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## Note

# Co-induction in relational semantics 

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#### Abstract

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An application of the mathematical theory of maximum fixed points of monotonic set operators to relational semantics is presented. It is shown how an important proof method which we call co-induction, a variant of Park's (1969) principle of fixpoint induction, can be used to prove the consistency of the static and the dynamic relational semantics of a small functional programming language with recursive functions.


## 1. Introduction

The purpose of this note is to present one instance among several we have encountered where the use of non-well-founded sets, maximum fixed points of monotonic operators and a proof method, which we call co-induction, are essential tools in studying the semantics of programming languages.

A set $A$ is non-well-founded if there is an infinite sequence $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots$ such that $A_{n+1}$ is a member of $A_{n}$, for all $n \geqslant 1$. Otherwise it is said to be well-founded. Although it is often assumed in set theory that all sets are well-founded, Aczel's anti-foundation axiom [2] leads to an alternative set theory which is very useful in computer science. The significance of maximum fixed points and non-well-founded relations in connection with concurrency has been demonstrated in work by (among others) Park [9, $10]$ and Milner [7].

Non-well-founded objects occur naturally in programming language semantics. The example we present in this paper is the soundness of a type inference system with respect to the dynamic relational semantics of a little functional programming language. The language is essentially the lambda calculus enriched with an explicit construction for recursive functions. In the dynamic relational semantics all functions evaluate to closures of the form $\langle x, \exp , E\rangle$, where $x$ is the formal parameter of the function, exp is the body of the function and $E$ is an environment containing bindings for the variables that occur free in exp. If the closure is the value of a recursive function, then $E$ should map the name of the function to the entire closure itself. For example, the evaluation of the expression

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { fix factorial }(n)=\ldots \text { factorial }(\text { pred } n) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the empty environment should yield a closure satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
c l_{\mathrm{fact}}=\left\langle\mathrm{n}, \ldots \text { factorial }(\text { pred } \mathrm{n}),\left\{\text { factorial } \mapsto c l_{\mathrm{fact}}\right\}\right\rangle . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By encoding tuples and finite maps as sets, one can view a solution to (2) as a non-well-founded set. Alternatively, one can consider non-well-foundedness of other objects than sets with respect to other relations than membership. In our case, for every $n$-tuple $\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$ let us say that each $x_{i}$ is a constituent of the tuple and for every finite map $\left\{x_{1} \mapsto y_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \mapsto y_{n}\right\}$ let us say that each $y_{i}$ is a constituent of the map. Let us write $x>y$ to mean that $y$ is a constituent of $x$. A constituent sequence is a finite or denumerable sequence of objects such that if $y$ is the successor of $x$ in the sequence then $x>y$. If we broaden the notion of membership to constituentship in this way, then it is quite natural to call an object non-well-founded when it occurs in some infinite constituent sequence. Note that any ${\text { } l_{\text {fact }}}$ satisfying (2) is non-well-founded as it occurs in the infinite (periodic) constituent chain

$$
c l_{\text {fact }}>\left\{\text { factorial } \mapsto c l_{\text {fact }}\right\}>c l_{\text {fact }}>\left\{\text { factorial } \mapsto c l_{\text {fact }}\right\}>\cdots .
$$

Whereas structural induction is a powerful technique for proving properties of well-founded objects, co-induction may be used for proving properties of non-wellfounded objects. Co-induction is not a new mathematical tool; it is essentially a variant of the principle of fixpoint induction of Park [8]. But the breadth of its application is perhaps not fully appreciated; we hope that the proofs we present in this paper will induce more awareness of the use of the principle in practice.

The reader may suggest, at this point, that there is no need to take a closure to be a non-well-founded object, since one can deal instead with perfectly well-founded objects-namely a finite expression, formed by a recursion operator, which represents the infinite unfolding of the closure. This can be done, but it does not remove the need for co-inductive proof; indeed, we have pursued this approach and have found that the proof presented here requires only minor modifications. We prefer to deal with closures as non-well-founded objects because it appears most natural to do so.

