Indexed Codata Types

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Abstract
Indexed data types allow us to specify and verify many interesting invariants about finite data in a general purpose programming language. In this paper we investigate the dual idea: indexed codata types, which allow us to describe data-dependencies about infinite data structures. Unlike finite data which is defined by constructors, we define infinite data by observations. Dual to pattern matching on indexed data which may refine the type indices, we define copattern matching on indexed codata where type indices guard observations we can make.

Our key technical contributions are three-fold: first, we extend Levy’s call-by-push value language with support for indexed (co)data and deep (co)pattern matching; second, we provide a clean foundation for dependent (co)pattern matching using equality constraints; third, we describe a small-step semantics using a continuation-based abstract machine, define coverage for indexed (co)patterns, and prove type safety. This is an important step towards building a foundation where (co)data type definitions and dependent types can coexist.

Categories and Subject Descriptors D.1.1 [Programming Techniques]: Applicative (Functional) Programming

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1. Introduction
Over the past two decades we made significant progress in mechanically verifying inductive properties about finite data and computation using proof assistants. However, the situation is very different when it comes to specifying and mechanically verifying properties such as fairness or liveness about programs whose computation is infinite i.e. they continue to run and produce results. Such properties are elegantly stated and proven coinductively. Starting with Hagino’s work (1987) in (co)algebras, there has been growing consensus that proof and programming environments should view infinite data dual to finite data. Under this view inductive data such as lists are modelled by constructors, while coinductive or infinite data such as streams are described by observations. An important step towards a sound type-theoretic foundation for inductive and coinductive definitions has been taken by Abel et al. (2013) where the authors present a simply-typed language using a rewriting semantics where finite data is defined using constructors and analyzed by pattern matching while infinite data is defined via copattern matching and analyzed by observations. Subsequently, it was shown that this language is normalizing using sized types (Abel and Pientka 2013). A prototype implementation of copatterns exists within Agda, a programming language based on Martin Löf type theory (?). However, a theoretical foundation that supports dependent types, (deep) (co)pattern matching and (co)recursion and at the same time allows inductive and coinductive definitions to be arbitrarily mixed remains illusive.

In this paper we take a substantial step towards such a general foundation concentrating on a flavor of dependent types, called indexed types (Zenger 1997; Xi and Pfenning 1999), where the language of indices is separate from the language of types and programs and describes a domain where equality is decidable. Specifically we present a core language for dependent (co)pattern matching that allows eager and lazy evaluation to be mixed by extending Levy’s call-by-push value language (2001). Following Levy, our language is centered around the duality of positive types which we interpret as values and use to construct finite data, and negative types which we take as computations and use to describe the observations about infinite data. While indexed data types allow us to for example specify and statically enforce properties about finite lists and trees, indexed codata types allow us to specify and statically enforce properties about streams and traces. Throughout our development, we keep the index language abstract. Our main technical contributions are three-fold:

• We extend Levy’s call-by-push value language (2001), with support for indexed (co)data and deep (co)pattern matching. To keep our design modular, we keep the index domain abstract and specify the key properties it must satisfy. In particular, our index domain must provide a decision procedure to reason about equalities and a unification procedure to compute the most general unifier of two index objects. We illustrate these properties by considering the domain of natural numbers.

• Pattern matching in the presence of dependent types is challenging, as indices get refined and patterns cannot be kept linear. We propose a foundation where we track and reason with dependencies among indices using equality constraints that are accumulated in a context thereby supporting linear dependent (co)patterns. Our equality context may contain both equality constraints that are satisfiable and equality constraints that are contradictory. This leads to a clean foundation for (co)pattern matching in the dependently typed setting.

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• We describe the operational semantics of our core language using a continuation-based abstract machine and prove type preservation. We also provide a sound non-deterministic algorithm to generate covering sets of copatterns. Finally, we show progress – in the presence of infinite data the key idea here is that every expression either returns a value or we can continue to evaluate it by supplying enough observations.

We see several applications of our work: it lays the foundation for extending languages such as DML (Xi and Pfening 1999) and ATS (Xi 2004) to support indexed codata; choosing as an index language the language of types itself, it serves as a foundation for mixing eager and lazy evaluation in functional languages that support GADTs (Cheney and Hinze 2003; Xi et al. 2003); choosing as an index language LF (Harper et al. 1993; Cave and Pientka 2012), our work serves as a general foundation for writing both inductive and coinductive definitions and programs about for- mants. Finally, we believe that the core language that we describe in this paper provides a stepping stone in developing a sound dependently typed foundation for Coq and Agda that supports deep (co)pattern matching and allows inductive and coinductive definitions to be mixed.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. We illustrate the main ideas of indexed (co)data types through several examples in Section 2. Then, we introduce in Section 3 our language supporting both indexed data types and codata types, together with pattern and copattern matching in a symmetric way. We describe the typing rules together with a small-step semantics. We then define a sound coverage algorithm for indexed patterns and copatterns, and prove preservation and progress.

2. Main Idea

Indexed recursive types allow us to for example specify and program with lists that track their length thereby avoiding run-time checks for cases which cannot happen. We consider here a variation of this example: a recursive type \( \text{Msg} \) which describes a message consisting of bits and tracks its length by choosing as an index domain \( \text{nat} \). Our pseudo-code follows closely the underlying foundation where we model data types using recursive types and disjoint sums together with equality constraints.

\[
\text{data} \ \text{Msg} \ (N : \text{nat}) : \text{type} = \\
\text{Nil} : N = z \Rightarrow 1 \\
\text{Cons} : \text{nat} : N = s M \Rightarrow \text{Bit} \times \text{Msg} [M]
\]

We separate the index domain from the language of types and programs and embed index objects inside types and programs using \([\ ]\). The type \( \text{Msg} [N] \) defines messages inductively: either we have an empty message \( \text{Nil} \) where \( N \) must be zero, or we can construct a message using \( \text{Cons} \), if there exists \( M : \text{nat} \) s.t. \( N = s M \) and we have a \( \text{Bit} \) together with a message of length \( M \). In the latter case, we have built a message of length \( s M \). As in SML, we require that constructors that correspond to the base case in our inductive definition take in formally an argument of type unit (denoted by \( 1 \)). When we pattern match on a message \( a \) of type \( \text{Msg} [N] \), we need to consider the following two cases: if \( a \) stands for an empty message, written as \( \text{Nil}(e,()) \), then we also obtain an equality proof \( e \) that \( N = s a \) and we have a \( \text{Bit} \) together with a message of length \( a \). In both cases, we can further pattern match on the equality proof \( e \), writing \( \varphi \) as the witness which forces the type checker to solve the accumulated constraints setting in the base case \( N \) to zero and in the step case \( N \) to \( s a \). As our index domain is restricted to a decidable domain, equality proofs can always be derived and reconstructed when elaborating a surface program into our core language.

Dually to model a stream of bits which keeps track of how many bits belong to one message we define three different observations:

\[
\text{codata} \ \text{Str} \ (N : \text{nat}) : \text{type} = \\
\text{GetBit} : \text{IM} : \text{nat}. \ N = s M \Rightarrow \text{Bit} \\
\text{NextBits} : \text{IM} : \text{nat}. \ N = s M \Rightarrow \text{Str} [M] \\
\text{Done} : N = z \Rightarrow \text{NextMsg}
\]

and data \( \text{NextMsg} : \text{type} = \\
\text{NextMsg} : \Sigma N : \text{nat}. \ \text{Str} [N]
\]

Given a stream with index \( N \), we can observe the next bit (\( \text{NextBits} \)) and get the current bit (\( \text{GetBit} \)), provided that we supply some number \( M \) and an equality proof that \( N = s M \). We are done reading all bits belonging to our message, if \( N = z \), i.e. we can get the next message, if we can provide a proof for \( N = z \). This definition of a stream allows us to enforce that we read the correct number of bits belonging to a message.

While our indexed recursive type \( \text{Msg} \) is defined via positive types (equality, existentials, products), our coinductive definition of \( \text{Str} \) uses negative types (universals, functions). When we pattern match on a data type, we also learn about equality constraints that must hold. When we make observations on a codata type, we must supply an equality proof that satisfies the equality constraint that guards the observation. To our knowledge this dual role that equality plays in defining data and codata types has not been observed before, yet it seems central in understanding how to scale (co)data type definitions and (co)pattern matching to the dependently typed setting.

2.1 Message processing Using Deep (Co)pattern Matching

Interactions of a system with input/output devices or other systems are performed through a series of queries and responses which are represented using a stream of bits that can be read by the system. Processing requests over those streams can be error prone. If one reads too many or not enough bits, then there is a disconnect between the information a program reads and the one that was sent which potentially could be exploited by an attacker. To avoid such problem, we propose to use indexed codata types to parametrize a stream with a natural number indicating how many bits we are entitled to read until the next message starts. Thus, one can guarantee easily that a program will not leave parts of a message on top of the stream but that they consume all of it. We will use this example of message passing to highlight the role of indices in writing programs that use (co)pattern matching.

First, we want to read a message from the stream \( \text{Str} [N] \) and return the message together with the remaining stream. This is enforced in the type of the function \( \text{readMsg} \) below. The type can be read informally as: For all \( N \) given \( \text{Str} [N] \) we return a message together with \( \text{Str} [z] \) which indicates that we are done reading the entire message.

\[
\text{rec} \ \text{readMsg} : N : \text{nat}. \ \text{Str} [N] \Rightarrow \text{Msg} [N] \times \text{Str} [z] \\
\text{fn} \ [N] \ s \Rightarrow (N1 \ (\varphi, ()), s) \\
\text{let} \ (s, a') = \text{readMsg} [N] (a.\text{NextBits} [M] \varphi) \text{ in} \\
(\text{Cons} \ (s, \text{GetBit} [M] \varphi) \text{ in} \\
(\text{Cons} \ (s, a'), s'))
\]

The program \( \text{readMsg} \) is written by pattern matching on the index object \( N \). Using \( \text{fn}\)-abstractions we pattern match on multiple input arguments simultaneously. We use a notation similar to ML-like languages, but we wrap index objects in \([\ ]\) to clearly distinguish them from computation-level data and terms. If \( N \) is zero, then we are finished reading all bits belonging to the message and we simply return the empty message together with the remaining stream \( s \). If \( N \) is not zero but of the form \( s M \), we observe the first element \( e \) and return the message \( \varphi \) by making the recursive call \( \text{readMsg} [N] (a.\text{NextBits} [M] \varphi) \) and then
build the actual message by consing c to the front of u. Note that
in order to make the observation GetBit or NextBits we must sup-
ply two arguments, namely N and a proof that s M = s M. Dually,
when we construct a message Nil in the base case, we also must
supply a proof that z = z; similarly in the step-case, we construct
a message Cons by providing as a witness M together with a proof
that s M = s M. It seems reasonable to assume that these arguments
and equality proofs can be inferred in practice; however we make
them explicit in our core language to emphasize their dual role in
indexed (co)data types.

So far we have seen how to make observations about streams
and use them. Next, we show how to build a stream which is
aware of how many bits belong to a message effectively turning it
into a stream of messages. This is accomplished via two mutually
recursive functions mixing pattern and copattern matching: the first
marshals the size of the message with the message stream and the
second one continues to create the message stream. We assume
that we have polymorphism here (which we do not treat in our
foundation).

codata 'a Stream : type =
| Head : 'a
| Tail : 'a Stream

rec getMsg : Bit Stream → [nat] Stream → NextMsg =
fn s ns ⇒ let [N] = ns.Head in
NextMsg [N] (msgStr [N] s ns.Tail)
and msgStr : IN:nat.BitStream→[nat]Stream→Str [N] =
fn [z] s ns.Done ⇒ getMsg s ns.Tail
| [s N] s ns .GetBit [M] ⇒ s.Head
| [s N] s ns .NextBits [M] ⇒⇒ s.Head

The function getMsg takes in a stream s of bits and a stream of
natural numbers that tells us the size of a message. It then returns
a message of the required size by reading the appropriate number of
bits from s using the function msgStr and creating a stream of type
Str [N] where N is the size of the message. The function msgStr is
defined by (co)pattern matching: the first branch says, we can
only make the observation Done provided that N is zero; in this case
we are done reading all bits belonging to the message. The second
branch says: if the size of the message is s N, we can make the
observation GetBit provided we have a proof φ showing that s M is
equal to s N. Note that our (co)pattern remains linear - the fact that
M is forced to be equal to s B is guaranteed by the equality proof φ
that solves the arising constraint s N = s M. We exploit here the fact
that equality and unification is decidable in our index domain. If we
can solve the constraint, as is the case here, we keep track of the
solution N := M in our context of assumptions and continue to
type check the body of the branch under this constraint; if we can
disprove the arising equality constraint, we keep a contradiction
in our context of assumption and continue to check the body. This
allows for an elegant treatment of linear (co)patterns in the presence
of dependent types. In particular, it may serve as a foundation for
existing practical solutions such as dot-patterns in Agda.

