alpha_5)$.

Theorem 1 (Soundness). If N is a β -nf and $\operatorname{Infer}(N) = (\Gamma, \sigma)$, then $N : \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM_r} \sigma \rangle$.

Proof. By structural induction on *N*.

- If $N \equiv \underline{n}$ then $\operatorname{Infer}(\underline{n}) = (\omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha.nil, \alpha)$. By rule $\operatorname{var}_r, \underline{1}: \langle \alpha.nil \vdash \alpha \rangle$ and, by rule varn applied n-1 times, $\underline{n}: \langle \omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha.nil \vdash \alpha \rangle$.
- Let $N \equiv \lambda . N'$. If $(\Gamma', \sigma) = \text{Infer}(N')$ then, by IH one has $N' : \langle \Gamma' \vdash \sigma \rangle$. Thus, if $\Gamma' = u . \Gamma$ then $\text{Infer}(\lambda . N') = (\Gamma, u \to \sigma)$ and, by rule $\to_i, \lambda . N' : \langle \Gamma \vdash u \to \sigma \rangle$, otherwise one has $\text{Infer}(\lambda . N') = (nil, \omega \to \sigma)$ and, by rule $\to_i', \lambda . N' : \langle nil \vdash \omega \to \sigma \rangle$.
- Let $N \equiv \underline{n}N_1 \cdots N_m$. If $\forall 1 \le i \le m$, $(\Gamma^i, \sigma_i) = \operatorname{Infer}(N_i)$ then, by IH, $\forall 1 \le i \le m$, $N_i : \langle \Gamma^i \vdash \sigma_i \rangle$. Let $\Delta = \omega^{\underline{n-1}} . \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_m \to \alpha.nil$. Hence $\operatorname{Infer}(N) = (\Delta \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m, \alpha)$ for some fresh type variable α . By rule var, and by rule varn n-1-times, $\underline{n} : \langle \Delta \vdash \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_m \to \alpha \rangle$ and, by rule $\to_e m$ -times, $N : \langle \Delta \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m \vdash \alpha \rangle$.

Note that, since the choice of the new type variables is not fixed, Infer is well defined up to the name of type variables.

Corollary 1. If N is a β -nf then N is typeable in system SM_r.

Theorem 2 (Completeness). If $N : \langle \Gamma \vdash_{SM_r} \sigma \rangle$, $N \ a \ \beta$ -nf, then for $(\Gamma', \sigma') = \text{Infer}(N)$ exists a type substitution s such that $s(\Gamma') = \Gamma$ and $s(\sigma') = \sigma$.

Proof. By structural induction on N

- Let $N \equiv \underline{n}$. If $\underline{n}: \langle \Gamma \vdash \sigma \rangle$ then, by Lemmas 4 and 5.1, $\Gamma = \omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \sigma \cdot nil$. One has that $\operatorname{Infer}(\underline{n}) = (\omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha \cdot nil, \alpha)$, then take $s = \lceil \alpha / \sigma \rceil$.
- Let $N \equiv \lambda . N'$ and suppose that $\lambda . N' : \langle \Gamma \vdash \sigma \rangle$.

If $\Gamma = nil$, then by Lemma 5.3 either $\sigma = \omega \to \tau$ and $N' : \langle nil \vdash \tau \rangle$ or $\sigma = \wedge_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{j} \to \tau$ and $N' : \langle \wedge_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{j} \cdot nil \vdash \tau \rangle$. The former, by IH, $\operatorname{Infer}(N') = (\Gamma', \tau')$ and there exists s s.t. $s(\tau') = \tau$ and $s(\Gamma') = nil$, thus $\Gamma' = nil$. Hence, $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda \cdot N') = (nil, \omega \to \tau')$ and $s(\omega \to \tau') = s(\omega) \to s(\tau') = \sigma$. The latter, by IH, $\operatorname{Infer}(N') = (\Gamma', \tau')$ and there exists s s.t. $s(\tau') = \tau$ and $s(\Gamma') = \wedge_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{j} \cdot nil$. Then $\Gamma' = u \cdot nil$ for $s(u) = \wedge_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{j}$, hence $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda \cdot N') = (nil, u \to \tau')$ and $s(u \to \tau') = s(u) \to s(\tau') = \sigma$. Otherwise, by Lemma 5.4, $\sigma = u \to \tau$ and $N' : \langle u \cdot \Gamma \vdash \tau \rangle$. The proof is analogous to the one above.

