

# The Complexity of Inhabitation with Explicit Intersection

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**Abstract.** It is shown that the inhabitation problem for intersection types without the intersection introduction rule is EXPSPACE-complete and that the further restriction without subtyping is PSPACE-complete.

## 1 Introduction

We consider the complexity of the inhabitation problem (is there a pure  $\lambda$ -term that can be assigned a given type?) for the  $\lambda$ -calculus with intersection types [4] under the restriction that the intersection introduction rule ( $\cap$ I) is eliminated. We refer to the restricted system as  $\lambda(-\cap$ I). Whereas the inhabitation problem for the full intersection type system is undecidable [16], it was shown by Kurata and Takahashi [7] that the inhabitation problem for  $\lambda(-\cap$ I) is decidable. However, the question of complexity of the inhabitation problem for  $\lambda(-\cap$ I) was left open. We prove here that the problem is EXPSPACE-complete. In addition, we show that the further restriction without subtyping is PSPACE-complete.

The system  $\lambda(-\cap$ I) is a natural restriction of the full intersection type system [4], because it is equivalent to the *explicitly* typed version (“Church style fragment”) of that system [7, Lemma 3.1]), in which all abstractions are of the form  $\lambda x : \tau.M$ . One can also say that in system  $\lambda(-\cap$ I) intersections are explicit because, in the absence of intersection introduction, they cannot be introduced by the typing rules.

The full intersection type system arises from the Curry-style simply-typed  $\lambda$ -calculus [2] by addition of the rules

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash M : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau_1 \cap \tau_2} (\cap\text{I}) \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau_1 \cap \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau_i} (\cap\text{E}) \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau \quad \tau \leq \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau'} (\leq)$$

where the subtyping rule ( $\leq$ ) refers to a certain quasi-order on types. Usually, the intersection elimination rule ( $\cap$ E) is contained in the subtyping theory, by the axiom  $\tau_1 \cap \tau_2 \leq \tau_i$ , and consequently rule ( $\cap$ E) is left out in systems with

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subtyping thus presented (we follow this convention in the present paper). However, in the standard core system without subtyping, the rule  $(\cap E)$  is present. In the present paper, we consider the system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$ , where  $(\cap I)$  is eliminated (and  $(\cap E)$  is contained in rule  $(\leq)$ ) as well as the system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$  without subtyping, in which  $(\cap E)$  is present and both of the rules  $(\cap I)$  and  $(\leq)$  are absent.

Intersection type systems belong to a class of propositional logics with enormous expressive power. Intersection types capture several semantic properties of  $\lambda$ -terms, and their type reconstruction problem has long been known to be undecidable, since they characterize exactly the set of strongly normalizing terms [11]. The inhabitation problem for the full system is undecidable [16] and is closely related to the  $\lambda$ -definability problem [13].

Our result adds to a recently growing body of knowledge concerning the fine structure of the intersection type inhabitation (provability) problem obtained by considering various restrictions of the system. Recall that the borderline between decidability and undecidability was clarified in [8, 17] by rank restrictions (as defined in [9]), with inhabitation in rank 2 types being shown EXPSPACE-complete and undecidable from rank 3 and up. The system without intersection elimination  $(\cap E)$  was shown to be decidable in [18] (the upper bound is non-elementary and the exact complexity is open). In finite combinatory logic with intersection types [12] (combinatory logic with intersection types [5] restricted to monomorphic types) inhabitation is EXPTIME-complete with or without subtyping. Finite combinatory logic with intersection types can be presented as the restriction of system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$ , in which the function type introduction rule  $(\rightarrow I)$  is eliminated. Seen in this perspective, the present result allows us to compare the relative complexity of the explicitly typed rule  $(\rightarrow I)$  in terms of inhabitation complexity (EXPTIME vs. EXPSPACE). Following [12], inhabitation can be seen as a foundation for type-based function composition synthesis. Under this perspective, our result determines the complexity of synthesis in the “Church-style” fragment of the intersection typed  $\lambda$ -calculus. Finally, our present result shows that, in contrast to some other restrictions (e.g., finite combinatory logic), the presence of subtyping makes a big difference (EXPSPACE vs. PSPACE). Intuitively, in system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$ , subtyping can express a certain part of the logic contained in intersection introduction. For example, the judgment

$$f : (p \rightarrow q) \cap (r \rightarrow s), \quad x : p \cap r \quad \vdash \quad fx : q \cap s$$

is derivable in the full system without subtyping (because  $fx : q$  and  $fx : s$  can be derived separately), and also in system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$  with subtyping (because  $(p \rightarrow q) \cap (r \rightarrow s) \leq p \cap r \rightarrow q \cap s$ ), but not in system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$  without subtyping.<sup>3</sup>