Last, we show how to generate a bit stream where every mes-
sage contains two random bits. This illustrates deep copattern
matching.

rec genBitStr : Str [s (s z)] =
fn .GetBit [s z] φ ⇒ RandomBitGen ()
| .NextBits [s z] φ .GetBit [z] ⇒⇒ RandomBitGen ()
| .NextBits [s z] φ .NextBits [z] φ .Done ⇒⇒
NextMsg [s (s z)] genBitStr

Following the ideas described in this section, we can implement
also fair merge of two streams as bs where we consume a finite
amount of a’s followed by a finite amount of b’s. We refer the
interested reader to the appendix for more examples on streams.

2.2 Revisiting the Duality of (Co)inductive Definitions

So far we have concentrated on two aspects: 1) how inductive data
is constructed and analyzed by pattern matching while coinductive
data is observed and analyzed by copattern matching; 2) the role of
indices and equality constraints in (co)pattern matching. For data
of type Msg [M], we provided a way of constructing a message for
each M. Dually, our codata type Str [M] provided observations
for all possible M.

An important question to clarify is whether (co)data type defi-
nitions need or should be covering, i.e. provide a constructor or
observation for each possible index. What does it mean to have no
constructor for a possible index? And dually, what does it mean to
have no observation for a possible index?

We discuss these questions by looking at how we define even
numbers inductively and coinductively. Clearly, inductive defini-
tions do not need to be covering. For example, our inductive defini-
tion of Even [N] states that we can construct a proof that z is even
using Even_z provided we have a proof that N = z. For clarity, we
define the type of the constructor Even_z as N = z + 1 where 1 stands
for unit (or top). Similarly, we can construct a proof that N is even,
if there exists a number N s.t. N = s (a M) and M is even.

data Even (N:nat) : type =
| Ev_z : N = z + 1
| Ev_vs : Σ M:nat. N = s (a M) * Even [M]

The set of terms inhabiting this predicate is the least fixed
point defining even numbers. Note that there is no way that we
can construct a witness for Even [s z] and this type is empty.
Modelling the empty type
data 0 : type =

by declaring no constructors, we could make this more explicit
by adding a constructor Ev_s of type N = (s z) * 0. This explicit-
ly states that even [s z] cannot be constructed without any
assumptions, since 0 has no elements. We typically omit such a case
in the definition of our inductive types, but these impossible cases
might arise when we pattern match on elements of the type Even.

Dually, we can define even numbers coinductively using a great-
est fix point. By default the greatest fix point is inhabited by all nat-
ural numbers and in particular all even numbers. The observations
we make describe those numbers that should not be in the set of
even numbers! Specifically, we are stating that odd numbers, can-
not be in the set of even numbers. This leaves us with the set of
even numbers.

codata CoEven (N:nat) : type =
| Cev_sz : N = s z → 0
| Cev_vs : IN:nat. N = s (a M) → CoEven [M]

If N = s z then we return the empty type. If we make an obser-
vation Cev_sz and have a proof that N = s z then we have arrived at
a contradiction. The observation Cev_sz extracts a proof of CoEven
[N] from a proof of CoEven [s (a M)].

This discussion highlights the difference between the definition
of constructors and observations. If we omit a constructor for a
given index, then the indexed data type is not inhabited and it
is interpreted as false. Dually, if we omit an observation for a
given index, then the indexed codata type is still inhabited and it
corresponds to being trivially true.

We now prove that both interpretations give us the same set of
terms. First we show that Even [N] implies CoEven [N]:

codatatype CoEven (N:nat) = Even [N] → CoEven [N] =
fn [z] (Ev_z φ () ) .Cev_sz φ |
| [z] (Ev_z φ () ) .Cev_vs [] φ |
| [s N] (Ev_vs<s, (φ, e)>) .Cev_vs φ |
| [s N] (Ev_vs<s, (φ, e)>) .Cev_vs [K] φ ⇒⇒ evToCoEv e
We write this function by pattern matching on Even \([z]\). In the case where Even \([z]\), we want to return CoEven \([z]\). As elements of CoEven \([z]\) are defined by the observations we can make about it, we consider two sub-cases. If we try to make the observation \(\text{Cev}_{\text{sz}}\), we must provide a proof that \(z = s \cdot z\). This will be rebutted by our decision procedure in our index domain, i.e. our decision procedure will succeed, but add a contradiction to our context of assumptions, from which everything follows. If we try to make the observation \(\text{Cev}_{\text{ss}}\), then we must show \(\text{Imp}_{\text{nat}}: z = s \cdot (s \cdot n) \rightarrow \text{CoEven} \([n]\)\). Again we have arrived at a contradiction, since there is no proof for \(z = s \cdot (s \cdot n)\).

Finally, we consider the case where Even \([N]\). In this case, we can again make two possible observations, \(\text{Cev}_{\text{sz}}\) and \(\text{Cev}_{\text{ss}}\). In the first case, we again arrive at a contradiction, since \(N = s \cdot z\) is always false. In the last case, we accumulate and solve two equality constraints while type checking the (co)pattern: \(N = s \cdot (s \cdot n)\) and \(N = s \cdot (s \cdot k)\). Then we proceed to check the body of the branch in the context where \(N := k\) nat and \(N := n\) nat.

This example highlights the mix of pattern and copattern matching and the reasoning with equality constraints; it also highlight how impossible cases arise and how we treat them.

Can we also prove that CoEven \([N]\) implies Even \([N]\)? - In general this is not true since the coinductive interpretation may be strictly bigger than the inductive one. In our case however we can indeed show this property by induction on \(N\). In the case where \(N = z\) and we assume CoEven \([z]\), we make the observation \((C. \text{Cev}_{\text{sz}} x)\) which results in an object of type 0 - however, we know that this type is not inhabited and hence we abort. In our language abort is an abbreviation for a function without any branches.

\[
\text{rec } \text{coEvToEv} : \text{Imp}_{\text{nat}}. \text{CoEven} \([N]\) \rightarrow \text{Even} \([N]\) = \\
\text{fn } \{z\} \rightarrow E_{\text{vzero}} (\varphi, 0) \\
\text{if } [s \cdot z] \rightarrow \text{abort} (C. \text{Cev}_{\text{sz}} x) \\
\text{if } [s \cdot (s \cdot n)] \rightarrow \text{Ev}_{\text{sz}} <N, \{\varphi, \text{coEvToEv} \([N]\) (C. \text{Cev}_{\text{sz}} x)\})
\]

### 2.3 Final Remark

For simplicity all our previous examples use as index domain natural numbers. However, we want to emphasize that our theoretical foundation is parametric in the index domain. In the appendix, we also give several examples that use the logical framework LF as an index domain. The examples include proving that two automata are bisimilar and the encoding of a type-preserving environment-based evaluator where values are defined coinductively following (Milner and Tofte 1991).

### 3. Theory

We present in this section a general purpose programming language which supports defining finite data using indexed recursive types and infinite data using indexed corecursive types. To analyze and manipulate finite and infinite data, we support simultaneous pattern and copattern matching. We omit polymorphism which is largely an orthogonal issue.

#### 3.1 Index Domain

Our programming language is parametric over the index domain which we describe abstractly with \(U\). This index domain can be natural numbers, strings, types (Cheney and Hinze 2003; Xi et al. 2003), or (contextual) LF (Cave and Pientka 2012). Index objects are abstractly referred to as \(\text{index-term} C\) and have \(\text{index-type} U\). As a running example we will use natural numbers to illustrate the requirements our index domain must satisfy. It can be defined as containing a single index-type \(\text{nat}\) and index-terms are simply built of zero, suc, and variables \(X\).

- **Index-Type** \(U \triangleq \text{nat}\)
- **Index-Term** \(C \triangleq X \mid \text{suc} \quad \text{C} \quad \text{Z} \mid \text{S} \quad \text{C}\)
- **Index-Context** \(\Delta \triangleq \| \Delta, X : U \mid \Delta, X := C : U \mid \Delta, \# \)
- **Index-Substitution** \(\theta \triangleq \| \theta, C / X\)

Variables that occur in index-terms must be declared in an index-context \(\Delta\). In our setting, the index-context also contains equality constraints \(X := C : U\) that says that the index-variable \(X\) is equal to the index-term \(C\). Such constraints arise in typing linear (co)patterns (see the function \(\text{msg}\) from Sec. 2). The index-context also keeps track of contradictions, written \(\#\), that may arise when we encounter in a (co)pattern a constraint that can never be satisfied.

Index-substitutions are built by supplying an index-term for an index-variable. We interpret - as the identity index-substitution. We define the lookup of the instantiation for a variable \(X\) as follows:

\[
\text{Index-Substitution} \quad \text{Variable is bound to term } X \text{ in substitution } \theta
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{θ}(X) &= C & \text{Variable } X \text{ is bound to term } C \text{ in substitution } \theta \\
(\theta, C / X)(X) &= \text{C} & (\theta, C / Y)(X) \text{ if } X \neq Y \\
(\theta)(X) &= X
\end{align*}
\]

We use index-substitutions to model the runtime environment of index variables. Looking up \(X\) in the substitution \(\theta\) returns the index-term \(C\) to which \(X\) is bound at run-time. The index-context \(\Delta\) captures the information that is statically available and is used during type checking.

\[
\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta' \quad \theta \text{ maps index variables from } \Delta' \text{ to } \Delta
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta' \quad \Delta \vdash \theta(X) : U[\theta] & \quad \Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta', \# \in \Delta \\
\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta', X : U & \quad \Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta', X : U & \quad \Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta, X := C : U
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta \quad \Delta \vdash X : U \quad \Delta \vdash U : \text{Type}
\]

\[
\Delta \vdash \text{Index-type } U \text{ is well-kinded in } \Delta
\]

\[
\Delta \vdash \text{Nat} : \text{Type}
\]

\[
\Delta \vdash C : U \quad \Delta \vdash : \text{Index-term } C \text{ has type } U
\]

\[
\Delta \vdash X : U
\]

\[
\Delta \vdash \text{zero} : \text{Nat} \quad \Delta \vdash \text{suc} : \text{Nat} \quad \Delta \vdash X : U
\]

**Diagram 1.** Index-Contexts, Index-Substitution, Index-Types, and Index-Terms

**Typing of Index Domain** We define the well-formedness of index-contexts and index-substitutions in Fig. 1. The definition of index-contexts is mostly straightforward noting that \(\Delta, X := C : U\) is a well-formed index-context if \(\Delta\) is well-formed, the index-type \(U\) is well-formed in \(\Delta\), and the index-term \(C\) has index-type \(U\). We
make sure that there are no circularities in $\Delta$. An index-substitution $\theta$ provides a mapping for declarations in the index-context $\Delta'$ and guarantees that all instantiations have the expected index-type and are compatible with existing constraints. Our judgment $\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta'$ states that a given instantiation $\theta$, computed via pattern matching at runtime, matches the assumptions in $\Delta'$ that were made statically during type checking. It is defined inductively on the domain $\Delta'$. Although all instantiations computed by pattern matching are ground (i.e. $\Delta$ is empty), we state the relationship between $\theta$ and $\Delta$ more generally. If $\Delta'$ contained a contradiction, the contradiction must also be present in $\Delta$. We still require in this case that $\theta$ provides consistent and well-typed instantiations for all the remaining declarations in $\Delta'$.

While our rules for the well-formedness of index-contexts and index-substitutions are generic, typing of index-terms and index-types obviously depends on our choice of the index domain. We included here the rules for natural numbers.

Our index domain must satisfy several properties. The first one is the substitution property which we list here as a requirement$^1$.

**Requirement 1** (Index-Substitution Lemma). If $\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta'$ and $\Delta' \vdash C : U$ then $\Delta \vdash C[\theta] : U[\theta]$.