• Let $N \equiv (\underline{n}N_1 \cdots N_m)$. If $\underline{n}N_1 \cdots N_m$: $\langle \Gamma \vdash \sigma \rangle$ then, by Lemma 5.5, $\forall 1 \leq i \leq m, N_i$: $\langle \Gamma^i \vdash \sigma_i \rangle$ s.t. $\Gamma = (\omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \sigma_1 \to \cdots \to \sigma_m \to \sigma_{.nil}) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m$. By IH, $\forall 1 \leq i \leq m$, Infer $(N_i) = (\Gamma^{i'}, \sigma_i')$ and there is a s_i s.t. $s_i(\sigma_i') = \sigma_i$ and $s_i(\Gamma^{i'}) = \Gamma^i$. One has that Infer $(N) = ((\omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \sigma_1' \to \cdots \to \sigma_m' \to \alpha_{.nil}) \land \Gamma^{1'} \land \cdots \land \Gamma^{m'}, \alpha)$, for some fresh type variable α . The domain of each s_i is compounded by the type variables returned by each call of Infer for the corresponding N_i , consequently they are disjoint. Thus, for $s = [\alpha/\sigma] + s_1 + \cdots + s_m$ the result holds.

Hence, the pair returned by Infer for some β -nf N is a most general typing of N is SM_r . Note that these typings are unique up to renaming of type variables.

Corollary 2. If N is a β -nf, then $(\Gamma, \sigma) = \text{Infer}(N)$ is a principal typing of N in SM_r.

3 Characterisation of principal typings

Following, we give some characterisation of principal typings for β -nfs, analogue to [28]. To begin with, we introduce proper subsets of \mathscr{T} and \mathscr{U} containing the pairs returned by Infer.

Definition 8. 1. Let \mathcal{T}_C , \mathcal{T}_{NF} and \mathcal{U}_C be defined by:

 $\rho \in \mathscr{T}_C ::= \mathscr{A} \mid \mathscr{T}_{NF} \to \mathscr{T}_C \qquad \varphi \in \mathscr{T}_{NF} ::= \mathscr{A} \mid \mathscr{U}_C \to \mathscr{T}_{NF} \qquad v \in \mathscr{U}_C ::= \omega \mid \mathscr{U}_C \land \mathscr{U}_C \mid \mathscr{T}_C$

2. Let \mathscr{C} be the set of contexts $\Gamma ::= nil | v.\Gamma$ such that $v \in \mathscr{U}_{C}$. Observe that \mathscr{C} is closed under \wedge .

Lemma 6. If $Infer(N) = (\Gamma, \sigma)$, $N \ a \ \beta$ -nf, then $(\Gamma, \sigma) \in \mathscr{C} \times \mathscr{T}_{NF}$.

Proof. By structural induction on *N*.

Definition 9. Let Im(Infer) be defined as the set of pairs $(\Gamma, \sigma) = Infer(N)$ for some β -nf N.

Corollary 3. $Im(Infer) \subseteq \mathscr{C} \times \mathscr{T}_{NF}$.

We use the usual notion of **positive** and **negative** occurrences of type variables and of **final occurrences** for elements $u \in \mathcal{U}$ (see [21]). For contexts, the positive and negative occurrences are the respective occurrences in the types forming the contexts' sequences.

Definition 10. Let $\Gamma \in \mathscr{C}$ and $\varphi \in \mathscr{T}_{NF}$. The \mathscr{C} -types T are defined by: $T ::= \Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi | \Delta \Rightarrow s.t. |\Delta| > 0$

Note that, for any β -nf N, Infer(N) has a unique corresponding \mathscr{C} -type T^N . The corresponding A-types in [28] are defined by taking the set of multisets associated to an environment and transforming them in a single multiset used on the left hand of \Rightarrow . Thus, for an environment A and type $\tau, \overline{A} \Rightarrow \tau$ is the A-type with \overline{A} being the multiset obtained from A. On Definition 10 above the sequential structure of contexts are preserved.

Definition 11. Let $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ be a \mathscr{C} -type, T' is held in T if $T' = \Gamma' \Rightarrow or \Gamma' \Rightarrow \varphi$, such that $\Gamma = \Gamma' \land \Delta$ for $\Gamma' \neq \omega^{\underline{n}}$ and some context Δ . If $T' \neq T$ then T' is strictly held in T.