Relational semantics borrows the idea of inference rule from formal logic to define the semantics of programming languages. It derives from Plotkin's work on "structural operational semantics" [11]. Kahn and his group use the term "natural semantics" [5] for what we call relational semantics. Whatever the name, it is of a more syntactical and mechanical nature than denotational semantics, where programs are mapped to objects (so-called denotations) in a mathematical model. Using denotational semantics it has been proved that the type inference system we define below is sound, i.e. that if an expression exp has a type $\tau$ according to the type inference system and $d$ is the denotation of $\exp$ then $d$ is a member of the set (actually an ideal) which models the type $\tau$ (see e.g. [6]). In this paper we shall prove the corresponding result for relational semantics. This gives us the opportunity to review and apply the principle of co-induction, without which we have not been able to prove the consistency of the type inference system and the dynamic semantics.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: In Section 2 we define the syntax and the dynamic semantics of the language; in Section 3 we define the static semantics of the language; in Section 4 we introduce the idea of maximum fixed points and co-induction and in Section 5 we use it to prove the consistency of the static and the dynamic semantics. In Section 6 we finally discuss alternative notions of what it is for a value to have a type, some of which take one beyond the realm of co-induction, since this concept depends on the monotonicity of functions.

The reader is supposed to know elementary set theory; the basic ideas in relational semantics are simple and will be introduced when they are used. In order to allow the reader to concentrate on the basic proof method, we have chosen to state and prove a relatively elementary theorem.

## 2. The language and its dynamic semantics

For the definition of the language we assume a set Const of constants, ranged over by $c$, and a set Var of variables, ranged over by $x$ and $f$. The language Exp of expressions is

$$
\exp ::= \begin{cases}x & \text { Variable } \\ c & \text { Constant } \\ \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow \exp & \text { Abstraction } \\ \operatorname{fix} f(x)=\exp & \text { Recursive function } \\ \exp _{1} \exp _{2} & \text { Application }\end{cases}
$$

The abstraction $\mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow \exp$ corresponds to lambda abstraction in the lambda calculus. In fix $f(x)=\exp$, the function $f$ is defined recursively.

In what follows, we use $\pm$ to mean disjoint union of sets and $A \xrightarrow{\text { fin }} B$ denotes the partial functions from the set $A$ to $B$ that have a finite domain. If $f \in A \xrightarrow{\text { fin }} B$
the domain and range of $f$ are denoted by $\operatorname{Dom}(f)$ and $\operatorname{Rng}(f)$, respectively. Every finite map $f \in A \xrightarrow{\text { fin } B}$ can be written in the form $\left\{a_{1} \mapsto b_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \mapsto b_{n}\right\}$; in particular $\}$ means the empty map. For every $f, g \in A \xrightarrow{\text { fin }} B$ the map $f+g \in A \xrightarrow{\text { fin }} B$, called $f$ modified by $g$ is the finite map with domain $\operatorname{Dom}(f) \cup \operatorname{Dom}(g)$ and values $(f+g)(a)=g(a)$, if $a \in \operatorname{Dom}(g)$, and $(f+g)(a)=f(a)$ otherwise.

We now give a relational semantics for Exp in the form of a set of inference rules the conclusions of which are of the form $E \vdash \exp \longrightarrow v$, read "exp evaluates to $v$ in $E$ ". To handle recursion we allow our semantic objects to be non-well-founded. More precisely, it is possible to define sets Val, Clos, and Env so that they satisfy the set equations

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
v \in \operatorname{Val}=\text { Const } \uplus \text { Clos } & \text { Values } \\
E \in \mathrm{Env}=\operatorname{Var} \xrightarrow{\text { fin }} \mathrm{Val} & \text { Environm } \\
c l \text { or }\langle x, \exp , E\rangle \in \operatorname{Clos}=\operatorname{Var} \times \operatorname{Exp} \times \mathrm{Env} & \text { Closures }
\end{array}
$$