*Proof.* By induction on $\Delta' \vdash C : U$. $\square$

In addition to the typing rules given in Fig. 1, we also require that equality is decidable. As we accumulate equality constraints in $\Delta$, we take those into account when defining equality of index-terms. To illustrate we give the definition of equality for natural numbers in Fig. 2.

$$\Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2$$

Term $C_1$ is equal to Term $C_2$ in $\Delta$.

$$\Delta \vdash \text{zero} = \text{zero} \quad \Delta \vdash \text{Suc} \ C_1 = \text{Suc} \ C_2 \quad \Delta \vdash X = X$$

$X := C:U \in \Delta$ \quad $\Delta \vdash C = C'$ \quad $X := C':U \in \Delta$ \quad $\Delta \vdash C = C'$

$\# \in \Delta$ \quad $\Delta \vdash \text{zero} = \text{Suc} \ C_1 = \text{Suc} \ C_2$

**Figure 2. Equality of Index Terms**

**Typing of Index-Terms in (Co)patterns** As index-terms occur within (co)patterns, we also require rules that extract the type of index-variables. As we process a list of (co)pattern we thread through a context $\Delta$ and accumulate index variables and constraints. As subsequent index patterns may depend on variables appearing earlier in the (co)pattern spine, we extend and refine $\Delta$ by imposing constraints on existing variable declarations. In fact, our typing rules for (co)patterns will also solve equality constraints using unification. Hence the resulting index-context $\Delta'$ is an extension and refinement of $\Delta$, written as $\Delta \prec \Delta'$. We define synthesizing free index variables contained in an index-term $C$ in Fig. 3. We assume that $C$ only contains fresh variables, i.e. any variable in $C$ does not already occur in $\Delta$. We are threading through $\Delta$ which may contain variables introduced by a previous pattern match, since for richer and more expressive index domains $U$ may depend on $\Delta$ and it is more uniform.

Type checking of (co)patterns will also need to solve equations $C_1 = C_2$ using unification on our index domain, and thus introduce term assignments to variables in $\Delta$, yielding $\Delta'$. We define

$^1$Proofs can be found in the supplementary material for this paper

**Index-Pattern $C$ of index-type $U$ synthesizes an index-context $\Delta$ s.t. $\Delta \prec \Delta'$**

$\Delta \vdash C : U \setminus \Delta'$

$\Delta \vdash \text{zero} : \text{Nat} \setminus \Delta \quad \Delta \vdash \text{Suc} \ C : \text{Nat} \setminus \Delta'$

$X \notin \Delta$

$\Delta \vdash X : U \setminus \Delta, X : U$

**Figure 3. Meta-Pattern Checking Rules**

unification for the index domain of natural numbers in Fig. 4. Note that our unification always succeeds in producing an index-context $\Delta'$. However, if $C_1$ and $C_2$ were unifiable, then the arising equality constraints are recorded in $\Delta'$. If $C_1$ and $C_2$ were not unifiable, we return a $\Delta'$ that contains a contradiction $\#$. There are two possible sources of failure: either the two terms are syntactically different or the occurs check fails. As we keep track of constraints in $\Delta$, checking whether $X$ occurs in $Y$ where $Y := C:U \in \Delta$, must check whether $X$ occurs in $C$. Our well-formedness of $\Delta$ guarantees that our context is not cyclic and hence the occurs check will terminate. Our definition of unification is then straightforward. As we must guarantee that $\Delta$ remains well-formed, we may permute it to an equivalent well-formed context (written as $\Delta \sim \Delta'$) when unifying $X$ with an index-term $C$.

**Properties about Unification** As we alluded during our examples, typing of (co)patterns will rely on solving equality constraints. We therefore rely on the correctness of the unification algorithm. In particular, we require that unification will always succeed.

**Requirement 2 (Unification of Index-Terms).** For any $\Delta$, $C_1$, $C_2$ and $U$ such that $\Delta \vdash C_1 : U$ and $\Delta \vdash C_2 : U$, there is a $\Delta'$ such that $\Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2 \setminus \Delta'$.

Further, we require that our unification algorithm produces the most general unifier.

**Requirement 3.** If $\Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2 \setminus \Delta'$, then for all $\Delta_0$ and $\theta$ such that $\Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta$, we have that $\Delta_0 \vdash C_1[\theta] = C_2[\theta]$ if and only if $\Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta'$.

*Proof.* By induction on $\Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2 \setminus \Delta'$. $\square$

As we mentioned, our operational semantics for our programs is environment based and our index-substitution $\theta$ provides instantiations for all the index variables. Proving type safety of our core language relies on a series of properties our index domain must satisfy. We prove these properties for our index domain nat. First, we rely on a substitution property of index-terms occurring in patterns.

Using these requirements, we can show that the unification algorithm is stable under substitution.

**Lemma 1.** If $\Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2 \setminus \Delta'$ and $\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta$ then there is a $\Delta'_1$ such that $\Delta_1 \vdash C_1[\theta] = C_2[\theta] \setminus \Delta'_1$ and $\Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta'$. $\square$

*Proof.* By Req. 2 and Req. 3.

**Pattern Matching on Index-Terms** Our operational semantics for our language relies on (co)pattern matching. As index terms appear in (co)patterns, we rely on pattern matching on index terms. To prove preservation and progress, we rely on the fact that extracting the type of index-variables in (co)patterns is stable and does not depend on the current run-time environment. We state this property in general terms, although our instantiation $\theta$ will be ground during run-time. It can be intuitively understood as follows: When we...
Given the index-terms $C_1$ and $C_2$ synthesize the most general index-context $\Delta'$ s.t. $\Delta \prec \Delta'$ and $\Delta' \vdash C_1 = C_2$.

$$
\begin{align*}
\Delta \vdash C_1 &\vdash C_2 \vdash \Delta' & \quad \Delta \vdash C_1 &\vdash C_2 \vdash \Delta' & \quad \Delta \vdash X = X \vdash \Delta
\end{align*}
$$

process a (co)pattern we build up a context $\Delta$ before we extend $\Delta$ with the new variables that occur in an index term $C$ obtaining $\Delta'$. Given an instantiation $\theta$ for the variables in $\Delta$, where $\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta$, we can also process $C$ within the context $\Delta_1$ and extract the new variables obtaining an extension $\Delta_1'$. In fact, as variables occurring in $C$ are not (yet) instantiated by $\theta$, we also have that $\Delta_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta_1$.

**Requirement 4** (Substitution Property of Index-Terms). If $\Delta \vdash C : U \vdash \Delta'$ and $\Delta_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta$ then there is $\Delta_1' \vdash \theta : \Delta'$ such that $\Delta_1 \vdash C : U[\theta] \vdash \Delta_1'$ and $\Delta_1' \vdash \theta : \Delta'$.

*Proof.* The proof of this statement is by induction on the derivation $\Delta \vdash C : U \vdash \Delta'$.

**Requirement 5** (Adequacy of Pattern Matching for Index-Terms). Suppose $\Delta \vdash C' : U \vdash \Delta$ and $C = C'[\theta]$. Then $\Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta$.

*Proof.* By induction on the derivation $\vdash C' : U \vdash \Delta$.

**Coverage of Index-Terms** To discuss coverage of (co)patterns, we rely on coverage of index-terms. We therefore define a splitting algorithm that takes as input $\Delta \vdash X$ where either $X : U \vdash \Delta$ or $X := C : U \vdash \Delta$. It generates a set containing $\Delta_1 \vdash C_i$ where $C_i$ are the possible refinements of $X$ (see Fig. 5).

**Requirement 6** (Coverage of splitting for index objects). Suppose $\theta \vdash \theta : \Delta$ and split($\Delta \vdash X$) = $(\Delta_i, C_i)_{i \in I}$, then there is an $i \in I$ and $\theta : \Delta_i$, and $\theta(X) = C_i[\theta]$ and $\theta(\theta) < \theta_i$.

The judgment $\theta < \theta_i$ means that $\theta_i$ is the form $\theta, \tilde{C}/\tilde{X}$ for some terms $\tilde{C} = C_1, \ldots, C_n$ and variables $\tilde{X} = X_1, \ldots, X_n$ that are not already bound by $\theta$.

*Proof of Req. 4.* By induction on the splitting judgment.

We also require that the splitting algorithm preserves coverage under the application of a substitution.

**Requirement 7** (Preservation of splitting under substitution). Suppose $\Delta' \vdash \theta : \Delta$ and split($\Delta \vdash X$) = $(\Delta_i, C_i)_{i \in I}$, then there are $(\Delta'_i)_{i \in I}$ such that split($\Delta' \vdash X$) = $(\Delta'_i \vdash C_i)_{i \in I}$ and for all $i \in I$, $\Delta'_i \vdash \theta : \Delta_i$.

3.2 Indexed Types and Kinds

Following Levy (2001) we distinguish between positive types $(1, \Sigma X : U.P, P_1 \times P_2)$ which characterize finite data and negative types $(P \rightarrow N, \Pi X : U.N)$ which describes infinite data. We allow negative types to be embedded into positive types and vice versa using explicit coercions written as $\downarrow N$ and $\uparrow P$ respectively. Our language also supports indexed recursive and indexed corecursive types. The recursive type written as $\mu Y. \lambda X.D$ is a positive type, as it allows us to construct finite data using labelled sums $D$ (written as $\langle c.P \rangle$). While $Y$ denotes a type variable, $\lambda X.D$ describes a type-level function which expects index objects and returns a labelled sum $D$. Dually, in the corecursive type, written as $\nu Z. \lambda X.R$, the type-level function $\lambda X.R$ expects index objects and returns a record of indexed observations. Corecursive types are negative types, as they describe infinite data using records $R$ (standing for $(d: N)$).

| Kinds | $K := \text{type} | \Pi X : U.K$ |
|---|---|
| Positive Types | $P := Y \mid 1 \mid P_1 \times P_2 \mid C_1 = C_2 \mid \downarrow N \mid \mu Y. \lambda X.D \mid P \uparrow P \mid \Sigma X : U.P$ |
| Negative Types | $N := Z \mid P \rightarrow N \mid \uparrow P \mid \nu Z. \lambda X.R \mid N \uparrow C \mid \Pi X : U.N$ |
| Variant | $D := (c_1 P_1 \mid \cdots \mid c_n P_n)$ |
| Record | $R := (d_1 : N_1, \ldots, d_n : N_n)$ |

Figure 6. Types

Index objects from our index domain $U$ can be embedded and returned by computations by returning an object of type $\Sigma X : U.1$. Our core language also include equality constraints between index objects. They typically are used inside (co)recursive type definitions. As we have seen in the examples, we mostly use equalities in two forms: constrained products (written as $C_1 = C_2 \times P$) in defining indexed data types and constrained (or guarded) function (written as $C_1 \rightarrow C_2 \rightarrow N$) in defining indexed codata types. As
we require that our index domain comes with decidable equality, we believe the equality proofs can always be reconstructed when elaborating source level programs into our core language.

Our computation-level types can directly refer to index types. In this article, both \( \mu Y.\lambda X.D \) and \( \nu Z.\lambda X.R \) are just recursive types rather than inductive and coinductive types resp. Since \( D \) and \( R \) are not checked for functionality and programs are not checked for termination or productivity, resp., there are no conditions that ensure \( \mu Y.\lambda X.D \) to be a least fixed-point inhabited only by finite data, and \( \nu Z.\lambda X.R \) to be a greatest fixed-point that hosts infinite objects which are productive. However, we keep the notational distinction to allude to the intended interpretation as least and greatest fixed-points in a total setting.

**Examples 1: Indexed recursive type** Datatypes \( C = \mu Y.\lambda X.D \) for \( D = \langle c_1 P_1 : \cdots : c_n P_n \rangle \) describe least fixed point. Choosing as index domain natural numbers, we can model our previous definition of \( \mathbb{N} \) as follows in our core language.

\[
\begin{align*}
\mu \text{Msg}.\lambda X. \langle \text{Nil} : X = \text{zero} \times 1, \quad \\
\quad \text{Cons} : 
\quad \Sigma Y. \lambda X. X = \text{suc} \times Y \times (\text{Bit} \times \text{Msg} Y) \rangle
\end{align*}
\]

**Example 2: Indexed corecursive types** Record types \( C = \nu Z.\lambda X.R \) with \( R = \langle d_1 : N_1, \ldots, d_n : N_n \rangle \) are recursive labeled products and describe infinite data. As for data, non-recursive record types are encoded by a void \( \nu \)-abstraction \( \nu Z.\lambda X.R \). Consider our previous codata type definition for indexed streams, i.e. \( \Sigma \text{Str} \), with the three observations, \( \text{GetBit} \), \( \text{NextBits} \), and \( \text{Done} \). Depending on the index \( n \) we choose the corresponding observation. It directly translates to the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
\nu \text{Str}.\lambda M. \quad \{ \text{Done} : M = \text{zero} \rightarrow \uparrow \text{NextMsg} , \\
\quad \text{NextBits} : \Pi N. \lambda M. M = \text{suc} N \rightarrow \text{Str} N , \\
\quad \text{GetBit} : \Pi N. \lambda M. M = \text{suc} N \rightarrow \uparrow \text{Bit} \}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\mu \text{NextMsg}. \quad \langle \text{NextMsg} : \Sigma N. \lambda i. \downarrow \text{Str} N \rangle
\]

Dually to data types where we employ \( \Sigma \) and product types, we use \( \Pi \) and simple function types when defining codata types.