Observe that on Definition 11 above we have that Γ' can be *nil* for $T' = \Gamma' \Rightarrow \varphi$ and $\Delta = \omega^n$ for any $n \leq |\Gamma|$ when $\Gamma' = \Gamma$.

Definition 12. The set L(T) of the **left subtypes** for some C-type T is defined by structural induction:

-
$$L(\Gamma \Rightarrow) = L(\Gamma).$$

-
$$L(\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi) = L(\Gamma) \cup L(\varphi)$$

- $L(v,\Gamma) = \{v\} \cup L(\Gamma)$ if $v \neq \omega$ and $L(\Gamma)$ otherwise.
- $L(nil) = \emptyset$.
- $L(v \rightarrow \phi) = \{v\} \cup L(\phi) \text{ if } v \neq \omega \text{ and } L(\phi) \text{ otherwise.}$
- $L(\alpha) = \emptyset$.

The notion of sign of occurrences for type variable are straightforward extended to \mathscr{C} -types, where the polarity changes on the left side of \Rightarrow . We have that $TV(\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi) = TV(\Gamma) \cup TV(\varphi)$.

Definition 13. A C-type T is closed if each $\alpha \in TV(T)$ has exactly one positive and one negative occurrences in T.

Lemma 7. *1.* $v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is closed iff $\Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$ is closed.

- 2. $nil \Rightarrow \varphi$ is closed iff $nil \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is closed.
- 3. If $\forall 1 \leq i \leq m$, $T_i = \Gamma^i \Rightarrow \varphi_i$ is closed and $TV(T_i)$ are pairwise disjoint then, for any fresh type variable α , $(\omega^{n-1}.\varphi_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \varphi_m \rightarrow \alpha.nil) \wedge \Gamma^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \Gamma^m \Rightarrow \alpha$ is closed.
- *Proof.* 1. Let $T = v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ and $T' = \Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$. Note that TV(T) = TV(T') and that the sign for type variable occurrences in v for both T and T' are exactly the same.
 - 2. analogous to the proof above.
 - 3. Let $T = (\omega^{n-1}.\varphi_1 \to \cdots \to \varphi_m \to \alpha.nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m \Rightarrow \alpha$. Since $TV(T_i)$ are pairwise disjoint, $TV(T) = \bigcup_{i=1}^m TV(T_i) \cup \{\alpha\}$ and *T* has exactly two occurrences of each type variable. Note that $\forall 1 \le i \le m$ the type variable occurrences in Γ^i and φ_i have exactly the same sign on both T_i and *T* and that α has one positive and one negative occurrence in *T*. Hence, *T* is closed.

Definition 14. A \mathscr{C} -type $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is **finally closed**, f.c. for short, if the final occurrence of φ is also the final occurrence of a type in L(T).

Lemma 8. 1. $v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is finally closed iff $\Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$ is finally closed.

- 2. $nil \Rightarrow \varphi$ is finally closed iff $nil \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is finally closed.
- *Proof.* 1. Let $T = v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ and $T' = \Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$. The final occurrence of $v \rightarrow \varphi$ is the same as of φ . If $v \neq \omega$, by Definition 12, $L(T) = L(v.\Gamma) \cup L(\varphi) = \{v\} \cup L(\Gamma) \cup L(\varphi) = L(\Gamma) \cup L(v \rightarrow \varphi) = L(T')$. Otherwise, $L(T) = L(\omega.\Gamma) \cup L(\varphi) = L(\Gamma) \cup L(\varphi) = L(\Gamma) \cup L(\omega \rightarrow \varphi) = L(T')$. Hence, T is f.c. iff T' is f.c.
 - 2. analogous to the proof above.

Definition 15. A C-type T is minimally closed, m.c. for short, if there is no closed T' strictly held in T.

Lemma 9. 1. If $v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is m.c. for $v \neq \omega$, then $\Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$ is m.c.