and so that for all $f, x, \exp , E$ there is a unique closure $c l_{\infty} \in \operatorname{Clos}$ solving the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
c l_{\infty}=\left\langle x, \exp , E+\left\{f \mapsto c l_{\infty}\right\}\right\rangle \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Mathematical justification that it really is possible to find sets Val, Env and Clos which meet these requirements (in particular the requirement that (9) have one and only one solution for $c l_{\infty}$ ) can be found in Aczel's book [2]. Intuitively, the solution to (9) can be understood as the non-well-founded object which results from repeated application of (9) as a rewriting rule. Note that, because Clos $=\operatorname{Var} \times \operatorname{Exp} \times$ Env, every closure $c l$ in Clos is a triple and if $\left\langle x_{1}, \exp _{1}, E_{1}\right\rangle=\left\langle x_{2}, \exp _{2}, E_{2}\right\rangle$ then $x_{1}=x_{2}$, $\exp _{1}=\exp _{2}$ and $E_{1}=E_{2}$.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \overline{E+c \longrightarrow c}  \tag{3}\\
& \frac{x \in \operatorname{Dom} E}{E \vdash x \longrightarrow E(x)}  \tag{4}\\
& \overline{E \vdash \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow \exp \longrightarrow\langle x, \exp , E\rangle}  \tag{5}\\
& \frac{c l_{\infty}=\left\langle x, \exp , E+\left\{f \mapsto c l_{\infty}\right\}\right\rangle}{E \vdash \operatorname{fix} f(x)=\exp \longrightarrow c l_{\infty}}  \tag{6}\\
& \frac{E \vdash \exp _{1} \longrightarrow c_{1} \quad E \vdash \exp _{2} \longrightarrow c_{2} \quad c=\operatorname{APPLY}\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)}{E \vdash \exp _{1} \exp _{2} \longrightarrow c}  \tag{7}\\
& \begin{aligned}
& E \vdash \exp _{1} \longrightarrow\left\langle x^{\prime}, \text { exp }^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right\rangle \\
& E \vdash \exp _{2} \longrightarrow v_{2} \\
& E^{\prime}+\left\{x^{\prime} \mapsto v_{2}\right\} \vdash \exp ^{\prime} \longrightarrow v \\
& E \vdash \exp _{1} e x p_{2} \longrightarrow v
\end{aligned} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

Fig. 1. Dynamic semantics.

A closure is the value of an abstraction. As in the literature, a closure takes the form $\langle x, \exp , E\rangle$ where $x$ is the formal parameter, $\exp$ the body of the function and $E$ an environment which maps each free variable of $\exp$ to the value it assumes at the time of the declaration of the function. In general, evaluation of a fix expression yields a non-well-founded closure as illustrated with the factorial example in the introduction.

To handle the application of constants to values, we assume a partial function APPLY:Const $\times$ Const $\rightarrow$ Const. With these conventions we define the dynamic semantics of Exp by the inference rules in Fig. 1; the rules allow us to infer statements of the form $E \vdash \exp \longrightarrow v$, read exp evaluates to $v$ (in $E$ ). For instance, rule 7 can be read: if $\exp _{1}$ evaluates to $c_{1}$ and $\exp _{2}$ evaluates to $c_{2}$ and $c=\operatorname{APPLY}\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)$ then $\exp _{1} \exp _{2}$ evaluates to $c$.

## 3. Static semantics

The static semantics of Exp is defined by an inference system, more precisely a simple monomorphic type inference system, as follows.

The set Type of type expressions (just called types in the following), ranged over by $\tau$, is defined by

$$
\tau::=\pi \mid \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}
$$

where $\pi$ ranges over a set of primitive types, e.g., int and bool. A type environment is a finite map from variables to types:

$$
T E \in \mathrm{TyEnv}=\operatorname{Var} \xrightarrow{\text { fin }} \text { Type. }
$$

We assume a basic relation IsOf $\subseteq$ Const $\times$ Type relating for instance 3 to int, true to bool but not 3 to bool, and we require that whenever $c=\operatorname{APPLY}\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)$ and $c_{1} \operatorname{IsOf}\left(\tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}\right)$ and $c_{2}$ IsOf $\tau_{1}$ then $c$ IsOf $\tau_{2}$. The inference rules appear in Fig. 2;