The situation is summarized in the following overview, where we list the known results for the various restrictions mentioned above. In addition to the rank restrictions we consider the cases where one or more of the rules  $(\cap I)$ ,  $(\cap E)$ ,  $(\leq)$ ,  $(\rightarrow I)$  are eliminated (indicated by a “-”). In the cases where rule  $(\leq)$  is

<sup>3</sup> However, subtyping and  $(\cap I)$  are in general incomparable: for instance the judgment  $\vdash \mathbf{I} : (p \rightarrow p) \cap (q \rightarrow q)$  requires  $(\cap I)$ , while  $x : p \rightarrow q \cap r \vdash x : p \rightarrow q$  requires  $(\leq)$ .

not eliminated, the presence or absence of rule  $(\cap E)$  is immaterial.

Rank $k = 2$	:	EXPSpace-complete
Rank $k > 2$	:	Undecidable
$-(\cap I)$	:	EXPSpace-complete
$-(\cap I, \leq)$	:	PSPACE-complete
$-(\cap E, \leq)$	:	Decidable
$-(\rightarrow I)$	:	EXPTIME-complete
$-(\rightarrow I, \leq)$	:	EXPTIME-complete

Let us note here that *alternation* [3] plays a fundamental role in problems of type inhabitation. Intuitively, we may need to consider subgoals of the form  $\Gamma \vdash ? : \tau$  where the inhabitant (indicated by “?”) is an application of the form  $(xY_1 \dots Y_n)$ . This is equivalent to asking whether there *exists* a variable  $x$  in  $\Gamma$  with a type of the form  $\tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_n \rightarrow \tau$  such that *all* of the types  $\tau_1$  through  $\tau_n$  are inhabited. Hence, one can cast the PSPACE-algorithm for inhabitation in simple types [14] as an alternating polynomial time procedure (see also [15]). In intersection type systems, inhabitation goals may involve questions of the form  $\Gamma \vdash ? : \tau_1 \cap \tau_2$  leading to the parallel (universal) questions of inhabitation in  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  by *some* single term  $X$ . In the present paper, our exponential space upper bound is achieved by an alternating exponential time procedure, and our lower bound relies on the computational model of *bus machines*, introduced in [17], which generically simulates alternating exponential time Turing machines.

Comparing the EXPSpace-completeness of inhabitation with rank 2 types [17] to our present result, it is remarkable that the same model (bus machines) is used as a basis of reduction in the hardness proofs in both cases. However, the reduction must be adjusted, as a result of fundamental differences in the systems under consideration. In the former case, types are restricted (rank 2) and the typing rules are unrestricted, whereas here we consider unrestricted types with restricted rules (see Section 3).

## 2 Preliminaries

*Types*: Type expressions, ranged over by  $\tau, \sigma$  etc., are defined by

$$\tau ::= a \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau \mid \tau \cap \tau$$

where  $a, b, c, \dots$  range over *atoms* comprising of type constants, including the constant  $\omega$ , and type variables. As usual, types are taken modulo commutativity ( $\tau \cap \sigma = \sigma \cap \tau$ ), associativity ( $(\tau \cap \sigma) \cap \rho = \tau \cap (\sigma \cap \rho)$ ), and idempotency ( $\tau \cap \tau = \tau$ ). A type *environment*  $\Gamma$  is a finite set of type assumptions of the form  $x : \tau$ , and we let  $dm(\Gamma)$  and  $rn(\Gamma)$  denote the domain and range of  $\Gamma$ .

A type  $\tau \cap \sigma$  is said to have  $\tau$  and  $\sigma$  as *components*. For an intersection of several components we sometimes write  $\bigcap_{i=1}^n \tau_i$  or  $\bigcap_{i \in I} \tau_i$  or  $\bigcap \{\tau_i \mid i \in I\}$ , where the empty intersection is identified with  $\omega$ .

If  $\tau = \tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_n \rightarrow \sigma$ , then we write  $\sigma = \text{tgt}_n(\tau)$  and  $\tau_i = \text{arg}_i(\tau)$ , for  $i \leq n$ . A type of the form  $\tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_n \rightarrow p$ , where  $p \neq \omega$  is an atom, is called a *path of length  $n$* . A type  $\tau$  is *organized* if it is a (possibly empty) intersection of paths (those are called *paths in  $\tau$* ). Note that premises in an organized type do not have to be organized, i.e., organized is not necessarily normalized [6].