- 2. $\omega.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is m.c. iff $\Gamma \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is m.c.
- 3. $nil \Rightarrow \varphi$ is m.c. iff $nil \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is m.c.
- 4. If $\forall 1 \leq i \leq m$, $T_i = \Gamma^i \Rightarrow \varphi_i$ is m.c. and $TV(T_i)$ are pairwise disjoint then, for any fresh type variable α , $T = (\omega^{n-1}.\varphi_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \varphi_m \rightarrow \alpha.nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m \Rightarrow \alpha$ is m.c..
- *Proof.* 1. Let $T = v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ be m.c. for $v \neq \omega$ and let $T' = \Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$. Let T'' be strictly held in T'. If $T'' = \Gamma' \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$ then $T''' = v.\Gamma' \Rightarrow \varphi$ is strictly held in T. By Lemma 7.1, T'' is closed iff T''' is closed. Thus, since T is m.c., T'' cannot be closed. If $T'' = \Gamma' \Rightarrow$ then one has similarly that T'' cannot be closed. Hence, T' is m.c..
 - 2. Let *T* be strictly held in $\omega.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$. One has that $T = \omega.\Gamma' \Rightarrow \varphi$ is strictly held in $\omega.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ iff $T' = \Gamma' \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is strictly held in $\Gamma \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$. There is a corresponding *T'* for $T = nil \Rightarrow \varphi$ and for $T = \omega.\Gamma' \Rightarrow$. Therefore, by Lemma 7.1, there is a closed *T* strictly held in $\omega.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ iff there is a closed *T'* strictly held in $\Gamma \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$.
 - 3. analogous to the proof above.

4. Let T' be held in T defined above and suppose that T' is closed. If $T' = \Gamma' \Rightarrow$ then, since $|\Gamma'| > 0$, $\Gamma' = \Delta^i \wedge \Gamma''$ for some i s.t. $\Gamma^i = \Delta^i \wedge \Delta'$, $|\Delta^i| > 0$. Note that $TV(\Gamma^i)$ are pairwise disjoint, thus if $\Delta^i \neq \Gamma^i$ ($\Delta' \neq nil$) then $\Delta^i \Rightarrow$ would be closed and strictly held in T^i . Hence, $\Delta^i = \Gamma^i$ ($\Delta' = nil$) and similarly $\varphi_1 \to \cdots \to \varphi_m \to \alpha$ must be in Γ' , giving a non closed \mathscr{C} -type T'. If $T' = \Gamma' \Rightarrow$ α then with a similar argument one has that $\Gamma' = (\omega^{n-1}.\varphi_1 \to \cdots \to \varphi_m \to \alpha.nil) \wedge \Gamma^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \Gamma^m$. Therefore, T' is closed iff T is closed and T' = T. Hence, T is m.c.

Definition 16. A *C*-type T is called **complete** if T is closed, finally closed and minimally closed.

Lemma 10. *1.* If $v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is complete for $v \neq \omega$ then $\Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$ is complete.

- 2. $\omega . \Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is complete iff $\Gamma \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is complete.
- *3.* $nil \Rightarrow \varphi$ is complete iff $nil \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is complete.
- 4. If $\forall 1 \leq i \leq m$, $T_i = \Gamma^i \Rightarrow \varphi_i$ is complete and $TV(T_i)$ are pairwise disjoint then, for any fresh type variable α , $T = (\omega^{\underline{n-1}}.\varphi_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \varphi_m \rightarrow \alpha.nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m \Rightarrow \alpha$ is complete.

Proof. 1. By Lemmas 7.1, 8.1 and 9.1.

- 2. By Lemmas 7.1, 8.1 and 9.2.
- 3. By Lemmas 7.2, 8.2 and 9.3.
- 4. By Lemmas 7.3 and 9.4 one has that the *T* described above is respectively closed and m.c. Note that $(\varphi_1 \to \cdots \to \varphi_m \to \alpha) \land (\Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m)_n \in L(T)$, thus *T* is f.c.

Lemma 11. If N is a β -nf then T^N is complete.

Proof. By structural induction on *N*.

- Let $N \equiv \underline{n}$. One has that $\operatorname{Infer}(N) = (\omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha \cdot nil, \alpha)$, hence $T^N = \omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha \cdot nil \Rightarrow \alpha$. Note that $L(T^N) = \{\alpha\}$. Thus, T^N is closed and finally closed. The only two \mathscr{C} -types strictly held in T^N are $\omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha \cdot nil \Rightarrow \alpha$ which are not closed, hence T^N is minimally closed.
- Let $N \equiv \lambda . N'$. If $(\Gamma', \varphi) = \text{Infer}(N')$ then, by IH, $T^{N'} = \Gamma' \Rightarrow \varphi$ is complete. If $\Gamma' = v.\Gamma$ then $\text{Infer}(\lambda . N') = (\Gamma, v \rightarrow \varphi)$ and $T^N = \Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$. If $v \neq \omega$, then by Lemma 10.1 T^N is complete. Otherwise, by Lemma 10.2, T^N is complete.