$$
\begin{gather*}
\frac{c \operatorname{IsOf} \tau}{T E \vdash c \Longrightarrow \tau}  \tag{10}\\
\frac{x \in \operatorname{Dom} T E}{T E \vdash x \Longrightarrow T E(x)}  \tag{11}\\
\frac{T E+\left\{x \mapsto \tau_{1}\right\} \vdash \exp \Longrightarrow \tau_{2}}{T E \vdash \mathrm{fn} x \rightarrow \exp \Longrightarrow \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}}  \tag{12}\\
\frac{T E+\left\{f \mapsto \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}\right\}+\left\{x \mapsto \tau_{1}\right\} \vdash \exp \Longrightarrow \tau_{2}}{T E \vdash \mathrm{fix} f(x)=\exp \Longrightarrow \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}}  \tag{13}\\
\frac{T E \vdash \exp p_{1} \Longrightarrow \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2} \quad T E \vdash \exp p_{2} \Longrightarrow \tau_{1}}{T E \vdash \exp _{1} \exp _{2} \Longrightarrow \tau_{2}} \tag{14}
\end{gather*}
$$

Fig. 2. Static semantics.
they allow one to infer statements of the form $T E \vdash \exp \Longrightarrow \tau$, read $\exp$ elaborates to $\tau$ (in TE).

## 4. Typing values using maximum fixed points and co-induction

By pointwise extension of the relation $\mathrm{IsOf} \subseteq$ Const $\times$ Type we get a relation IsOf $\subseteq \operatorname{Env} \times$ TyEnv. We expect it to be the case, then, that if $\exp$ elaborates to $\tau$ in $T E$ and exp evaluates to $c$ in $E$ and $E$ IsOf $T E$ then $c$ IsOf $\tau$. We refer to this proposition as the basic consistency of the static and the dynamic semantics.

However, this proposition needs strengthening before it can be proved by induction, the reason being that evaluation resulting in constants may require evaluation resulting in closures (about which the basic consistency says nothing). Below, we first extend the relation $c$ IsOf $\tau$ to a relation $v: \tau$, read $v$ has type $\tau$, which also says what it is for a closure to have a type; then we define the relation $E: T E$, read $E$ matches $T E$, to be the pointwise extension of $v: \tau$ and prove that if exp elaborates to $\tau$ in $T E$ and $\exp$ evaluates to $v$ in $E$ and $E$ matches $T E$ then $v$ has type $\tau$. There are variants to the $v: \tau$ relation which also are plausible definitions of what it is for a value to have a type. We shall call these relations collectively correspondence relations, because each of them defines a correspondence between the dynamic semantics (values) and the static semantics (types).

The consistency proof is relatively simple if we can define the correspondence relation so that it satisfies

$$
v: \tau \text { iff }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { (i) if } v=c \text { then } v \text { IsOf } \tau ;  \tag{15}\\
\text { (ii) if } v=\langle x, \exp , E\rangle \text { then there exists a } T E \text { such } \\
\text { that } T E \vdash \mathbf{f n} x \Rightarrow \exp \Longrightarrow \tau \text { and } \operatorname{Dom}(E)= \\
\operatorname{Dom}(T E) \text { and } E(x): T E(x), \text { for all } x \in \operatorname{Dom}(E) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Because of the existential quantification in (15) (ii), these bi-implications do not constitute a definition, merely a property of a correspondence relation. The reader is probably surprised to see (15)(ii); given that we are trying to prove the soundness of the type inference system, why refer to the type inference system itself in the definition of what it is for a closure to have a type?

There are two reasons, a pragmatic one and a technical one. The pragmatic reason is that the main interest of Theorem 5.1 is the case where $E$ is an initial environment binding pre-defined variables to constants, $T E$ is an initial type environment binding the same variables to their types, and $v$ is a printable value, i.e. a constant rather than a closure. In this case the theorem gives the desired result independently of (15)(ii).

The technical reason is that (15)(ii) leads to a simple proof of the consistency theorem since a relation satisfying (15) can be obtained as the (maximum) fixed point of a monotonic operator as follows.