*Subtyping*: Subtyping  $\leq$  is the least quasi-order (reflexive and transitive relation), satisfying the following conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \leq \omega, \quad \omega \leq \omega \rightarrow \omega, \quad \sigma \cap \tau \leq \sigma, \quad \sigma \cap \tau \leq \tau, \quad \sigma \leq \sigma \cap \sigma; \\ (\sigma \rightarrow \tau) \cap (\sigma \rightarrow \rho) \leq \sigma \rightarrow \tau \cap \rho; \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{If } \sigma \leq \sigma' \text{ and } \tau \leq \tau' \text{ then } \sigma \cap \tau \leq \sigma' \cap \tau' \text{ and } \sigma' \rightarrow \tau \leq \sigma \rightarrow \tau'.$$

We identify  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  when  $\sigma \leq \tau$  and  $\tau \leq \sigma$ . Note that  $\tau \rightarrow \omega = \omega$ , for all  $\tau$ . The distributivity properties below follow from the axioms of subtyping:

$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma \rightarrow \tau) \cap (\sigma \rightarrow \rho) &= \sigma \rightarrow (\tau \cap \rho) \\ (\sigma \rightarrow \tau) \cap (\sigma' \rightarrow \tau') &\leq (\sigma \cap \sigma') \rightarrow (\tau \cap \tau') \end{aligned}$$

The following property, probably first stated in [1], is often called *beta-soundness*. Note that the converse is trivially true.

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $a_j$ , for  $j \in J$ , be atoms.*

1. *If  $\bigcap_{i \in I} (\sigma_i \rightarrow \tau_i) \cap \bigcap_{j \in J} a_j \leq \alpha$  then  $\alpha = a_j$ , for some  $j \in J$ .*
2. *If  $\bigcap_{i \in I} (\sigma_i \rightarrow \tau_i) \cap \bigcap_{j \in J} a_j \leq \sigma \rightarrow \tau$ , where  $\sigma \rightarrow \tau \neq \omega$ , then the set  $\{i \in I \mid \sigma \leq \sigma_i\}$  is nonempty and  $\bigcap \{\tau_i \mid \sigma \leq \sigma_i\} \leq \tau$ .*

**Lemma 2.** *Every type  $\tau$  has an equivalent organized type  $\bar{\tau}$ , computable in polynomial time.*

**Proof:** Define  $\bar{a} = a$  if  $a$  is an atom, and  $\overline{\tau \cap \sigma} = \bar{\tau} \cap \bar{\sigma}$ . If  $\bar{\sigma} = \bigcap_{i \in I} \sigma_i$  then take  $\overline{\tau \rightarrow \sigma} = \bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau \rightarrow \sigma_i)$ .  $\square$

In what follows types are assumed to be organized.

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $\bigcap_{i \in I} \tau_i \leq \beta_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \beta_n \rightarrow p$ , where  $\tau_i$  are paths. Then there is an  $i \in I$  such that  $\tau_i = \alpha_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \alpha_n \rightarrow p$  and  $\beta_j \leq \alpha_j$ , for all  $j \leq n$ .*

**Proof:** Induction with respect to  $n$ , using the beta soundness (Lemma 1).  $\square$

Following [7], we define the least upper bound  $\sigma_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \sigma_n$  of organized types  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$  as the intersection of all paths of the form

$$(\alpha_1^1 \cap \dots \cap \alpha_n^1) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (\alpha_1^k \cap \dots \cap \alpha_n^k) \rightarrow p,$$

where  $p \neq \omega$  is an atom and, for all  $i \leq n$ , type  $\alpha_i^1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \alpha_i^k \rightarrow p$  is a path in  $\sigma_i$ . It should be obvious that  $\sigma_i \leq \sigma_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \sigma_n$ , for all  $i \leq n$ . We show that it is actually the l.u.b.:

**Lemma 4.** *If  $\sigma_i \leq \tau$ , for all  $i \leq n$ , then  $\sigma_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \sigma_n \leq \tau$ .*

**Proof:** We prove the claim for  $\tau = \tau^1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau^k \rightarrow p$  being a path. (The general case then follows easily.) By Lemma 3 there are paths  $\alpha_i^1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \alpha_i^k \rightarrow p$  in  $\sigma_i$  such that  $\tau^j \leq \alpha_i^j$ , for all  $i, j$ . Then in  $\sigma_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \sigma_n$  we have a path  $\pi = (\alpha_1^1 \cap \dots \cap \alpha_n^1) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (\alpha_1^k \cap \dots \cap \alpha_n^k) \rightarrow p$ . Since  $\tau^j \leq \alpha_1^j \cap \dots \cap \alpha_n^j$ , we obtain  $\pi \leq \tau$ , whence  $\sigma_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \sigma_n \leq \tau$ .  $\square$