If $\Gamma' = nil$ then $\text{Infer}(\lambda . N') = (nil, \omega \rightarrow \varphi)$ and, by Lemma 10.3, T^N is complete.

• Let $N \equiv \underline{n}N_1 \cdots N_m$. If $\forall 1 \leq i \leq m$, $(\Gamma^i, \varphi_i) = \text{Infer}(N_i)$ then, by IH, T^{N_i} is complete. Observe that $TV(T^{N_i})$ are pairwise disjoint because they correspond to disjoint calls of Infer. One has that $\text{Infer}(N) = ((\omega^{\underline{n-1}}.\varphi_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \varphi_m \rightarrow \alpha.nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m, \alpha)$, for some fresh type variable α . Thus, by Lemma 10.4, T^N is complete.

Note that on items 1 and 4 in Lemma 10 we only have *sufficiency* proofs. Following we give counterexamples for each *necessary* condition.

Example 3. Let $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ be complete. Then, for any fresh $\alpha \in \mathscr{A}$, take $T' = \Gamma \Rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \varphi$. Therefore, T' is complete but $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$. $\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is not m.c.

Example 4. Let $T = \beta_1 \rightarrow (\beta_2 \rightarrow \beta_3) \rightarrow \beta_4.(\beta_1 \rightarrow \beta_4) \rightarrow (\beta_3 \rightarrow \beta_2) \rightarrow \alpha.nil \Rightarrow \alpha$. Note that *T* is complete but there is no such a partition of complete C-types.

Hence, to have complete C-types which satisfy those *necessary* conditions, we present the notion of principal C-types, as done in [28].

Definition 17. Let T be a complete *C*-type. T is called principal if:

- $T = \omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha \cdot nil \Rightarrow \alpha$.
- $T = nil \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \phi$ and $nil \Rightarrow \phi$ is principal.
- $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$ such that either $\Gamma \neq nil \text{ or } v \neq \omega$ and $v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is principal.
- $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \alpha$ and there are $\Gamma^1, \ldots, \Gamma^m \in \mathscr{C}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ such that $\Gamma = (\omega^{\underline{n-1}}, \varphi_1 \to \cdots \to \varphi_m \to \alpha.nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m$ and $\forall 1 \le i \le m, \Gamma^i \Rightarrow \varphi_i$ is principal.

Observe that in Definition 17 above we explicitly require the existence of the corresponding partition in the case $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \alpha$ for $\Gamma \neq \omega^{n-1} . \alpha.nil$ and that $v.\Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is also principal thus complete for $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow v \rightarrow \varphi$ such that $\Gamma \neq nil$ or $v \neq \omega$. Although we have that, by Lemma 10.2, $T = nil \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ is complete iff $T' = nil \Rightarrow \varphi$ is complete, this case has to be defined similarly. If in Definition 17 we only have instead: " $T = nil \Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow \varphi$ " then we would guarantee only the completeness of T', letting a counterexample as in Example 3 to be presented.

Lemma 12. If N is a β -nf then T^N is principal.

Proof. By structural induction on N. By Lemma 11, T^N is complete:

- If $N \equiv \underline{n}$ then $T^N = \omega^{\underline{n-1}} \cdot \alpha . nil \Rightarrow \alpha$.
- Let N ≡ λ.N' and T^{N'} = Γ' ⇒ φ. By IH T^{N'} is principal. If Γ' = v.Γ then T^{λ.N'} = Γ ⇒ v → φ. If Γ=nil then, by Lemma 4, v ≠ ω. Hence, T^{λ.N'} is principal. Otherwise T^{λ.N'} = nil ⇒ ω → φ, hence T^{λ.N'} is principal.
- Let $N \equiv \underline{n}N_1 \cdots N_m$ and $\forall 1 \le i \le m$, $T^{N_i} = \Gamma^i \Rightarrow \varphi_i$. Hence, for some fresh type variable α , $T^N = (\omega^{n-1}.\varphi_1 \to \cdots \to \varphi_m \to \alpha.nil) \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^m \Rightarrow \alpha$ and, by IH, T^{N_i} is principal $\forall 1 \le i \le m$. Thus, T^N is principal.