Let $U$ be the set Val $\times$ Type, let $P(U)$ be the set of subsets of $U$ and let $F: P(U) \rightarrow P(U)$ be the function defined by

$$
\begin{align*}
& F(Q)=\{(v, \tau) \in U \mid \text { if } v=c \text { then } v \operatorname{IsOf} \tau ; \\
& \text { if } v=\langle x, \exp , E\rangle \text { then there exists a } T E \text { such that } \\
& T E \vdash \mathbf{f n} x \Rightarrow \exp \Longrightarrow \tau \text { and } \operatorname{Dom}(E)=\operatorname{Dom}(T E) \\
&\text { and }(E(x), T E(x)) \in Q, \text { for all } x \in \operatorname{Dom}(E)\} . \tag{16}
\end{align*}
$$

It is clear, then, that the relations satisfying (15) are precisely the fixed points of $F$. Notice that $F$ is monotonic with respect to set inclusion: $Q \subseteq Q^{\prime}$ implies $F(Q) \subseteq$ $F\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$. Since $(P(U), \subseteq)$ is a complete lattice, it follows from Tarski's fixed point theorem that $F$ has a largest fixed point and a smallest fixed point, namely

$$
Q^{\min }=\bigcap\{Q \subseteq U \mid F(Q) \subseteq Q\}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q^{\max }=\bigcup\{Q \subseteq U \mid Q \subseteq F(Q)\} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

For our particular $F$, the minimum fixed point $Q^{\text {min }}$ is strictly contained in the maximum fixed point $Q^{\max }$ and the minimum fixed point is too small. To demonstrate this, let us show that the closure $c l_{\text {ract }}$ defined in the introduction has type int $\rightarrow$ int if we take the correspondence relation to be $Q^{\max }$, but not if we take it to be $Q^{\text {min }}$. To show $\left(c l_{\text {fact }}\right.$, int $\rightarrow$ int $) \in Q^{\text {max }}$, let us define $Q_{\text {fact }}=\left\{\left(c l_{\text {fact }}\right.\right.$, int $\rightarrow$ int $\left.)\right\}$. Looking at the definition of $F$, we can now check that $Q_{\text {fact }} \subseteq F\left(Q_{\text {fact }}\right)$. First, for the sought $T E$, take $\{$ factorial $\mapsto$ (int $\rightarrow$ int $)\}$. Next, it is easy to show that $T E \vdash \mathbf{f n} n \Rightarrow \exp \Longrightarrow$ int $\rightarrow$ int assuming that the IsOf relation associates the constants in exp, the body of factorial, with the obvious types. Finally, letting $E_{\text {fact }}=\left\{\right.$ factorial $\left.\mapsto c l_{\text {fact }}\right\}, E_{\text {fact }}$ and $T E$ are defined on factorial only, and the pair $\left(E_{\text {fact }}(f a c t o r i a l), T E\right.$ (factorial)) is the element of $Q_{\text {fact }}$. Thus $Q_{\text {fact }} \subseteq$ $F\left(Q_{\text {fact }}\right)$. But $Q^{\max }$ contains all the subsets $Q$ of $U$ that satisfy $Q \subseteq F(Q)$, so $Q_{\mathrm{fact}} \subseteq Q^{\max }$. Therefore $c l_{\mathrm{fact}}$ :int $\rightarrow$ int if we take : to be $Q^{\max }$.

On the other hand we have $\left(c l_{\text {fact }}\right.$, int $\rightarrow$ int $) \notin Q^{\text {min }}$. To see this, let us recall that there is an alternative characterization of $Q^{\text {min }}$, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{\min }=\bigcup_{\lambda} F^{\wedge} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F^{\lambda}=F\left(\bigcup_{\mu<\lambda} F^{\mu}\right)$, where $\lambda$ ranges over all ordinals (see [1] for an introduction to inductive definitions). In other words, one obtains $R^{\text {min }}$ by starting from the empty set and then applying $F$ iteratively. However, intuitively speaking, there is no first point in the chain

$$
\emptyset \subseteq F(\emptyset) \subseteq F(F(\emptyset)) \subseteq \cdots
$$

where the non-well-founded object ( $c l_{\text {fact }}$, int $\rightarrow$ int) could enter because, according to the definition of $F, c l_{\text {fact }}$ cannot be types unless $E_{\text {fact }}$ has already been typed, i.e. unless $c l_{\text {fact }}$ itself has already been typed. More generally, for any monotonic $F$ which has the property that if all members of $Q$ are well-founded then so are all
members of $F(Q)$, one can prove by transfinite induction that the minimum fixed point of $F$ contains only well-founded objects.