### Type assignment

We consider the standard intersection type assignment system [4] for pure  $\lambda$ -terms without the rule for intersection introduction. The system is shown in Figure 1. As already noted, the system is equivalent to the explicitly typed version of the standard system (see [7]). We have the following generation lemma:

$\frac{}{\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash x : \tau}(\text{var})$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau \rightarrow \tau' \quad \Gamma \vdash N : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (M N) : \tau'}(\rightarrow\text{E})$
$\frac{\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash M : \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x M : \tau \rightarrow \tau'}(\rightarrow\text{I})$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau \quad \tau \leq \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau'}(\leq)$

**Fig. 1:** Type system  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$ .

### Lemma 5.

1. *If  $\Gamma \vdash MN : \tau$  then  $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma \rightarrow \tau$ , and  $\Gamma \vdash N : \sigma$ , for some  $\sigma$ .*
2. *If  $\Gamma \vdash xN_1 \dots N_k : \tau$  then  $\Gamma(x) \leq \sigma_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \sigma_k \rightarrow \tau$ , where  $\Gamma \vdash N_i : \sigma_i$ , for all  $i \leq k$ . In particular,  $\Gamma \vdash x : \tau$  implies  $\Gamma(x) \leq \tau$ .*
3. *If  $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x M : \tau$  then there are  $\sigma, \rho$  with  $\Gamma, x : \sigma \vdash M : \rho$  and  $\sigma \rightarrow \rho \leq \tau$ .*

**Proof:** Routine. Type derivation ends with a logical rule followed by subsumption. In part 2 use induction.  $\square$

Subject reduction now follows easily:

**Lemma 6.** *If  $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma$  and  $M \rightarrow_\beta M'$  then  $\Gamma \vdash M' : \sigma$ .*

**Proof:** Standard induction using the substitution property: If  $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash M : \sigma$  and  $\Gamma \vdash N : \tau$  then  $\Gamma \vdash M[N/x] : \sigma$ .  $\square$

System  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$  has the strong normalization property, as a subsystem of the ordinary intersection type-assignment. It therefore follows from Lemma 6 that an inhabited type must have a normal inhabitant.

**Lemma 7.** *If  $\Gamma \vdash M : \sigma$  then there is a normal form  $M'$  with  $\Gamma \vdash M' : \sigma$ .*

The crucial Lemmas 9 and 11 below characterize types of normal forms. To prove them we need the following simple property:

**Lemma 8.** *If  $\tau \leq \sigma$  and  $\Gamma, x : \sigma \vdash M : \rho$  then also  $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash M : \rho$ .*

**Proof:** Routine induction. □

**Lemma 9.** *The following are equivalent conditions:*

1.  $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x M : \bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_i)$ ;
2.  $\Gamma, x : \bigoplus_{i \in I} \tau_i \vdash M : \bigcap_{i \in I} \sigma_i$ .

**Proof:** (1  $\Rightarrow$  2) By the generation lemma, we have  $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash M : \sigma$ , with  $\tau \rightarrow \sigma \leq \bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_i)$ . That is,  $\tau_i \leq \tau$  and  $\sigma \leq \sigma_i$ , for every  $i$ . It follows that  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} \tau_i \leq \tau$  (by Lemma 4) and  $\sigma \leq \bigcap_{i \in I} \sigma_i$ , and we use Lemma 8.

(2  $\Rightarrow$  1) If (2) then  $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x M : \bigoplus_{i \in I} \tau_i \rightarrow \bigcap_{i \in I} \sigma_i$  and we apply subsumption using the inequality  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} \tau_i \rightarrow \bigcap_{i \in I} \sigma_i \leq \bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_i)$ . □

*Remark 10.* Observe that Lemma 9 has the following “paradoxical” consequence: An abstraction of type  $\bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_i)$  must have type  $\bigcap_{i, j \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_j)$ . It is also not enough to know that  $\Gamma, x : \tau_i \vdash M : \sigma_i$  holds for all  $i \in I$  to conclude that  $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x M : \bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_i)$ . The latter remains true even if all  $\sigma_i$  are the same: the conjunction of  $x : \tau \vdash M : \sigma$  and  $x : \rho \vdash M : \sigma$  does not imply  $x : \tau \oplus \rho \vdash M : \sigma$ . Indeed, we have  $x : (p \rightarrow p) \rightarrow q \vdash x \mathbf{I} : q$  and  $x : (r \rightarrow r) \rightarrow q \vdash x \mathbf{I} : q$ . But, on the other hand,  $((p \rightarrow p) \rightarrow q) \oplus ((r \rightarrow r) \rightarrow q) = (p \rightarrow p) \cap (r \rightarrow r) \rightarrow q$  and  $x : (p \rightarrow p) \cap (r \rightarrow r) \rightarrow q \not\vdash x \mathbf{I} : q$ , because  $\not\vdash \mathbf{I} : (p \rightarrow p) \cap (r \rightarrow r)$ .