**3.3 Terms and Typing**

In our core language, we distinguish between terms which have negative type and values which have positive type (see Fig. 7). Values include unit (written as \( () \)), pairs (written as \( (c_1, c_2) \)), dependent pairs (written as \( \text{pack} (C, c) \)). We also include data built using constructors (written as \( c \text{ v} \)). Finally we can embed computations into values using thunk \( t \). A thunk represents a term which is suspended and may produce a value at a later stage. Last but not least, we include the witness for equality between two index objects, written as \( \varphi \), in our values.

Computations (or terms) correspond to negative types. Computations include recursion (written as \( = \text{rec} f.e \)) and functions (written as \( = \text{fn} \overline{t} \)) which are defined by (co)pattern matching. In addition, we have application (written as \( t v \)), index domain application (written as \( t C \)) and destructor applications (written as \( \overline{t} d \)); given a term \( t \) describing infinite data we unfold its corresponding corecursive type to a record and select the component \( d \) of the record. Finally, we can force a suspended computation \( v \) using force \( v \) and produce a value (written as \( v \text{ produce} v \)). We also include a sequencing term which is written as \( t_1 \text{ to} t_2 \).

We eliminate expressions of positive type such as recursive terms via pattern matching; dually, we make observations about expressions of negative types such as corecursive types. Simultaneous (co)patterns are described using a spine that is built out of patterns (written as \( P \)), or observations (written as \( \varphi \)). Patterns themselves are derived from values and can be defined using pattern variables \( x, p \), pairs (written as \( (p_1, p_2) \)), pattern instances (written as \( \text{pack} (C, p) \)) and patterns formed with a data constructor \( c \).

Branches in case-expressions are modelled by \( q \mapsto t \). We also allow branches with no body – they will only succeed if the pattern \( q \) is impossible, i.e. we arrived at some equality constraints that lead to a contradiction. Strictly speaking, it is not necessary as we could always write some arbitrary expression for the body which would be inaccessible and thus never reached.

The typing rules for terms and values are mostly straightforward (see Fig. 8). We highlight here a few. Typing of index object \( C \) refers to typing of index-terms as described in Section 3.1. A constructor takes a term of type \( D_C = [\mu Y.\lambda X.D/Y, C/X] \), yielding a term of type \( \mu Y.\lambda X.D \). A thunk of a computation is well typed, if the computation itself is. The witness for an equality \( C_1 = C_2 \) is simply \( \varphi \) provided \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) are equal in our index domain using our rules from Fig. 2. As we have constraints in \( \Delta \) we also include type conversion rules (\( T_{\text{Pcon}} \) and \( T_{\text{Ccon}} \)).

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta \vdash P = P' \quad \text{(resp.} \Delta \vdash N = N') \quad \text{is defined inductively on the structure of positive and negative types.}
\end{align*}
\]

When we compare \( \Delta \vdash (P C) = (P' C') \), we simply compare \( \Delta \vdash P = P' \) and for all \( i \) we have \( \Delta \vdash C_i = C_i' \) falling back to the comparison on index terms. We proceed similarly when comparing negative types.

A rec-expression introduces a variable of type \( \downarrow N \) in the type \( t \). Dual to a constructor, an observation \( d \) takes a term of type \( \nu Z.\lambda X.R \) yielding a term of type \( R_d [\nu Z.\lambda X.R/Z, C/X] \). For applications we ensure that we apply a term of function type to a value. The operational reading of \( t_1 \) to \( x_{t_2} \) is that we first evaluate the computations of \( t_1 \) to produce \( v_1 \) of type \( \uparrow P \), and

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\begin{align*}
\text{Values} & : \quad v ::= x | ( ) | (v_1, v_2) | \varphi | \text{thunk} t | c p | \text{pack} (C, p) \\
\text{Terms} & : \quad t ::= \text{rec} f.t | \text{fn} \overline{t} | t v | t C | \text{produce} v | t.d \\
& \quad | t_1 \text{ to} t_2 | \text{force} v \\
\text{Branch} & : \quad u ::= q \mapsto t | q \\
\text{Pattern} & : \quad p ::= x | ( ) | (p_1, p_2) | \varphi | c p | \text{pack} (C, p) \\
\text{Copattern} & : \quad q ::= \cdot | p q | C q | d q
\end{align*}
\caption{Values, Terms, (Co)patterns}
\end{figure}
\[
\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash (:) : 1 )</td>
<td>Value Typing: In index-context ( \Delta ) and context ( \Gamma ), value ( v ) has positive type ( P ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash x : P )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash x : P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash v_1 : P_1 )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash v_2 : P_2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash C : U )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P[C/X] )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P[C/X] )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{pack} \ (C, v) : \Xi \times U, P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash c : \Sigma )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : \mu^\Delta X.D )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{const} )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{pack} \ (C, v) : \Sigma \times U, P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{prod} )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{prod} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{record} )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{record} )</td>
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<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{force} )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{force} )</td>
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<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{produce} )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{produce} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash u_i : N )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash u_i : N )</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Computation typing: In index-context \( \Delta \) and context \( \Gamma \), term \( t \) has negative type \( N \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma, x : \downarrow N \vdash t : N )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{rec} \ x.t : N )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{fn} \ u \ : \ N )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{fn} \ u \ : \ N )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{fn} \ u \ : \ N )</td>
<td>( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{fn} \ u \ : \ N )</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Then evaluate the term \( t_2 \) where we replace \( x \) by the value \( v_1 \). This is captured in the typing rule for to-statements.

The function abstraction (written as \( \text{fn} \ u \)) introduces branches \( u \) of the form \( q \mapsto t \). A branch is well typed if the copattern \( q \) checks against the overall type \( N \) of the function and synthesizes a new index-context \( \Delta' \), a new context \( \Gamma' \), and the output type \( N' \), against which the term \( t \) is checked. The contexts \( \Delta' \) and \( \Gamma' \) describe the types of the variables occurring in the pattern together with equality constraints. Note that \( \Delta' \) not only accumulates equality constraints, but might also contain a contradiction, if some equality constraint is not satisfied. Our typing rules will then still guarantee that the body \( t \) is effectively simply typed, as all equality constraints will be trivially true.

As mentioned earlier, we also allow branches that only consist of a copattern but without a body to allow the programmer to write inaccessible (co)patterns. We check such branches by verifying that \( \Delta' \) contains a contradiction. In this case, we know that the branch cannot be taken during runtime; it is essentially dead-code and we simply succeed.

The typing rules for (co)patterns (see Fig. 9) are defined using the following two judgments:

\( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash p : P \setminus \Delta; \Gamma' \) Typing for pattern \( p \)
\( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash q : \Delta' \setminus \Gamma' \) Typing for copattern \( q \)

In both typing judgments, the index-context \( \Delta \) and the context \( \Gamma \) contain variable declarations that were introduced at the outside. We assume that all variables occurring in the (co)pattern are fresh with respect to \( \Delta \) and \( \Gamma \) and occur linearly, although this is not explicitly enforced in our rules. When we check a pattern \( p \) against a positive type \( P \) in the index-context \( \Delta \) and context \( \Gamma \), we synthesize an index-context \( \Delta' \) such that \( \Delta' \) is an extension of \( \Delta \) (i.e. \( \Delta \prec \Delta' \)) and \( \Gamma' \) is an extension of \( \Gamma \). We note that as we check the pattern \( p \) we may update and constrain some of the variables already present in \( \Delta \). This happens in the rule \( P_{\text{con}} \) where we fall back to type checking patterns in our domain and in the rule \( P_{\text{eq}} \) where we unify two index objects \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) and return a new index-context \( \Delta' \) such that \( \Delta' \supset C_1 = C_2 \). For simplicity, we thread through both the index-context \( \Delta \) and the context \( \Gamma \), although only \( \Delta \) may actually be refined.

The typing rules for patterns are straightforward except for equality. A pattern \( \varphi \) checks against \( C_1 \equiv C_2 \) provided that \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) unify in our domain and \( \Delta' \) contains the solution which makes \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) equal. It might also be the case that \( C_1 \) does not unify with \( C_2 \), i.e. there is no instantiation for the index-variables in \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) that makes \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) equal. In this case, we expect the judgment \( \Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2 \) \( \Delta' \) \# \( \Delta' \) to introduce in \( \Delta' \) a contradiction \( \# \) which will make typing of the expression in the branch trivial as the branch is inaccessible. This is necessary for the substitution lemma to hold.

Copatterns allow us to make observations on a negative type \( N \) in the index-context \( \Delta \) and context \( \Gamma \). As we process the copattern spine from left to right, we synthesize a negative type \( N' \). Intuitively, \( N' \) is the suffix of \( N \). As copatterns also contain patterns we also return a new index-context \( \Delta' \) and context \( \Gamma' \). To illustrate this we give the typing derivation for the copattern spine \( [s \ R \ s \ R .. \ R \ R \ .. \ R \ S] \) which arises from the program \( \text{Magthr} \) given in Sec. 2.1. This copattern spine is represented in our core language as \( (s \ N) \ s \ n.s \ R \text{getBit} \ M \ R \). We now show that it checks against \( \Pi \text{n:nat}. \text{Bit Stream} \rightarrow [	ext{nat}] \text{Stream} \rightarrow \text{Str} N \). After inferring the type of \( N \) and introducing declarations for \( s \) and \( n.s \), we need to show that \( \text{getBit} \ M \ R \) has type \( \text{str} \ N \) in the context \( \text{N:nat} \) and the context \( \Gamma = s \text{: Bit Stream}, n.s : [	ext{nat}] \text{Stream} \). Recall, we write \( [	ext{nat}] \) as a notation for \( \Sigma X : \text{nat}.1 \). We show the partial typing derivation in Fig. 9.
Pattern $p$ of positive type $P$ extends contexts $\Delta;\Gamma$ into $\Delta';\Gamma'$.

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash x : P \searrow \Delta;\Gamma : x : P$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash c : p : (pY.\lambda X.D) \searrow \Delta';\Gamma'$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash p_1 : P_1 \searrow \Delta';\Gamma' \Delta';\Gamma' \vdash p_2 : P_2 \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash \text{pack} \langle C, p \rangle : \Sigma X.U.P \searrow \Delta';\Gamma'$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash C_1 = C_2 \searrow \Delta';\Gamma'$

$\Delta;\Gamma ; N \vdash q \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma'' \Delta'';\Gamma'' \vdash p : P \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma'' \Delta'';\Gamma'' \vdash N \rightarrow p . q \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash \text{genBitStr} \searrow \Delta';\Gamma' \Delta';\Gamma' \vdash \text{NextBits} \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma'' \Delta'';\Gamma'' \vdash N \rightarrow q . \text{NextBits} \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash \text{RBG} \searrow \Delta';\Gamma' \Delta';\Gamma' \vdash \text{RandomBigGen} \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma'' \Delta'';\Gamma'' \vdash N \rightarrow \text{pack} \langle (\text{success zero}) \rangle \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash \text{Done} \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$

$\Delta;\Gamma ; N \vdash \text{NextMsg} \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$

$\Delta;\Gamma \vdash \text{pack} \langle (\text{success zero}), \text{genBitStr} \rangle \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$

Example 3: Recall our previous program $\text{genBitStr}$ which generated $\text{Str}$ [2]. Abbreviating $\text{RandomBitGenerator}$ simply by $\text{RBG}$, this program can be elaborated into our core language straightforwardly to a program of type $\text{Str}$ 2.

```
rec \text{genBitStr}.\text{fn}
| \text{.GetBit} \text{ (success zero)} \varnothing \mapsto \text{RandomBigGen} ()
| \text{.NextBits} \text{ (success zero)} \varnothing \mapsto \text{RandomBigGen} ()
| \text{.NextBits} \text{ (success zero)} \varnothing \mapsto \text{NextMsg} \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$
```

Example 4: Next, we consider the translation of $\text{readMsg}$.  

```
rec \text{readMsg}.\text{fn}
| \text{zero} \mapsto \text{produce} \langle \text{Nil} \rangle \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''
| \text{success} \mapsto \text{produce} \langle \text{Cons} \rangle \searrow \Delta'';\Gamma''$
```

This function describes some explanation. The type of $\text{readMsg}$ is translated to $\Pi N.\text{Nat} \langle \langle \text{\text{Str}} N \rangle \searrow \langle \langle \text{\text{Msg}} N \rangle \times \langle \langle \text{\text{Str}} z \rangle \rangle \rangle$. Since $\text{Str} N$ is in negative position, it needs to have positive type (thus the $\ll$) and so the input $s$ of the function is in fact a thunk that needs to be forced before we can use the observations $\text{.GetBit}$ and $\text{.NextBits}$. The recursive call needs to be forced because the variable $\text{readMsg}$ needs to be positive to live in the context. Let-statements are defined as to-statements whose left-hand side produces a value, that is then bound to the variable $c$ and $x$, respectively. Moreover, the second let-statement in the original program also used pattern matching. Our language does not have case-expression. Hence, we use a function to pattern match on $x$. The output needs to be of negative type but we want to return a product which is positive. It is thus embedded using a produce-statement. This also allows the recursive call to be put on the left-hand side of a to-statement.