Therefore, the syntactic definition of principal \mathscr{C} -types contains the PT for β -nfs returned by Infer.

Definition 18. Let $\mathscr{P} = \{(\Gamma, \varphi) \in \mathscr{C} \times \mathscr{T}_{NF} | \Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi \text{ is principal} \}.$

In other words, by Lemma 12 and analogously to [28]: $Im(Infer) \subseteq \mathscr{P}$

Definition 19. Let $FO(\alpha, \Gamma) = \{(i, \Gamma_i) | \alpha \text{ is the final occurrence of } \Gamma_i, \forall 1 \le i \le |\Gamma|\}.$

The set $FO(\alpha, \Gamma)$ for $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \alpha$ principal, specifically closed and finally closed, has properties used in the reconstruction algorithm's definition.

Lemma 13. Let $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \alpha$ be a \mathscr{C} -type. If T is finally closed then $FO(\alpha, \Gamma) \neq \emptyset$. If T is also closed then $FO(\alpha, \Gamma)$ has exactly one element (i, v), s.t. $v = (\varphi_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \varphi_m \rightarrow \alpha) \land v'$, for $m \ge 0$ and $\alpha \notin TV(v')$.

Proof. Let $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow \alpha$. By Definition 12, $L(T) = \{\Gamma_i \neq \omega, \forall 1 \le i \le |\Gamma|\}$, hence if *T* is f.c. then at least one element of Γ has α as its final occurrence. Let $(i, v) \in FO(\alpha, \Gamma)$. If *T* is also closed then Γ has exactly one positive occurrence of α , hence α occurs uniquely in $v = \Gamma_i$. Note that $v \in \mathscr{U}_C$. If $v \in \mathscr{T}_C$ then by induction on its structure $v = \varphi_1 \to \cdots \to \varphi_m \to \alpha$ for $m \ge 0$ ($v = \alpha$ if m = 0). Otherwise, $v = v_1 \land v_2$ and α occurs positively either in v_1 or in v_2 . Thus, by induction on the structure of elements in \mathscr{U}_C , commutativity and associativity of \land , the result holds.

We introduce the algorithm Recon, to reconstruct a β -nf N from $(\Gamma, \varphi) \in \mathscr{P}$ such that $\operatorname{Infer}(N) = (\Gamma, \varphi)$, similar to the algorithm introduced in [28].

```
Definition 20 (Reconstruction algorithm). .
```

 $\texttt{Recon}(\Gamma,\tau) =$

```
Case
               (nil, \alpha)
                fail
Case
               (\Gamma, \alpha)
               let \{(i^1, u_1), \dots, (i^m, u_m)\} = FO(\alpha, \Gamma)
                if m = 1 and u_1 = (\tau_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \tau_n \rightarrow \alpha) \land u' s.t. \alpha \notin TV(u')
                    then if \forall 1 \leq i \leq n there is \Gamma^i s.t. \Gamma = \Gamma^i \wedge X^i and \Gamma^i \Rightarrow \tau_i is principal
                                        then let (N_1, \Delta^1) = \operatorname{Recon}(\Gamma^1, \tau_1)
                                                           (N_n, \Delta^n) = \operatorname{Recon}(\Gamma^n, \tau_n)
                                                            \Delta' = \omega^{i^1-1} \cdot \tau_1 \to \cdots \to \tau_n \to \alpha.nil

\Gamma' = \Delta' \land \Gamma^1 \land \cdots \land \Gamma^n
                                                            \Gamma = \Gamma' \land \Delta, s.t. \Delta \neq \omega^{\underline{j}}, \forall 1 < j < |\Gamma|
                                       return (i^1 N_1 \cdots N_n, \Delta \wedge \Delta^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \Delta^n)
                                       else fail
                   else fail
Case (\Gamma, u \rightarrow \tau)
               if \Gamma = nil and u = \omega
                    then let (N, \Delta) = \operatorname{Recon}(nil, \tau)
                    else let (N, \Delta) = \operatorname{Recon}(u, \Gamma, \tau)
                if \Delta = nil
                    then return (\lambda . N, \Delta)
                    else fail
```

Lemma 14. Let $(\Gamma, \varphi) \in \mathscr{P}$. Then $\operatorname{Recon}(\Gamma, \varphi) = (N, nil)$, $N \ a \ \beta$ -nf such that $\operatorname{Infer}(N) = (\Gamma, \varphi)$.