We say that a subset $Q \subseteq U$ is $F$-consistent if $Q \subseteq F(Q)$. This use of language is motivated as follows: $Q$ can be seen as a set of claims, each claim being a pair $(v, \tau)$ claiming that value $v$ has type $\tau$. If $Q$ is $F$-consistent then there is a justification for each such claim $q \in Q$, either with or without reference to claims in $Q$. The former is the case when $q$ is a pair of a constant and a type, in which case the definition of $F$ ensures that the constant is of the claimed type. The latter is the case in our examples above, where the element of $Q_{\text {fact }}$ serves as justification for itself. (The fact that claims can serve as justifications for themselves makes the use of the word consistency very appropriate.) Indeed $Q_{\text {fact }}$ is the smallest $F$-consistent set containing ( $c l_{\text {fact }}$, int $\rightarrow$ int). Note that $Q^{\max }$ is the largest $F$-consistent subset of $U$.

Associated with the device of defining a relation as the maximum fixed point of a monotonic operator is the important proof technique of co-induction:

Let $U$ be any set, let $F: P(U) \rightarrow P(U)$ be a monotonic function and let $R$ be the maximum fixed point of $F$. For any $Q \subseteq U$, in order to prove $Q \subseteq R$, it is sufficient to prove that $Q$ is F-consistent, i.e., that $Q \subseteq F(Q)$.
The point is that $R=\bigcup\{Q \subseteq U \mid Q \subseteq F(Q)\}$, so $R$ includes all $F$-consistent sets. As an example of co-induction, assume we want to prove a theorem of the form

$$
\forall x \in A .(P(x) \Rightarrow(e[x] \in R))
$$

where $A$ is a set, $P$ is a predicate, $e[x]$ is a formula which depends on $x$ and $R$ is the maximum fixed point of a monotonic operator $F: P(U) \rightarrow P(U)$, where $U$ is any set. We can then define

$$
Q=\{q \in U \mid \exists x \in A .(P(x) \wedge(q=e[x]))\}
$$

and attempt to prove $Q \subseteq F(Q)$. (For if $Q \subseteq F(Q)$ then by co-induction $Q \subseteq R$, and $Q \subseteq R$ is equivalent to the desired $\forall x \in A .(P(x) \Rightarrow(e[x] \in R))$.) Sometimes the inclusion $Q \subseteq F(Q)$ does not hold, in which case one must look for a set $Q^{\prime} \supset Q$ which is $F$-consistent. It will even suffice to prove that $Q \cup R$ is $F$-consistent.

## 5. The consistency theorem

We take $v: \tau$ to mean $(v, \tau) \in Q^{\max }$, where $Q^{\max }$ is the maximum fixed point of the operator $F$ defined by (16). The relation $E: T E$ is the pointwise extension of $v: \tau$. We can now formulate and prove the consistency theorem.

Theorem 5.1 (Consistency of static and dynamic semantics). If $E: T E$ and $E \vdash \exp \longrightarrow v$ and $T E \vdash \exp \Longrightarrow \tau$ then $v: \tau$.

Proof. By induction on the depth of inference of $E \vdash \exp \longrightarrow v$. There is one case for each rule. The cases for constants, variables and application of a constant are
trivial. Of the remaining cases, the one for fix is the most interesting, in that it uses co-induction.

Recursion, rule 6: Here the evaluation is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{c l_{\infty}=\left\langle x, \exp , E+\left\{f \mapsto c l_{\infty}\right\}\right\rangle}{E \vdash \operatorname{fix} f(x)=\exp \longrightarrow c l_{\infty}} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the elaboration is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{T E+\left\{f \mapsto \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}\right\}+\left\{x \mapsto \tau_{1}\right\} \vdash \exp \Longrightarrow \tau_{2}}{T E \vdash \mathbf{f i x} f(x)=\exp \Longrightarrow \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}} . \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau=\tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}$. To prove $c l_{\infty}: \tau$ by co-induction we define $Q=Q^{\max } \cup\left\{\left(c l_{\infty}, \tau\right)\right\}$, and prove that $Q$ is $F$-consistent. Take a $q \in Q$. If $q \in Q^{\max }$ then $q \in F(Q)$ because $Q^{\max } \subseteq Q$ and the monotonicity of $F$ implies

$$
F\left(Q^{\max }\right) \subseteq F(Q) \text { i.e., } Q^{\max } \subseteq F(Q)
$$