**Lemma 11 (Path Lemma).** *The following are equivalent conditions:*

1.  $\Gamma \vdash x N_1 \dots N_k : \tau$ ;
2. *There exists a set  $P$  of paths in  $\Gamma(x)$  such that*
  - (a)  $\bigcap_{\pi \in P} \text{tgt}_k(\pi) \leq \tau$ ;
  - (b)  $\Gamma \vdash N_i : \bigcap_{\pi \in P} \text{arg}_i(\pi)$ , for all  $i \leq k$ .

**Proof:** (1  $\Rightarrow$  2) Similar to the proof of Lemma 10 in [12]. By Lemma 5 we have  $\Gamma(x) \leq \sigma_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \sigma_k \rightarrow \tau$ , where  $\Gamma \vdash N_i : \sigma_i$ , for all  $i \leq k$ . Now, assume that  $\Gamma(x)$  is organized and let  $\rho$  be the organized form of  $\sigma_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \sigma_k \rightarrow \tau$ . We apply lemma 3 to every path in  $\rho$ . This yields a set  $P$  of paths in  $\Gamma(x)$  such that, for every path  $\mu$  in  $\rho$ , there is  $\pi \in P$  with  $\sigma_i \leq \text{arg}_i(\pi)$  and also  $\text{tgt}_k(\pi) \leq \text{tgt}_k(\mu)$ . Since all paths in (organized)  $\tau$  are of the form  $\text{tgt}_k(\mu)$ , we obtain  $\bigcap_{\pi \in P} \text{tgt}_k(\pi) \leq \tau$  (part 2a). Part 2b follows by subsumption.

(2  $\Rightarrow$  1) Easy (as in [12]). □

### 3 EXPSPACE-completeness of inhabitation

We study the inhabitation problem for system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$ , formulated as follows:

*Given an environment  $\Gamma$  and a type  $\tau$ ,  
does there exist a  $\lambda$ -term  $M$  such that  $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$  ?*

Our main result, Theorem 19 states that the problem is EXPSPACE-complete. We prove the exponential space upper bound in Section 3.1 and the lower bound in Section 3.2.

The upper bound is achieved by constructing an alternating exponential time algorithm. We exploit the fact, also noted in [7], that least upper bounds of types with respect to  $\leq$  are definable. Our algorithm is quite different from the algorithm of [7], which relies on a fixpoint construction that reduces inhabitation to the emptiness problem for a class of context-free grammars. No specific upper bound was given in [7].

The lower bound is achieved by reduction from a slight variation of the *bus machine* model introduced in [17] which generically simulates alternating exponential time Turing machines. The reduction exploits distributivity properties of the subtyping relation together with the definability of least upper bounds.

#### 3.1 EXPSPACE upper bound

##### Algorithm

Lemmas 9 and 11 together define an alternating algorithm to check type inhabitation in system  $\lambda(-\cap I)$ . The algorithm is formalized in Figure 2, which specifies an alternating Turing machine accepting on input  $\Gamma$  and  $\tau$  if and only if there exists a normal inhabitant of  $\tau$  in the environment  $\Gamma$ . (Note that, by Lemma 7, we only need to consider inhabitants in normal form.)

Recall ([3], see also, e.g., [10, section 16.2]) that the state set  $Q$  of an alternating Turing machine is partitioned into two subsets,  $Q = Q_{\exists} \cup Q_{\forall}$ . States in  $Q_{\exists}$  are referred to as existential states, and states in  $Q_{\forall}$  are referred to as universal states. A configuration whose state is in  $Q_{\forall}$  is accepting if and only if all its successor configurations are accepting, and a configuration whose state is in  $Q_{\exists}$  is accepting if and only if at least one of its successor configurations is accepting.

In the specification in Figure 2 we use shorthand notation for instruction sequences starting from existential states (CHOOSE...) and instruction sequences starting from universal states (FORALL( $i = 1 \dots k$ )  $S_i$ ). For example, a command of the form CHOOSE  $x \in S$  branches from an existential state (associated with the CHOOSE-command) to successor states in which  $x$  gets assigned distinct elements of  $S$ . A command of the form FORALL( $i = 1 \dots k$ )  $S_i$  branches from a universal state (associated with the FORALL-command) to successor states from which each instruction sequence  $S_i$  is executed.