Proof. By recurrence on the number of calls to Recon.

- Case (Γ, α). Let T = Γ ⇒ α. By hypothesis (Γ, α) ∈ 𝒫, thus T is principal and in particular closed and f.c.. By Lemma 13, FO(α, Γ) = {(i, (φ₁ → ··· → φ_m → α) ∧ ν')} where α ∉ TV(ν'). Since Γ_i is the only occurrence of α in Γ, Γ = (ωⁱ⁻¹.φ₁ → ··· → φ_m → α.nil) ∧ Δ'' s.t. α ∉ TV(Δ''). If m = 0, then in Recon one has Γ' = Δ' = ωⁱ⁻¹.α.nil, hence T = Γ' ∧ Δ'' ⇒ α. T is m.c., thus Δ'' = nil and Γ = Γ'. Then, Recon(Γ, α) = (i,nil) and Infer(i) = (ωⁱ⁻¹.α.nil, α). Otherwise, there are Γ¹,..., Γ^m and n ∈ ℕ* s.t. Γ = (ωⁿ⁻¹.φ₁ → ··· → φ_m → α.nil) ∧ Γ¹ ∧ ··· ∧ Γ^m and ∀1≤j≤m, Γ^j ⇒ φ_j is principal. Hence, n = i and by IH ∀1≤j≤m, Recon(Γ^j, φ_j) = (N_j,nil), N_j a β-nf s.t. Infer(N_j) = (Γ^j, φ_j). Hence in Recon one has that Γ = Γ', consequently Δ = nil. Then, Recon(Γ, α) = (iN₁ ··· N_m,nil) and Infer(iN₁ ··· N_m) = ((ωⁱ⁻¹.φ₁ → ··· → φ_m → α.nil) ∧ Γ¹ ∧ ··· ∧ Γ^m, α).
- Case $(\Gamma, v \to \varphi)$. Let $T = \Gamma \Rightarrow v \to \varphi$.

By hypothesis $(\Gamma, v \rightarrow \phi) \in \mathscr{P}$, thus *T* is principal.

If $\Gamma = nil$ and $v = \omega$ then $T' = nil \Rightarrow \varphi$ is principal and, by IH, $\operatorname{Recon}(nil, \varphi) = (N, nil)$, $N \neq \beta$ -nf s.t. $\operatorname{Infer}(N) = (nil, \varphi)$. Thus, $\operatorname{Recon}(nil, \omega \to \varphi) = (\lambda \cdot N, nil)$ and $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda \cdot N) = (nil, \omega \to \varphi)$. Otherwise, $T' = v \cdot \Gamma \Rightarrow \varphi$ is principal. By IH, $\operatorname{Recon}(v \cdot \Gamma, \varphi) = (N, nil)$, $N \neq \beta$ -nf s.t. $\operatorname{Infer}(N) = (v \cdot \Gamma, \varphi)$. Hence, $\operatorname{Recon}(\Gamma, v \to \varphi) = (\lambda \cdot N, nil)$ and $\operatorname{Infer}(\lambda \cdot N) = (\Gamma, v \to \varphi)$.

Observe that, by Lemma 14, we have that: $\mathscr{P} \subseteq Im(\texttt{Infer})$. Thus, \mathscr{P} is the set of all, and only, principal typings for β -nfs in SM_r . Therefore, $\mathscr{P} = Im(\texttt{Infer})$.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduced the first intersection type system in de Bruijn indices for which the principle typings property for β -normal forms holds.

The restriction in the system of [28] prevents both that system and our own system presented here, from having SR in the usual sense. This is not the case however for the system of [31]. However, every β -nf is typeable in the introduced system, as in the one in [28], a property that does not hold for the simply typed system. We then prove the PT property for β -nfs and a characterisation of PT is given. This de Bruijn version of the typing system in [28] was introduced as a first step towards some extended systems in which PT depends on more complex syntactic operations such as expansion [17].

As future work, we will introduce a de Bruijn version for systems such as the ones in [12] and [26] and try to add similar systems to both $\lambda \sigma$ and λs_e . There are works on intersection types and explicit substitution, e.g. [22], but no work for systems where the composition of substitutions is allowed.

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