4. Evaluation and type preservation

In this section, we present a small step operational semantics using evaluation contexts (continuations) following Levy (2001). We also define a non-deterministic coverage algorithm and prove that our operational semantics satisfies subject reduction and progress.

4.1 Evaluation contexts

Evaluation contexts are defined inductively. We start from a hole $\epsilon$ and we accumulate values, index objects, observations, and suspended-to-bindings.

```
\text{Evaluation Context} K ::= \epsilon | v \text{ K} | C \text{ K} | \epsilon d \text{ K} | [\epsilon t] \text{ K}
```

We note that we only collect closed values, index objects, etc. in the evaluation context and hence the typing judgment for them does not carry any contexts. We use the following judgment to define well-typed evaluation contexts:

```
N \vdash \epsilon N \searrow N'
```

Evaluation context $K$ transforms $N$ to $N'$.  

The negative type $N$ describes some computation $t$ which when used in the evaluation context $K$ returns a computation of type $N'$. Intuitively, $t$ stands for a function $\langle \epsilon q_i \mapsto t_i \rangle$ and we match the evaluation context $K$ against the copattern spine $q_i$ and consume part of $K$ to take a step. As evaluation contexts closely cor-
respond to copattern spines, their typing rules follow the ones for (co)patterns.

When the evaluation context is empty (rule K_base), we simply return N. Intuitively, nothing is applied to the computation of type N. If we have a computation of type P → N and our evaluation context provides a value v of type P, then we check that, given a computation of type N, applying the remaining evaluation context takes us to N'. To evaluate an expression N ML-like languages with copattern matching. More importantly, it directly gives rise to continuation-based abstract machine semantics. We might view our small step operational semantics.

4.2 Small step operational semantics

Unlike the language described by Abel et al. (2013) which presented programs as rewrite rules, we give here the operational semantics in a more traditional functional programming style using a continuation-based abstract machine semantics. We might view our language as a core language into which we can compile programs given as rewrite rules to. More importantly, it directly gives rise to an implementation and illustrates how to extend more traditional ML-like languages with copattern matching.

Our operational semantics is defined on configurations t; K which contain a term and an evaluation context. Such a pair is said to have type N' (written t; K : N') if t : N and K : N'. The rules for the operational semantics on configurations are defined in Fig. 10. To evaluate an expression t1 to x.t2, we evaluate t1 in the evaluation context extended with [] to x.t2. Once we have a value v for t1 we pop off [] to x.t2 and continue evaluating t2[v/x]. Forcing thunks continues the evaluation. When processing applications (i.e. applications to a value, an index object or an observation), we simply extend our evaluation context accordingly until we step a configuration fn (q → t1); K. In this case, we match the evaluation context K against the copattern spine qi yielding (θ; σ) and then step t1[θ; σ].

Next, we prove that types are preserved during evaluation (see Theorem 4). This relies on substitution lemmas for values and computations and adequacy of copattern matching. For convenience, we describe well-typed environments (θ; σ) and generalize the relationship between the computation of the type N and an evaluation context K that transforms N into N'.

4.3 Coverage

In this section, we define a notion of coverage for copatterns, which allows us to prove a type safety result in the next section. To define coverage, we need to take into account that a function abstraction can be underapplied, i.e., it will not trigger a reduction step unless we add more to the evaluation context. To take into account such possibility, we need to introduce some notation. We define the append operation of evaluation contexts, denoted K ⊕ k, where k = d ∪ v ∪ [x] to n | C which adds to the end an evaluation context. We also use this operation on copatterns.

We now define coverage. The main judgment ∆; Γ; N ⊣ Q defined in Figure 11 means that the (finite) set Q of copatterns covers the type N in context ∆; Γ. It is established by iteratively refining a covering set, beginning with the trivial copattern. It is easiest to read the rules from the top to the bottom. A covering set Q is refined by choosing a particular copattern q ⊣ ∆'; Γ'; N' in Q and refining...
it further into a (finite) set of copatterns. This is accomplished using the auxiliary judgment \((q \triangleleft \Gamma; \cdot; N') \Rightarrow Q\)' which states that the copattern \(q\) refines into the set of copatterns \(Q\).

There are two different types of refinement which can be done. The first one is introducing the result type. We look at the type of a particular rule and we introduce it. If we have an arrow type \(P \rightarrow N\), we introduce a variable of that type, yielding the copattern \(q@x\). If we have a corecursive type, for each observation \(d \in R\), we create a new copattern \(q@d\) for each \(d \in R\).

The second type of refinement is the splitting on a variable. We expose a variable occurring in \(q\) and its type in \(\Delta\) or \(\Gamma\). We write \(q[x]\) for a copattern \(q\) with a single distinguished position in which the variable \(x\) occurs. We consider in this judgment the contexts to be unordered, so the notation \(\Gamma, x : P\) (or \(\Delta, x : U\)) is simply to expose any variable \(x \in \Gamma (x \in \Delta, \) respectively), no matter its actual position in the context. The splitting is done by examining the type of the exposed variable. If \(x : P_1 \times P_2\), we introduce two new variables \(x_1 : P_1\) and \(x_2 : P_2\) and perform the instantiation \(q[(x_1, x_2)]\). If the variable is of recursive type \(\mu Y.\lambda X.D\), \(C\), we introduce a new copattern for each constructor \(e \in D\) with the variable replaced by \(x'\) where \(x' : D_{\mu Y.\lambda X.D}; e[X]\). If we have an equality constraint \(C_1 = C_2\), we attempt to unify them. If they cannot be unified, we record this copattern as unreachable, marking it with \(\bot\). Again we omit for space reasons rules which perform further refinements on unreachable copatterns.

When splitting on an index variable in \(\Delta\), we use the splitting mechanism from the index domain, as discussed in Section 3.1 which produces a set of refined patterns \(\{(\Delta_i, C_i) \mid i \in I\}\). We then return the refined set of copatterns \(q[C_i/X]\) for each \(x \in I\).

Our coverage algorithm generates a covering set \(Q\). However, it does not account for writing overlapping and fall-through patterns. In this sense, our notion of coverage is not complete: there are sets \(Q\) of copatterns which a programmer might write in a program and one would consider covering, but for which one cannot derive \(\Delta; \Gamma; N \notin \vec{Q}\). However, it would be possible to check that for all copattern spines \(q\) in the generated covering set \(Q\), there exists a copattern spines \(q'\) in a given program \(s.t. q\) is an instance of \(q'\). For simplicity, we omit this generalization.

With copattern refinement and coverage of evaluation contexts defined, we are able to prove some technical results which justify the soundness of the copattern refinement rules. The first of these states that if a copattern \(q\) matches an evaluation context \(K\), and \(q\) refines in one step into the set \(Q\) of copatterns, then eventually \(K\) will match one of the copatterns in \(Q\).

**Lemma 5. Soundness of copattern refinement**

If \((q \triangleleft \Delta; \cdot; N) \Rightarrow Q \land \vdash \theta; \sigma; K : \Delta; \Gamma; N \triangleleft \cdot P\) then there exists \(q' \triangleleft \Delta'; \cdot; N' \in Q \land \vdash \theta'; \sigma'; K' : \Delta'; \Gamma'; N' \triangleleft \cdot P\) such that \(q[\theta; \sigma]@K = q'[\theta'; \sigma']@K'\).

**Proof.** The proof is done by case analysis on \((q \triangleleft \Delta; \cdot; N) \Rightarrow Q\) and inversion on the typing \(\vdash \theta; \sigma; K : \Delta; \Gamma; N \triangleleft \cdot P\).

The soundness of our notion of coverage now follows easily. It states that if \(K\) is an evaluation context consuming type \(N\) and \(Q\) covers \(N\), then eventually \(K\) will match one of the copatterns in \(Q\).

**Corollary 6. Soundness of coverage**

If \(N \vdash K \triangleleft \cdot P\) and \(\vdash \cdot; N \notin \vec{Q}\), then there exists \((q \triangleleft \Delta; \cdot; N') \in Q\) and \(\vdash \theta; \sigma; K' : \Delta; \Gamma; N' \triangleleft \cdot P\) such that \(K = q[\theta; \sigma]@K'\).

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation of \(\vdash \cdot; N \notin \vec{Q}\).

In order for progress to hold for whole programs, we need the operational semantics to preserve coverage so that the program cannot become stuck under an incomplete copattern set. The only concern lies when a covering set is under a substitution.

**Lemma 7. Preservation of coverage under substitution.**

If \(\Delta; \Gamma; \cdot; (\theta; \sigma) \vdash \cdot; \sigma; K : \Delta; \Gamma; N \triangleleft \cdot I\) then there are \(\{\Delta_i; \Gamma_i\}_{i \in I}\) such that \(\Delta_i; \Gamma_i; N[\theta] \triangleleft \cdot I\) and for all \(i \in I\), \(\Delta_i; \Gamma_i; \cdot; (\theta; \sigma) \vdash \cdot; \sigma; K_i\).

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation \(\Delta; \Gamma; N \triangleleft \cdot I\).

We are now able to prove progress, assuming each copattern set \(Q\) used in a function abstraction is covering.

**Theorem 8. (Progress theorem)**

If \(\vdash t; K \triangleleft \cdot P\), then either \(t; K \rightarrow t'; K\) or \(t; K = \text{produce } v\).

**Proof.** By case analysis on \(t\).

If \(t\) is of the form \(t', d\), or \(t'\), or \(t'\), or \(t'\), or \(t'\), or \(t'\), or \(\text{rec } f.t'\), then there is a stepping rule. If \(t\) is produce \(v\) we have two cases: If \(K = \cdot\), we are done. If \(K = [\{ t \rightarrow t'\}] K'\), then it steps to \(\text{[v/}[t]t'; K'\).

The last case is \(t = \text{fn } \bar{u}\). By assumption, if \(\vdash \text{fn } \bar{u} : N\), then we have \(N \triangleleft Q\) where \(Q\) is the set of copatterns in \(\bar{u}\). By Lemma 6, there exists \((q \triangleleft \Delta; \cdot; N') \in Q\) and \(\vdash \theta; \sigma; K' : \Delta; \Gamma; N' \triangleleft \cdot P\) such that \(K = q[\theta; \sigma]@K'\). Hence \(\text{fn } \bar{u}; K\) steps.

5. Related Work

Our work builds and extends directly the work by Levy (2001) to track data-dependencies in finite and infinite data. We model finite data using dependent sums and infinite data using dependent records where fields share a given index. This is in contrast to dependent records that allow a particular field to depend on previous ones (Betarte 1998).

Most closely related to our development is the work on DML (Xi and Pfening 1999) where the authors also accumulate equality constraints during type checking to reason about indices. However, in DML all indices are erased before running the program while we reason about indices and their instantiation during run-time. As indices are also computationally relevant in fully dependently typed languages, we believe our work lays the ground of understanding the interaction of indices and (co)pattern matching in these languages. Finally, our work may be seen as extending DML to support both lazy and eager evaluation using (co)pattern matching.

Dependent type theories provide in principle support to track data dependencies on infinite data, although this has not received much attention in practice. Agda (?), a dependently typed proof and programming environment based on Martin Löf’s type theory, has support for copatterns since version 2.3.4 (Agda team 2014). We can directly define equality guards and using large eliminations we can match on index arguments. We use dot-patterns to instruct Agda that the instantiation of a particular index is forced which allows us to recover the simplicity and performance of linear pattern matching. However, we believe the meta-theory underlying these extensions is not fully understood. We see our work as providing a foundation for what dot-patterns accomplish and investigating clearly the interactions between equality constraints and (co)pattern matching.