For an organized type  $\sigma$ , we let  $\|\sigma\|$  denote the maximal length of a path in  $\sigma$ . The symbol  $\mathbb{P}_k(\sigma)$  denotes the set of all paths of length  $k$  or more in organized type  $\sigma$ .

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      Input :  $\Gamma, \tau$ 

1    $G := \{(\Gamma, \tau)\}$ ;

2   loop :
3    $\tau := \text{organize}(\tau)$ ;
4   CHOOSE  $\text{case} \in \{1, 2\}$ ;
5   IF ( $\text{case} = 1$ ) THEN
6     IF ( $\tau = \bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_i)$ ) THEN
7       IF ( $\bigoplus_{i \in I} \tau_i \notin \text{rn}(\Gamma)$ ) THEN
8          $\Gamma := \Gamma \cup \{x : \bigoplus_{i \in I} \tau_i\}$  where  $x$  is fresh;
9          $\tau := \bigcap_{i \in I} \sigma_i$ ;
10        IF ( $(\Gamma, \tau) \in G$ ) THEN REJECT
11        ELSE
12           $G := G \cup \{(\Gamma, \tau)\}$ ;
13          GOTO loop;
14        ELSE REJECT;

15  IF ( $\text{case} = 2$ ) THEN
16    CHOOSE  $(x : \sigma) \in \Gamma$ ;
17    CHOOSE  $k \in \{0, \dots, \|\sigma\|\}$ ;
18    CHOOSE  $P \subseteq \mathbb{P}_k(\sigma)$ ;
19    IF ( $\bigcap_{\pi \in P} \text{tgt}_k(\pi) \leq \tau$ ) THEN
20      IF ( $k = 0$ ) THEN ACCEPT
21      ELSE
22        FORALL ( $i = 1 \dots k$ )
23           $\tau := \bigcap_{\pi \in P} \text{arg}_i(\pi)$ ;
24          IF ( $(\Gamma, \tau) \in G$ ) THEN REJECT
25          ELSE
26             $G := G \cup \{(\Gamma, \tau)\}$ ;
27            GOTO loop;
28        ELSE REJECT;

```

**Fig. 2:** Alternating EXPTIME-Turing machine

**Proposition 12.** *Inhabitation in system  $\lambda(-\cap\mathbb{I})$  is in EXPSPACE.*

**Proof:** We process problems of the form  $\Gamma \vdash \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is organized and every  $\Gamma(x)$  is a sum ( $\bigoplus$ ) of organized types. There are two cases, nondeterministically chosen. One is justified by Lemma 9, the other by Lemma 11.

**Case 1:** For  $\tau = \bigcap_{i \in I} (\tau_i \rightarrow \sigma_i)$ , ask if  $\Gamma, x : \bigoplus_{i \in I} \tau_i \vdash \bigcap_{i \in I} \sigma_i$ .

**Case 2:** We guess  $x$  and  $k$  and a set  $P$  of paths in  $\Gamma(x)$ . That suffices to verify condition (2b) of Lemma 11.

To handle condition (2a) assume for a moment that  $\tau$  is a path. By Lemma 3, the inequality (2a) holds if and only if we have  $\text{tgt}_k(\pi) \leq \tau$  for a single  $\pi \in P$ . If  $\tau$  is an intersection of paths, we need one  $\pi \in P$  for each.



At all stages, we ask questions of the form  $\Gamma \vdash \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is an intersection of (organized form of) disjoint subterms of the original type. It takes linear space to write down each such  $\tau$ . Types in  $\Gamma$  are sums of such disjoint subterms. The environment can only grow and one can optimize by assuming that no type is repeated (Figure 2 line 7). There are at most exponentially many such intersections and sums.

The variable  $G$  is an auxiliary device to prevent repeating goals. As inhabitation goals  $(\Gamma, \tau)$  are generated (starting with the input goal), they are accumulated in  $G$  along branches of the computation tree to ensure that a goal  $(\Gamma, \tau)$  is only considered in a branch if it has not already been considered in the branch.

It follows that the depth of alternating paths of computation are exponentially bounded and hence the (alternating) time used by the procedure is at most exponential. The proposition now follows from the well-known identity  $\text{AEXP-TIME} = \text{EXPSpace}$  [3, Corollary 3.6].  $\square$

### 3.2 EXPSpace lower bound

The lower bound is obtained by encoding the halting problem for bus machines into the inhabitation problem. A bus machine is an alternating computing device operating on a finite word (bus) of a fixed length. At every step the whole contents of the bus is updated according to one of the instructions of the machine. In addition new instructions may be created each time to be used in the future. A precise definition is as follows.

A *simple switch* over a finite alphabet  $\mathcal{A}$  is a pair of elements of  $\mathcal{A}$ , written  $a \leftarrow b$ . A *labeled switch* is a quadruple, written  $a \leftarrow b(c \leftarrow d)$ , where the simple switch  $c \leftarrow d$  is the *label*. Finally, a *universal switch* is a triple, written  $a \leftarrow b \times c$ .