Otherwise $q=\left(c l_{\infty}, \tau\right)$. Let $T E^{\prime}=T E+\{f \mapsto \tau\}$ and $E^{\prime}=E+\left\{f \mapsto c l_{\infty}\right\}$. We have

$$
T E^{\prime}+\left\{x \mapsto \tau_{1}\right\} \vdash \exp \Longrightarrow \tau_{2}
$$

by (20) so $T E^{\prime} \vdash \mathbf{f n} x \Rightarrow \exp \Longrightarrow \tau$ by inference rule 12 . Since $E: T E$ we have $\operatorname{Dom}(E)=\operatorname{Dom}(T E)$ and for all $x \in \operatorname{Dom}(E), E(x): T E(x)$. So for all $x \in \operatorname{Dom}(E)$ we have $(E(x), T E(x)) \in Q$. Moreover $\left(E^{\prime}(f), T E^{\prime}(f)\right)=\left(c l_{\infty}, \tau\right) \in Q$. Thus $\operatorname{Dom}\left(E^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Dom}\left(T E^{\prime}\right)$ and for all $x \in \operatorname{Dom}\left(E^{\prime}\right)$ we have $\left(E^{\prime}(x), T E^{\prime}(x)\right) \in Q$. So in this case as well, we have $q \in F(Q)$. This proves that $Q$ is $F$-consistent.

Abstraction, rule 5: Here the evaluation is of the form

$$
\overline{E \vdash \mathbf{f n} x \Rightarrow \exp \longrightarrow\langle x, \exp , \bar{E}\rangle}
$$

and the conclusion of the elaboration is $T E \vdash \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow \exp \Longrightarrow \tau$. Since in addition $E: T E$, the type environment $T E$ satisfies the requirement (15)(ii). Hence $\langle x, \exp , E\rangle: \tau$.

Application of Closure, rule 8: Here the evaluation is of the form

$$
\begin{gather*}
E \vdash \exp _{1} \longrightarrow\left\langle x^{\prime}, \exp ^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right\rangle \\
E \vdash \exp _{2} \longrightarrow v_{2} \\
\xrightarrow[E \vdash \exp _{1} \exp _{2} \longrightarrow v]{E^{\prime}+\left\{x^{\prime} \mapsto v_{2}\right\} \vdash \exp ^{\prime} \longrightarrow v} \tag{21}
\end{gather*}
$$

and the elaboration is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{T E \vdash \exp _{1} \Longrightarrow \tau^{\prime} \rightarrow \tau \quad T E \vdash \exp _{2} \Longrightarrow \tau^{\prime}}{T E \vdash \exp _{1} \exp _{2} \Longrightarrow \tau} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $\tau^{\prime}$.
By induction on the first premises of (21) and (22) together with $E: T E$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle x^{\prime}, \exp ^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right\rangle: \tau^{\prime} \rightarrow \tau \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly we get $v_{2}: \tau^{\prime}$ by induction on the second premises. From (23) and the fact that: is a fixed point of $F$, there exists a $T E^{\prime}$ with $E^{\prime}: T E^{\prime}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
T E \vdash \mathbf{f n} x^{\prime} \Rightarrow \exp ^{\prime} \Longrightarrow \tau^{\prime} \rightarrow \tau \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Take such a $T E^{\prime}$; this type environment allows us to use induction a third time. (Indeed this is why the " $E: T E$ " is important in (15)(ii).) More precisely, since $E^{\prime}: T E^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}: \tau^{\prime}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{\prime}+\left\{x^{\prime} \mapsto v_{2}\right\}: T E^{\prime}+\left\{x^{\prime} \mapsto \tau^{\prime}\right\} . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, (24) must be obtained from the premise

$$
\begin{equation*}
T E^{\prime}+\left\{x^{\prime} \mapsto \tau^{\prime}\right\} \vdash \exp ^{\prime} \Longrightarrow \tau \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Noticing that the third premise of (21) was deduced in fewer steps than the conclusion, we can use induction on it together with (25) and (26) to deduce the desired $v: \tau$.