Our work draws on the distinction between finite data defined by constructors and infinite data described by observations which was pioneered by Hagino (1987). Hagino models finite objects via initial algebras and infinite objects via final coalgebras in category theory. This work, as others in this tradition such as Cockett and
Copattern $q$ refines into copatterns $Q$

\[ q \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma' ; N' \implies Q \]

(Johnson et al. 2004) propose typestates. While this work focuses on the integration of typestates with object-oriented features such as effects, subclasses, etc., we believe many of the same examples can be modelled in our framework.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(Co)Pattern Introduction} \\
(q \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma' ; X:U; N') &\implies \{q@X \downarrow \Delta', X:U; \Gamma' ; N'\} \\
(q \downarrow \Delta; \Gamma' \rightarrow N') &\implies \{q@x \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma', x:P; N'\} \\
(q \downarrow \Delta; \Gamma' ; (νZ.X.X.R)\tilde{C}) &\implies \{q@d \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma'; Ra[v₂X,R/x, \tilde{C}/x] | d \in R\}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Pattern Refinement} \\
(q[x] \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma'; x : C_1=C_2; N') &\implies \{q[x] \downarrow \Delta''; \Gamma''\} & \text{provided } \Delta' \vdash C_1 = C_2 \downarrow \Delta'' \\
(q[x] \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma', x : P_1 \times P_2; N') &\implies \{q[(x_1, x_2)] \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma', x_1:P_1, x_2:P_2; N'\} \\
(q[x] \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma', x : \Sigma X.U; P; N') &\implies \{q[\text{pack} (X, x')] \downarrow \Delta', X:U; \Gamma', x':P; N'\} \\
(q[x] \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma', x : (\mu Y.X.D)\tilde{C}; N') &\implies \{q[c \ x'] \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma', x':D_a[a_\Delta Y.X.D]/x', \tilde{C}/x]; N' \mid c \in D\} \\
(q[X] \downarrow \Delta'; \Gamma'; N') &\implies \{q[C] \downarrow \Delta; (\Gamma'; N')\tilde{C}/X\} \in_{\in I} \text{ if split}(\Delta' \vdash X) = \{(\Delta_i \vdash C_i)\}_{i \in I}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \Gamma; N \not\in Q &\implies \Delta; \Gamma; N \not\in \{q \downarrow \Delta; \Gamma; N\} \\
\Delta; \Gamma; N \not\in \{Q \cup Q'\} &\implies Q'
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 11. Coverage

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we have presented an extension of a general purpose programming language with support for indexed (co)datatypes to allow the static specification and verification of invariants of infinite data such as streams or bisimulation properties. In our development we keep the index domain abstract and clearly state structural requirements our index domain must satisfy. Our language extends Levy (2001)’s call-by-push value with indexed (co)datatypes and deep (co)pattern matching. We use equality constraints to reason about dependencies between index arguments providing a clean foundation for dependent (co)pattern matching. We describe the operational semantics using a continuation-based abstract machine and prove that our language’s operational semantics preserves types. We also provide a non deterministic algorithm to generate covering sets of copatterns, ensuring that terms do not get stuck during evaluation.

In the future, we plan to address two main directions: first, we aim to prove normalization of our language restricting our programs to total functions. This then justifies the use of our core language as a proof language for developing coinductive proofs; second, we will extend this work to full dependent types providing a foundation for Agda and Coq.

References


A. Appendix

A.1 Fair scheduling

For the first example, we choose as an index domain bool together with the constant tt and ff. We define here the fair interleavings of two streams using an indexed data type Flip.

**data** Flip (B:bool) (B':bool) : type =  
| Flip0: B = ff * B' = tt * 1  
| Flip1: B = tt * B' = ff * 1 ;

**data** Bit (B:bool) : type =  
| F: B = ff * 1  
| T: B = tt * 1

We want to implement a fair merge of two streams. Here we zip a stream of zeroes and a stream of ones together and return a stream that alternates between zeroes and ones. We describe the type of the alternating bit stream as follows:

**codata** Alt (B:bool) → type =  
| Zero: B = ff → Bit [ff]  
| One : B = tt → Bit [tt]  
| Next: B':bool. Flip B B' → Alt [B']

We index the fair bit stream Alt with a boolean flag. If the flag is false (i.e. ff), we can observe a zero; if the flag is true (i.e. tt), we can observe a one. In both situations we can also always ask for the next bit using the observation Next, but we flip the boolean flag before proceeding to return more bits. Let us see how we zip a stream of zeroes and ones together to an alternating bit stream that starts with a zero. It essentially produces a stream

F F T F T F T F T ...

**rec** merge: (Bit[ff]) Stream → (Bit[tt])Stream → Alt[ff] =  
fn s0 s1. Zero φ ⇒ s0.Head  
| s0 s1.Next [tt] (Flip0 (φ, ψ, ())) .One ψ ⇒ s1.Head  
| s0 s1.Next [tt] (Flip1 (φ, ψ, ())) ⇒  

Next [ff] (Flip1 (φ, ψ, ())) ⇒  
merge s0.Tail s1.Tail

merge s0 s1 will produce a stream upon which we can make different observations. If we ask for .Zero, we simply return the head of the first stream s0. Note that we cannot ask for .One immediately, since we are making observations about Alt [ff]. We hence must first ask for the next element using the observation .Next and provide a witness that we can flip tt to ff. Providing tt and Flip0 as such a witness, we obtain a stream Alt [tt] upon which we can now ask for .One. We can however also ask for more bits, by now flipping tt to ff again via the witness Flip1, and merging the s0.Tail and s1.Tail.

This example illustrates the power of mixing pattern and copattern matching. If we think of the streams s0 and s1 as streams of requests, zipping both streams together guarantees that we alternate between requests from stream s0 and s1, hence guaranteeing fairness.

Another scheduling example is the following: given three streams, the first one sends a’s, the second one b’s, and the third one c’s, we want to first serve c, followed by b followed by a and then restart with c.
This can be viewed as a variation of the alternating bit stream where we cycle between the three streams. We choose again nat as our index domain. First, we define values a, b, c of priority 1, 2, and 3 resp. The stream that cycles between elements of priority 1, priority 2, and priority 3 is defined as a codata type CycStr.

data Val (N:nat) : type =
| a: N = z + 1
| b: N = s z + 1
| c: N = s (s z) + 1

codata CycStr (N:nat) : type =
| GetVal : Val [N] !

rec cycle:(Val [s z]) Stream → (Val [s z]) Stream
→ (Val [s (s z)]) Stream → CycStr [s (s z)] =
fn s a b c .GetVal ⇒ c
| s a b c .Next [s z] .GetVal ⇒ b
| s a b c .Next [s z] .Next [s z] .GetVal ⇒ a
| s a b c .Next [s z] .Next [z] .GetVal ⇒ a
| cycle s a .Tail s b .Tail s c .Tail

Finally, we merge three streams of different priority such that we cycle between them and treat each stream fairly.

A.2 Type-Preserving Evaluator with Environments

Next, we consider the implementation of a type preserving evaluator using environment. Environments are lists of values, but values themselves are modelled coinductively following (Milner and Tofte 1991).

Choosing as an index language the logical framework LF (Harper et al. 1993) we can elegantly define a fragment of MiniML consisting of functions, function application, and fix points to model recursive functions exploiting higher-order abstract syntax representation. We define only well-typed terms by defining the type family tm which is indexed by MiniML types tp. To model binding in MiniML, we exploit the LF function space taking advantage of higher-order abstract syntax encoding. For example, we map MiniML functions to objects define with the constructor lam with one argument of type tm A → B; and we map MiniML fixpoints to the constructor fix with one argument of type tm (arr A B) → tm A → tm B where tm (arr A B) stands for the name of the recursive function we want to define, tm A stands for the argument, and tm B describes the body of the recursive functions.

LF tp : type =
| arr : tp → tp → tp
| c : tp

LF tm : tp → type =
| app : (tm (arr A B) → tm A → tm B)
| lam : (tm A → tm B) → tm (arr A B)
| fix : (tm (arr A B) → tm A → tm B) → tm (arr A B)

Our goal is to write a recursive function that evaluates a term \( M \) in an environment which provides values for all the variables in \( M \). To accomplish this we rely on ideas from the Beluga, a programming and proof environment that uses contextual LF with first-class contexts as an index domain (Pientka and Cave 2015; Cave and Pientka 2012). Contextual LF allows us to work with a term \( M \) in the context \( \psi \) in which it is meaningful. Just as kinds classify types and types classify terms, schemas classify contexts. In our example, the context \( \psi \) consists of assumptions \( \text{tm A} \) for some type \( A \). This is captured using the following schema declaration schema

```
closure M := \psi
```

The environment can then be defined inductively as a list of values. We index the environment by the context \( \psi \) to guarantee that indeed the environment provides well-typed values for all variables in the context \( \psi \).

```
data Environ (ψ:ctx) : type =
| Empty : ψ = []
```

The interesting question is how to define \( \text{Val} \) \([A]\). A value is a closure of an open term \( \psi \) in a context \( \psi \), \( x:tm A \) together with an environment \( \text{Env} \) \([\psi]\). We note that \( \text{Env} \) \([\psi]\) might have references to itself and closures might be circular. Thus, we define values coinductively.

```
and codata Val (T,tp) : type =
and data Closure (T,tp) : type =
| T = arr A B * [ψ, x:tm A] → tm B] * Env [ψ]
```

Making an observation about a value of type \( \text{arr} \ A \ B \) yields a closure of the same type. Since we only have functions as values, this is the only observation we can make. Were we to add also numbers, we would need to add observations for \text{Val} \([\text{nat}]\).

Closures are then defined using a recursive type pairing the open term of type \( \text{tm} \ B \) which depends on variables in \( \psi \), \( x:tm A \) with the environment providing values for variables in \( \psi \).

To accomplish this we rely on ideas from the Beluga, a program-

```
Implementing the pi-calculus in LF, we can then define bisimulation coinductive properties about formal systems specified in LF. Im-
```

A.3 Bisimulation of Automata

In this section, we define an index domain of states, actions, transi-

```
tions and final states allowing us to describe automata. We can also think of encoding it in LF and choose LF as our index domain, as we did in the previous example. Then, we proceed two describe bisimulation of states and to prove that states in two different au-
```

```
tomata are bisimilar.
```

The index domain contains four different types. The two firsts are state and action whose terms are simply constants. Our exam-

```
ple will assume there are five states denoted \( s_1, s_2, s_3, l_1, \) and
```

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short description of paper
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2016/3/17
fn [ψ] [A] [ψ ⊢ p] env ⇒ lookup [ψ ⊢ p] env
  Closure <ψ, φ, A, (ψ, x : tm A ⊢ E), env> ->
| [ψ] [app a b] [ψ ⊢ E1 E2] env ⇒
  let v1 = eval [ψ] [arr a b] [ψ ⊢ E1] env in
  let v2 = eval [ψ] [A] [ψ ⊢ E2] env in
  eval [ψ] [B] [ψ ⊢ x : tm A ⊢ E] (Cons <ψ, φ, A, (ψ, v2, env)>>)
| [ψ] [fix a b] [ψ ⊢ A] env ⇒
  unfold [ψ] [A] [ψ, f : tm (arr a b)], x : tm A ⊢ E] Env [ψ] → Val [arr a b] =
fn [ψ] [A] [B] [ψ, f, x ⊢ E] env Val ⇒
  Closure <ψ, φ, A, (ψ, f, x : tm (arr a b)), x : tm A ⊢ E],
  (Cons <ψ, φ, arr a b, (ψ, (unfold [ψ] [A] [B] t env), env)))>>

fn [ψ] [A] [B] [ψ, f, x ⊢ E] env Val ⇒
  Closure <ψ, φ, A, (ψ, f, x : tm (arr A B)), x : tm A ⊢ E],
  (Cons <ψ, φ, arr A B, (ψ, (unfold [ψ] [A] [B] t env), env)))>>

Figure 12. Environment-based evaluator

Figure 13. Two automata

t2 but we can assume the type is inhabited by arbitrarily many of those. Similarly, we will assume that we have two actions a and b, but we could have arbitrarily many.

The other two types are the types of transitions and final states. Transitions are indexed by two states and an action, while final states are indexed by the state they represent. They are again inhabited by constants. We have s1-a-s2 to denote the single term of type transition s1 a s2. We assume we have such a term for every edge in our automata. The list is the following.

s1-a-s2 : transition s1 a s2.
s1-b-s3 : transition s1 b s3.
s2-a-s1 : transition s2 a s1.
s2-b-s1 : transition s2 b s1.
s3-a-s1 : transition s3 a s1.
s3-b-s1 : transition s3 b s1.
t1-a-t2 : transition t1 a t2.
t1-b-t2 : transition t1 b t2.
t2-a-t1 : transition t2 a t1.
t2-a-t1 : transition t2 a t1.

For final states, we have final-s1 and final-t1 to denote the terms of the types final s1 and final t1. The automata are drawn in Figure 13.