Formally, a *bus machine* is a tuple  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{A}, m, w_0, w_1, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{A}$  is a finite alphabet,  $m > 0$  is the *bus length* of  $\mathcal{M}$  (the length of the words processed),  $w_0$  and  $w_1$  are words of length  $m$  over  $\mathcal{A}$ , called the *initial* and *final word*, respectively, and  $\mathcal{I}$  is the set of *global instructions*.

Every global instruction is an  $m$ -tuple  $\mathbb{I} = \langle I_1, \dots, I_m \rangle$  of sets of switches. Switches in  $I_i$  are meant to act on the  $i$ -th symbol of the bus. It is required that all switches in a given instruction  $\mathbb{I}$  are of the same kind: either all are simple, or all are labeled, or all are universal. Therefore we classify instructions as simple, labeled, and universal. A *local instruction* is an  $m$ -tuple of simple switches and is considered a special case of a simple instruction (singletons at all coordinates).

A *configuration* of  $\mathcal{M}$  is a pair  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle$ , where  $w$  is a word over  $\mathcal{A}$  of length  $m$ , and  $\mathcal{J}$  is a set of local instructions. The *initial* configuration is of course  $\langle w_0, \emptyset \rangle$ , and any configuration of the form  $\langle w_1, \mathcal{J} \rangle$  is called *final*.

Suppose that  $\mathbb{I} = \langle I_1, \dots, I_m \rangle$ , and let  $w = a_1 \dots a_m$  and  $w' = b_1 \dots b_m$ ,  $w'' = c_1 \dots c_m$ .

- If  $\mathbb{I}$  is a simple instruction, and for every  $i \leq m$  the simple switch  $a_i \leftarrow b_i$  belongs to  $I_i$ , then  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathbb{I}, \mathcal{M}} \langle w', \mathcal{J} \rangle$ ;
- If for every  $i \leq m$  there is  $a_i \leftarrow b_i(c_i \leftarrow d_i)$  in  $I_i$ , then  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathbb{I}, \mathcal{M}} \langle w', \mathcal{J}' \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{J}' = \mathcal{J} \cup \{ \langle c_1 \leftarrow d_1, \dots, c_m \leftarrow d_m \rangle \}$ ;

- If  $\mathbb{I}$  is universal and  $a_i \leftarrow b_i \times c_i$  is in  $I_i$ , for  $i \leq m$ , then  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathbb{I}}^{\mathcal{M}} \langle w', \mathcal{J} \rangle$ , and also  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathbb{I}}^{\mathcal{M}} \langle w'', \mathcal{J} \rangle$ .

A configuration  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle$  is *accepting* iff it is either a final configuration, or

- There exists a non-universal instruction  $\mathbb{I}$ , such that  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathbb{I}}^{\mathcal{M}} \langle w', \mathcal{J}' \rangle$  and  $\langle w', \mathcal{J}' \rangle$  is accepting, or
- There is a universal instruction  $\mathbb{I}$  such that we have  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathbb{I}}^{\mathcal{M}} \langle w', \mathcal{J} \rangle$  and  $\langle w, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathbb{I}}^{\mathcal{M}} \langle w'', \mathcal{J} \rangle$ , where both  $\langle w', \mathcal{J} \rangle$  and  $\langle w'', \mathcal{J} \rangle$  are accepting.

The machine  $\mathcal{M}$  *halts* iff the initial configuration is accepting.

*Example 13.* This example is repeated after [17], and is based on the ideas of [8]. Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $I = \{0 \leftarrow 0, 1 \leftarrow 1\}$ ,  $I^+ = \{0 \leftarrow 1\}$ , and  $I^- = \{1 \leftarrow 0\}$ . Take  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{A}, 4, 0000, 1111, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{I}$  consists of the following tuples (note that all global instructions are simple).

$$(I, I, I, I^+), (I, I, I^+, I^-), (I, I^+, I^-, I^-), (I^+, I^-, I^-, I^-).$$

The machine  $\mathcal{M}$  makes  $2^4 - 1$  steps and halts after it has seen all binary strings of length 4.

*Example 14.* This example demonstrates how local instructions work. We modify Example 13 so that  $\mathcal{A} = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  and

$$I = \{0 \leftarrow 0(2 \leftarrow 2), 1 \leftarrow 1(3 \leftarrow 3)\}, \quad I^+ = \{0 \leftarrow 1(2 \leftarrow 3)\}, \quad I^- = \{1 \leftarrow 0(3 \leftarrow 2)\}.$$

In addition, let  $I^* = \{1 \leftarrow 2\}$ . Our new machine is  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{A}, 4, 0000, 3333, \mathcal{I} \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{I}$  consists of the following tuples