## 6. Discussion

Since the $v: \tau$ relation is an extension of the $c$ IsOf $\tau$ relation, Theorem 5.1 implies the basic consistency result (namely that if $E \vdash \exp \longrightarrow c$ and $T E \vdash \exp \Longrightarrow \tau$ and $E$ IsOf $T E$ then $c$ IsOf $\tau$ ). However, there are other natural extensions of the IsOf relation for which one can attempt to prove the consistency result. One is

$$
v:^{\prime} \tau \text { iff }\left\{\begin{align*}
& \text { (i) if } v=c \text { then } v \text { IsOf } \tau ;  \tag{27}\\
& \text { (ii) if } v=\langle x, \exp , E\rangle \text { then there exist } \tau_{1}, \tau_{2}, \text { such that } \\
& \tau=\tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2} \text { and for all } v_{1}, v_{2}, \text { if } c_{1}:^{\prime} \tau_{1} \text { and } \\
& E+\left\{x \mapsto v_{1}\right\} \vdash \exp \longrightarrow v_{2} \text { then } v_{2}:^{\prime} \tau_{2} .
\end{align*}\right.
$$

Interestingly, the operator $F^{\prime}$ associated with this revised property is no longer monotonic with respect to set inclusion because of the occurrence of " $v_{1}:{ }^{\prime} \tau_{1}$ " on the lefthand side of the implication. Nevertheless, there is precisely one relation $:^{\prime} \subseteq$ Val $\times$ Type satisfying (27); this can be seen by induction on the structure of type expressions.

There are closures that have a type using :' but have no type using :. One example is the closure $\langle\mathrm{n}$, if true then $7+\mathrm{n}$ else false, $\}\rangle$. However, we do not know whether : is contained in $:^{\prime}$. The consistency result can be proved using $:^{\prime}$ instead of :; the proof we have again uses co-induction, but it is rather involved and therefore not included here.

The justification for the existence of fixed points were completely different in the two cases. Sometimes it is not at all obvious whether a given $F$ has any fixed points at all. For example, let us extend our set $v$ of values by constructed values,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
v \in \text { Val }=\text { Const } \uplus \text { ConVal } \uplus \text { Clos } & \text { Values, } \\
c(v) \in \text { ConVal }=\text { Const } \times \text { Val } & \text { Constructed Values }
\end{array}
$$

and consider the property

$$
v: \tau \text { iff }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { (i) if } v=c \text { then } v \text { IsOf } \tau ;  \tag{28}\\
\text { (ii) if } v=c\left(v_{1}\right) \text { then there exists a } \tau_{1} \text { such that } \\
c \text { IsOf }\left(\tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau\right) \text { and } v_{1}: \tau_{1} ; \\
\text { (iii) if } v=\langle x, \exp , E\rangle \text { then there exist } \tau_{1}, \tau_{2} \text {, such that } \\
\\
\quad \tau=\tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2} \text { and for all } v_{1}, v_{2}, \text { if } v_{1}: \tau_{1} \text { and } \\
\\
E+\left\{x \mapsto v_{1}\right\} \vdash \exp \longrightarrow v_{2} \text { then } v_{2}: \tau_{2} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

The operator associated with this property is not monotonic with respect to set inclusion. Neither is this property a definition on the structure of types because of (ii). We do not see how to justify the existence of such a relation without making assumptions about the IsOf relation.

This should not leave the impression, however, that the technique of using maximum fixed points can rarely be applied. In fact, we have encountered several situations in operational semantics where the technique turns out to be very strong. In general, the technique is useful when considering consistency properties. Consistency is often of interest when one wants to relate non-well-founded objects, or more generally objects whose behaviour is in some sense infinite. Indeed, in the introduction we indicated that closures can be treated in either of these ways; in each case, typing of closures is a consistency property. Another example is the notion of observation equivalence in CCS [7] which is defined as the maximum fixed point of a certain monotonic operator. The idea is that two agents are bisimilar if the hypothesis that they are susceptible to the same observations is consistently maintained during computation. Finally the technique has been used to prove the soundness of a type discipline for polymorphic references [12,13]. Here the need for taking the maximum fixed point in the definition of what is is for a value to have a type arises because, when locations are values, one can create cycles in the store; since the type of a location depends on the type of the value it contains, a cycle in the store may have a consistent typing although the justification of the typing is a cyclic argument (i.e. a consistent claim rather than something that in finitely many steps can be reduced to a question of constants being typed according to the IsOf relation).

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