Bisimulation of states is then defined through a codata type. It contains four different observations. The first observation describes that S is similar to T, namely that a state s is similar to a state t if for all actions a and states s' if there is a transition from s to s' using A, then there is a state t' and a transition from t to t' using A such that s' is bisimilar with t'. The second observation represents the other direction. The third and fourth observations describe that S is a final state if and only if T is a final state.

codata Bisim (S : state) (T : state) : type =
  Π Tr : transition S A S'. Σ T' : state.
  Σ Tr' : transition T A T'. Bisim [S'] [T']
  Π Tr : transition T A T'. Σ S' : state.
  Σ Tr' : transition S A S'. Bisim [S'] [T']
| FinalL : Π f : final S. Σ t' : final T. 1
| FinalR : Π f : final T. Σ s' : final S. 1

Now we can go on and prove that s1 and t1 are bisimilar and that t2 is bisimilar with both s2 and s3. This is defined using the following mutually recursive terms.

rec bisim-s1-t1 : Bisim [s1] [t1]
fn .Left [A] [S] [s1-a-s2] ⇒
  <t2, <t1-a-t2, bisim-s2-t2>>
| .Left [A] [S] [s1-b-s3] ⇒
  <t2, <t1-b-t2, bisim-s3-t2>>
| .Right [A] [S] [t1-a-t2] ⇒
  <s2, <s1-a-s2, bisim-s2-t2>>
| .Right [A] [S] [t1-b-t2] ⇒
  <s3, <s1-b-s3, bisim-s3-t2>>
| .FinalL [final-s1] ⇒<final-t, ()>
| .FinalR [final-t] ⇒<final-s, ()>

and bisim-s2-t2 : Bisim [s2] [t2]
fn .Left [A] [S] [s2-a-s1] ⇒
  <t1, <t2-a-t1, bisim-s1-t1>>
| .Left [A] [S] [s2-b-s1] ⇒
  <t1, <t2-b-t1, bisim-s1-t1>>
| .Right [A] [S] [t2-a-t1] ⇒
  <s1, <s2-a-s1, bisim-s1-t1>>
| .Right [A] [S] [t2-b-t1] ⇒
  <s1, <s2-a-s1, bisim-s1-t1>>

and bisim-s3-t2 : Bisim [s3] [t2]
fn .Left [A] [S] [s3-a-s1] ⇒
  <t1, <t2-a-t1, bisim-s1-t1>>
| .Left [A] [S] [s3-b-s1] ⇒
  <t1, <t2-b-t1, bisim-s1-t1>>
| .Right [A] [S] [t2-a-t1] ⇒
  <s1, <s3-a-s1, bisim-s1-t1>>
| .Right [A] [S] [t2-b-t1] ⇒
  <s1, <s3-a-s1, bisim-s1-t1>>

In order for the types of those terms to make sense, we must have that the introduction of the pattern [s3-a-s1] fixes constraints on A and S. As such, the pattern judgment Δ ⊢ C : U \ Δ' will refine the type of variables in Δ', unlike in the definition of our index domain of natural numbers.

In addition, we have no copattern branch for .FinalL and .FinalR when dealing with the non final states. If no term of type

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A.4 Proofs

Lemma 1. If $\Delta \vdash C_1 \equiv C_2 \not\vdash \Delta'$ and $\Delta_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta$ then there is $\Delta'_1$ such that $\Delta_1 \vdash \theta \equiv C_2[\theta] \not\vdash \Delta'_1$ and $\Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta'$.

Proof. From $\Delta \vdash C_1 \equiv C_2 \not\vdash \Delta'$, we have $\Delta \vdash C_1 : U$ and $\Delta \vdash C_2 : U$. Hence, $\Delta_1 \vdash C_1[\theta] : U[\theta]$ and $\Delta_1 \vdash C_2[\theta] : U[\theta]$.

By Rec. 2, there is a $\Delta_1'$ such that $\Delta_1 \vdash C_1[\theta] = C_2[\theta] \not\vdash \Delta'_1$. Thus, $\Delta'_1 \vdash C_1[\theta]$ and $\Delta_1 \not\vdash \Delta'_1$. But then $\Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta'_1$.

By composition of substitutions, $\Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta$. By Rec. 3, we can deduce that $\Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta'$.

Lemma A.1. If $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash p : P \not\vdash \Delta'; \Gamma'$ and $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash (\theta; \sigma) : (\Delta; \Gamma)$ then there are $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash p : P[\theta; \sigma] \not\vdash \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$ and $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash (\theta; \sigma) : (\Delta'; \Gamma')$.

Proof. Implicitly here we assume that the variables bound in $p$ are fresh for $dom(\theta; \sigma)$.

By induction on $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash p : P \not\vdash \Delta'; \Gamma'$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash x : P \not\vdash \Delta; x : P$

Trivially, $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash x : P[\theta; \sigma] \not\vdash \Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash x : P[\theta; \sigma]$. Then, $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash x : P[\theta; \sigma] \not\vdash (\Delta; \Gamma) \vdash x : P[\theta; \sigma]$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \epsilon : 1 \not\vdash \Delta ; \Gamma$

Trivial.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash p : D[\mu Y.X.D/X, \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{X}] \not\vdash \Delta' ; \Gamma'$

By induction hypothesis, there are $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash p : D[\mu Y.X.D/X, \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{X}] \not\vdash \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$ and $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash (\theta; \sigma) : (\Delta'; \Gamma')$.

Hence, $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash p : D[\mu Y.X.D/X, \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{X}] \not\vdash \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash p_1 \not\vdash \Delta ; \Gamma$

By induction hypothesis, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash p_1 : P_1 \not\vdash \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$ and $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash (\theta; \sigma) : (\Delta'; \Gamma')$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash p_1 . p_2 : P_1 \times P_2 \not\vdash \Delta' ; \Gamma'$

By induction hypothesis, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash p_1 . p_2 : P_1 \times P_2[\theta; \sigma] \not\vdash \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$ and $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash (\theta; \sigma) : (\Delta'; \Gamma')$.

Lemma A.2. If $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P \not\vdash \Delta'; \Gamma'$ and $\Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Gamma$ then there are $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash q : \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

Proof. Implicitly here we assume that the variables bound in $q$ are fresh for $dom(\theta; \sigma)$.

By induction on $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash q : \Delta'; \Gamma'$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash q : \Delta'; \Gamma'$

Trivial.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash q : \Delta'; \Gamma'$

By induction hypothesis, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash q : \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

By induction hypothesis, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash q : \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

Hence, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash q : \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash q : \Delta'; \Gamma'$

By induction hypothesis, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash q : \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

By induction hypothesis, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash q : \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

Hence, we have $\Delta'_1$ and $\Gamma'_1$ such that $\Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1 \vdash q : \Delta'_1; \Gamma'_1$.

Lemma 2 (Substitution lemmas). The following hold

1. If $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P$ and $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta'$ then $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta'$.

2. If $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N$ and $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta'$ then $\Delta_1; \Gamma_1 \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : N[\theta; \sigma]$.

Proof. The proof of both statements is done by mutual induction on the derivations of $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P$ and $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N$, respectively. Let us start with the cases for Statement 1.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta$

$T_{\text{Unat}}$

Trivial as $[\theta; \sigma]() = ()$.

Case $\Gamma(x) = P$

$T_{\text{Var}}$

By definition of $\Delta_1; \Gamma' \vdash \theta : \Gamma[\theta]$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P$

By definition of $\Delta_1; \Gamma' \vdash \theta : \Gamma[\theta]$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N$

By induction on $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta$

By induction on $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta$.
Hence, $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash (v_1, v_2)[\theta; \sigma] : (P_1 \times P_2)[\theta]$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash C : U$; $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P[C/X]$

$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{pack} (C, v) : \Sigma X : U.P$ T\text{Pack}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash C[\theta] : U[\theta]$ by Requirement 1.

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : P[C/X][\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : P[\theta][C[\theta]/X]$ by properties of substitution

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash \text{pack} (C, v)[\theta; \sigma] : (\Sigma X : U.P)[\theta]$ T\text{Pack}

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : D_{\mu} \mu Y. X \times Y. \bar C / \bar X[\theta]$ T\text{Cont}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : D_{\mu} \mu Y. X \times Y. \bar C / \bar X[\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : (\mu Y. \mu X. \bar C / \bar X)[\theta]$ by properties of substitution

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash \text{pack} (\mu Y. \mu X. \bar C / \bar X)[\theta; \sigma]$ T\text{Cont}

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : P'$ T\text{Conv}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : P'[\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : P[\theta]$ by definition of equality judgment

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : P'[\theta]$ T\text{Conv}

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N$ T\text{Thunk}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : N[\theta]$ by Statement 2

Now, we prove the cases for Statement 2.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{rec } x : N$ T\text{Rec}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash \text{rec } x : N[\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash \text{rec } x.t[\theta; \sigma] : N[\theta]$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : D_{\mu} \mu Y. \bar C / \bar X[\theta]$ T\text{Dest}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t \circ d : D_{\mu} \mu Y. \bar C / \bar X[\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t \circ d.t[\theta; \sigma] : D_{\mu} \mu Y. \bar C / \bar X[\theta]$.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : P \rightarrow N$ T\text{App}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : P[\theta \rightarrow N[\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : P[\theta]$ by Statement 1

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : P[\theta]$ T\text{App}

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : \Pi X : U.N \Delta \vdash C : U$ T\text{MApp}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : \Pi X : U.N[\theta] \Delta \vdash C[\theta] : U[\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : \Pi X : U.N[\theta]$ by Requirement 1

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : \Pi X : U.N[\theta]$ T\text{MApp}

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash t : N'$ T\text{NConv}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : N'[\theta]$ by induction hypothesis

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : N'[\theta]$ by definition of equality

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash t[\theta; \sigma] : N'[\theta]$ T\text{NConv}

Case $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash v : N$ T\text{Force}

$\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash v[\theta; \sigma] : N[\theta]$ by definition of equality

Hence, $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash (\text{force } v)[\theta; \sigma] : N[\theta]$ T\text{Force}

Lemma 3 (Adequacy of copattern matching).

1. Suppose $\vdash v : P$. If $\vdash p : P \rightarrow \Delta; \Gamma$ and $\vdash v = p[\theta; \sigma]$ then $\vdash \theta : (\Delta; \Gamma)$.  
2. Suppose $N \vdash K \rightarrow \Delta; \Gamma$ and $N \vdash \tau$ then $N \vdash \tau$.  

Proof. By induction on the judgment $\vdash p : P \rightarrow \Delta; \Gamma$ and $N \vdash \tau$. We show some interesting cases:

Case $\vdash x : P \rightarrow \Delta; \Gamma$.

Then $\vdash \tau(x)$. So $\vdash \theta : (\tau(x))$ as required.

Hence, $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash (\tau(x))[\theta] : \Delta; \Gamma$.

By inversion lemma on $\vdash v : P$, we have $\vdash \theta : \Delta; \Gamma$.

Since $\vdash \theta : \tau$, we can use Req. 3, to conclude that $\vdash \theta : \Delta$ and thus $\vdash \theta : (\Delta; \Gamma)$.

Lemma 5. Soundness of copattern refinement.

If $(q \vdash \Delta; \Gamma ; N) \Rightarrow Q$ and $\vdash \theta ; \sigma \vdash K \vdash \Delta; \Gamma ; N \vdash P$ then there exists $q' \vdash \Delta'; \Gamma' ; N' \vdash Q$ and $\vdash \theta' ; \sigma' \vdash K' \vdash \Delta'; \Gamma' ; N' \vdash P$ such that $q[\theta; \sigma] \vdash K'[\theta'; \sigma'] \vdash K$.

Proof. The proof is done by case analysis on $(q \vdash \Delta; \Gamma ; N) \Rightarrow Q$ and inversion on the typing $\vdash \theta ; \sigma \vdash K \vdash \Delta; \Gamma ; N \vdash P$.

Lemma 7 (Preservation of coverage under substitution).

If $\Delta; \Gamma : N \vdash \{q_i \vdash \Delta_i; \Gamma_i; N_i\}_{i \in I}$ and $\Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash \{\theta_i \vdash \sigma_i \vdash \Delta_i; \Gamma_i; N_i\}_{i \in I}$ then there are $\{\Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i\}_{i \in I}$ such that $\Delta'; \Gamma' ; N[\theta] \vdash \{q_i \vdash \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i ; N'_i[\theta]\}_{i \in I}$ and for all $i \in I$, $\Delta_i; \Gamma_i \vdash \theta_i : \sigma_i : \Delta_i; \Gamma_i$.

Proof. Implicitly here we assume that the variables bound in $q_i$ are fresh for $dom(\theta; \sigma)$.

By induction on the derivation $\Delta; \Gamma ; N \vdash \{q_i \vdash \Delta_i; \Gamma_i; N_i\}_{i \in I}$. We show some interesting cases:

Case $\Delta; \Gamma ; N \vdash \{\vdash \Delta_i; \Gamma_i ; N_i\}$ Trivial.

Case $\Delta; \Gamma ; N \vdash \{Q \vdash \{q_i \vdash \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i ; N'_i[\theta]\}_{i \in I}\}$ by Requirement 1

Hence, $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash (\text{force } v)[\theta; \sigma] : N[\theta]$ T\text{Force}
Using the induction hypothesis, we have \(\{\Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i\}_{i \in I} \) where \( I \) is the index set for \( Q \cup \{ q \} \). Thus \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; N[\theta] \) and for all \( i \in I \), \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \sigma \) : \( \Delta_i; \Gamma_i \). Now, we need to show that for all \( i \in I' \) where \( I' \) is the index set for \( Q' \), we have \( \{\Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i\}_{i \in I'} \) such that \( q \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; N[\theta] \) and for all \( i \in I' \), \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \sigma \) : \( \Delta_i; \Gamma_i \). This is done by case analysis on \( \{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; N[\theta] \) from the induction hypothesis \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; N[\theta] \). The index domain contains \( \Delta_i; \Gamma_i \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i \) and \( \Delta_i; \Gamma_i \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma_i \)

Subcase \( \Delta_i; \Gamma_i \) : \( \Delta_i; \Gamma_i \)

\[
\{ q \Delta_i; \Gamma_i; N[\theta] \} \quad \{ q \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; N[\theta] \}
\]

By Lemma 1, there is a \( \Delta'_i \) such that \( \{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma_i \).

Thus, \( \{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma_i \).

\[
\{
\{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \}
\]

Subcase \( \{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma_i \).

Thus, \( \{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma_i \).

\[
\{
\{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \}
\]

Subcase \( \{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma_i \).

Thus, \( \{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \) and \( \Delta'_i; \Gamma_i \).

\[
\{
\{ q \} \Delta'_i; \Gamma'_i; \theta : \theta \}
\]

5.5 Index Domain: Natural Numbers

This section describes how the theory of Section 3.1 applies to an index domain of natural numbers. The index domain contains a single type \( \text{nat} \) and terms are simply made of zero, suc, and variables \( X \).

Meta-Type \( U ::= \text{nat} \)

Meta-Term \( C ::= X | \text{zero} \circ \text{suc} \)

The typing rules are the following. The judgment \( \Delta(X) = U \) applies whether \( X ::= C : U \in \Delta \) or \( X = U \in \Delta \).

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta \vdash \text{zero} : \text{nat} & \quad \Delta \vdash \text{suc} : \text{nat} \\
\Delta \vdash X : U & \quad \Delta \vdash X = U
\end{align*}
\]

Requirement 1 (Meta-Substitution Lemma).

If \( \Delta \vdash \theta : \Delta' \) and \( \Delta' \vdash C : U \) then \( \Delta \vdash C[\theta] : U[\theta] \).

Proof. By induction on \( \Delta' \vdash C : U \).

Case \( \Delta' \vdash \text{zero} : \text{nat} \)

Trivially, \( \Delta \vdash \text{zero} : \text{nat} \).

Case \( \Delta' \vdash \text{suc} : \text{nat} \)

By induction hypothesis, \( \Delta \vdash \text{nat} \).

Thus, \( \Delta \vdash \text{suc} : \text{nat} \).

Case \( \Delta' \vdash X : U \)

\[
\Delta \vdash C : U[\theta] \text{ by definition of substitution}
\]

\[\Delta \vdash C : U[\theta] \]

\[\Delta \vdash C : \text{nat} \]

\[\Delta \vdash \text{zero} : \Delta' \]

\[\Delta \vdash \text{suc} : C : \Delta' \]

\[\Delta \vdash X : U \]

\[\Delta \vdash X = U \]

Figure 14. Meta-Pattern Checking Rules

The pattern checking rules are defined in Figure 3. The unification appears in Figure 4. The judgment \( \Delta \vdash \text{occurs}^0(X, C) \) defines the occurs check which needs to take into account the occurrences of \( X \) in the constraints in \( \Delta \). The judgment \( \Delta \vdash \Delta_0.X:U.X_1 \) describes that \( \Delta_0.X:U.X_1 \) is a wellformed meta-context obtained through a permutation of \( \Delta \).
Subcase: \( X : U \in \Delta_1 \): i.e \( \Delta_1 \) is of the form \( \Delta_2, X : U, \Delta_3 \). Then we have \( \Delta \vdash X = C_2 \setminus \Delta_0, \Delta_2, X : C_2 : U, \Delta_3 \).

**Lemma A.5.** If \( \Delta \vdash C = \text{suc}^n \) \( C \) then \# \( \notin \) \( \Delta \).

**Proof.** By lexicographic induction on \( \Delta \) and \( C \).

- Case \( C = \text{zero} \). Then \# \( \in \) \( \Delta \) by inversion.
- Case \( C = \text{suc} \). Then \( \Delta \vdash C' = \text{suc}^n C' \) by injectivity, and the result follows by the induction hypothesis.
- Case \( C = X \). Then either \# \( \in \) \( \Delta \) and we are done, or \# \( \notin \) \( \Delta \) and by inversion we have \( \Delta = \Delta_0, X := C : U, \Delta_1 \) and \( \Delta \vdash C' = \text{suc}^n X \). Then \( \Delta \vdash C' = \text{suc}^n C' \) and we can strengthen this to \( \Delta_0 \vdash C' = \text{suc}^n C' \) and the result follows by induction on \( \Delta_0 \) which is smaller than \( \Delta \).

**Requirement 3.** If \( \Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2 \setminus \Delta' \), then for all \( \Delta_0 \) and \( \theta \) such that \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta \), we have that \( \Delta_0 \vdash C_1[\theta] = C_2[\theta] \) if and only if \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta' \).

**Proof.** By induction on \( \Delta \vdash C_1 = C_2 \setminus \Delta' \).

- Case \( \Delta \vdash \text{zero} \) \( = \text{zero} \) \( \setminus \Delta \). Trivial.
- Case \( \Delta \vdash X = X \setminus \Delta \). Trivial.
- Case \( \Delta \vdash \text{suc} C_1 = \text{suc} C_2 \setminus \Delta' \).
  - Then \( \Delta_0 \vdash C_1[\theta] = C_2[\theta] \) iff \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta' \) by i.h.
  - The result follows from the suc rule and an injectivity lemma.
- Case \( \Delta \vdash \text{zero} = \text{suc} C \setminus \Delta, \# \).
  - Then \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta' \) iff \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta', \# \).

By transitivity and symmetry, \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta(X) = C[\theta] \) iff \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta' \) as required.

**Figure 16.** Unification of Index Terms

- Case: \( \Delta \vdash X = C \setminus \Delta, \# \).
  - Then \( \Delta_0 \vdash C = \text{suc}^n C \)(follows from occurs).
  - Suppose \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta(X) = C[\theta] \)
  - Then \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta \) \( = \text{suc}^n C[\theta] \).
  - Then \# \( \notin \) \( \Delta_0 \) by Lem. A.5.
  - So \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta, \# \) as required.
  - Conversely, suppose \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta : \Delta, \# \).
  - Then \# \( \notin \) \( \Delta_0 \) and so \( \Delta_0 \vdash \theta(X) = C[\theta] \) trivially.

The other cases are symmetric.

**Requirement 4.** If \( \Delta \vdash C : U \setminus \Delta' \) and \( \Delta_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta \) then there is \( \Delta' \) such that \( \Delta_1 \vdash C : U[\theta] \setminus \Delta'_1 \) and \( \Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta' \).

**Proof.** Implicitly here we assume that the variables bound in \( C \) are fresh for \( \text{dom}(\theta) \).

By induction on the derivation \( \Delta \vdash C : U \setminus \Delta' \).

- Case \( \Delta \vdash \text{zero} : \text{nat} \setminus \Delta \).
  - Trivially, \( \Delta_1 \vdash \text{zero} : \text{nat} \setminus \Delta_1 \) and \( \Delta_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta \).
- Case \( \Delta \vdash C : \text{nat} \setminus \Delta' \).
  - \( \Delta \vdash \text{suc} C : \text{nat} \setminus \Delta' \)
  - By induction hypothesis, we have \( \Delta' \) such that \( \Delta_1 \vdash C : \text{nat} \setminus \Delta'_1 \) and \( \Delta'_1 \vdash \theta : \Delta' \).
  - Hence, \( \Delta_1 \vdash \text{suc} C : \text{nat} \setminus \Delta'_1 \).
- Case \( X \notin \Delta \).
  - Then, \( \Delta_1 \vdash X : U \setminus \Delta_1, X : U \) and \( \Delta_1, X : U \vdash \theta : \Delta, X : U \).

**Requirement 5 (Adequacy of Pattern Matching for Index Terms).** Suppose \( \cdot \vdash C : U \).

**Suppose \( \cdot \vdash C' : U \setminus \Delta \) and \( C = C'[\theta] \) Then \( \cdot \vdash \theta : \Delta \).

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation \( \cdot \vdash C' : U \setminus \Delta \).
There are \( \exists_i \theta \mid \Delta \vdash X \) for all \( \Delta \).

Case: \( \exists_i \theta \mid \Delta \vdash X \)

Then \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \).

Case: \( \exists_i \theta \mid \Delta \vdash X \)

By induction hypothesis, \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \).

Case: \( \vdash X : U \vdash X : U \)

Then \( \vdash \theta : \Delta : \Delta \) since \( \vdash \theta(X) = C \).

The definition of the splitting algorithm for our index domain appears in Figure 5. Here we prove the requirements.

**Requirement 6** (Coverage of splitting for index objects).

Suppose \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \) and split(\( \Delta \vdash X \)) = \( (\Delta_i, C_i)_{i \in I} \) then there is an \( i \) and \( \theta_i \) such that \( \theta_i : \Delta_i \) such that \( \vdash \theta_i : \Delta_i \).

*Proof.* By induction on the judgment \( \vdash \Delta \vdash X \) = \( (\Delta_i, C_i)_{i \in I} \)

Case: \( \vdash \Delta, X : \text{nat} \vdash \Delta : \text{nat} \)

Then \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \) and \( \vdash \theta(X) : \text{nat} \) and \( \vdash \theta : \Delta' \). We examine the possible forms of \( \vdash \theta(X) : \text{nat} \)

Subcase \( \theta(X) = 0 \):

Then \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \) and \( \vdash \theta(X) : \text{nat} \) and \( \vdash \theta : \Delta' \). We examine the possible forms of \( \vdash \theta(X) : \text{nat} \).

Subcase \( \theta(X) = \text{suc} \) with \( \vdash \theta : \text{nat} : \text{nat} \):

Then \( \vdash \theta : \Delta' \). We examine the possible forms of \( \vdash \theta(X) : \text{nat} \).

Case: \( \vdash \Delta, X : U \vdash \Delta : \text{nat} \)

Then \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \) and \( \vdash \theta(X) : U \) and \( \vdash \theta(X) = \text{C} \) and \( \vdash \theta : \Delta' \).

Then there exists \( \Delta \) and \( \theta' \) such that \( \theta' : \Delta \) and \( \theta(X) = \text{C} \).

Hence \( \vdash \theta' : \Delta' \) as required.

**Requirement 7** (Preservation of splitting under substitution).

Suppose \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \) and split(\( \Delta \vdash X \)) = \( (\Delta_i, C_i)_{i \in I} \) then there are \( \Delta_i \) such that \( \vdash \Delta_i \vdash X \) = \( (\Delta_i \vdash C_i)_{i \in I} \) and for all \( i \in I \), \( \Delta_i \vdash \theta : \Delta_i \).

*Proof.* Implicitly here we assume that \( X \) or the variables bound in \( C_i \) are fresh for \( dom(\theta) \).

By induction on the judgment \( \vdash \Delta \vdash X \) = \( (\Delta_i, C_i)_{i \in I} \)

Case:

\[
\vdash \Delta, Y : \text{nat} \vdash \Delta : \text{nat} \]

Then \( \vdash \theta : \Delta \) and \( \vdash \theta(X) : \text{nat} \) and \( \vdash \theta : \Delta' \).

Then there exists \( i \) and \( \theta_i : \Delta' \) such that \( \theta_i : \Delta_i \) and \( \theta(X) = \text{C} \).

Hence \( \vdash \theta_i : \Delta_i \) as required.

The other cases follow from this one.

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**Figure 17.** Splitting of index domain