$$(I, I, I, I^+), (I, I, I^+, I^-), (I, I^+, I^-, I^-), (I^+, I^-, I^-, I^-), (I^*, I^*, I^*, I^*).$$

For the first  $2^4 - 1$  steps the machine behaves as in Example 13, using global instructions only. This time however, every application of a global instruction creates a new unique local instruction. After arriving at 1111 the machine rewrites the bus to 2222 and then executes one by one all the local instructions, finally reaching the final 3333. Observe that the number of local instructions is exponential and so is the (implicit) space needed to store them.

The following result was shown in [17].

**Proposition 15.** *The halting problem for bus machines is EXPSpace-complete.*

The proof of Proposition 15 makes an essential use of both alternation and the ability of bus machines to create local instructions. Without the latter (when all global instructions are either simple or universal) the problem turns out to be complete in EXPTIME, and that is implicit in [8], because such bus machines are of the same power as alternating linear bounded automata.

Without alternation, as usual, the problems classify one step lower in the hierarchy (as EXPTIME- and PSPACE-complete, respectively).

We need a slightly improved version of Proposition 15. Call a bus machine  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{A}, m, w_0, w_1, \mathcal{I} \rangle$  *separated*, when the alphabet  $\mathcal{A}$  is a union of  $m$  disjoint alphabets  $\mathcal{A}_i$  and all links in the  $i$ -th component of every instruction are built exclusively from symbols in  $\mathcal{A}_i$ . We have

**Corollary 16.** *The halting problem for separated bus machines is EXPSPACE-complete.*

**Proof:** Simply replace  $\mathcal{A}$  by a disjoint union of  $m$  copies of  $\mathcal{A}$  and rewrite all switches and the initial and final words accordingly. The new machine halts if and only if the original one halts, because different components of the bus do not interact at all.  $\square$

### Exponential space hardness

We reduce the halting problem for separated bus machines to the inhabitation problem. The principle of the encoding is similar to that in Section 3.3 of [17]. However, a major difference is that [17] deals with restricted types but unrestricted rules. In particular, rule  $(\cap\text{I})$  makes it possible to simulate the  $m$  coordinates of the bus by using an intersection. To inhabit this intersection one looks for a single term solving the  $m$  problems represented by the components of the intersection.

Now, in system  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$ , we have restricted rules. Without rule  $(\cap\text{I})$  we cannot create a parallel problem. Instead we represent a bus as an intersection of atoms. By making the alphabets disjoint we ensure that an intersection of  $m$  atoms represents only one word of length  $m$ , because we know that the  $i$ -th symbol belongs to the  $i$ -th alphabet. Rather than simultaneously switching from  $a_i$  to  $b_i$ , at every  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , we switch from  $a_1 \cap \dots \cap a_m$  to  $b_1 \cap \dots \cap b_m$ . To make sure this works correctly, we need a new technique for coding rules, especially labeled rules. For this, a major instrument is Lemma 17 below.

So let  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{A}, m, w_0, w_1, \mathcal{I} \rangle$  be separated, and assume that the final word is  $f_1 \dots f_m$ , and the initial word is  $s_1 \dots s_m$ . Simple and universal switches of  $\mathcal{M}$  are encoded by types of the form  $a \rightarrow b$  and  $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$ . A labeled switch  $a \leftarrow b(c \leftarrow d)$ , with  $a, b, c, d \in \mathcal{A}_i$ , is encoded by

$$(((d \rightarrow c) \cap \bigcap_{o \in \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_i} (\omega \rightarrow o)) \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a.$$

The following property is useful.

**Lemma 17.** *Let  $d_i, c_i \in \mathcal{A}_i$ . Then*

$$\bigoplus_{i=1}^m ((d_i \rightarrow c_i) \cap \bigcap_{o \in \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_i} (\omega \rightarrow o)) = \bigcap_{i=1}^m (d_i \rightarrow c_i).$$

**Proof:** According to the definition of  $\bigoplus$ , each path in the left-hand side must be of the form  $d_i \cap \omega \cap \dots \cap \omega \rightarrow c_i$ , i.e., must be equal to  $d_i \rightarrow c_i$ .  $\square$

A local instruction  $J = \langle c_1 \leftarrow b_1, \dots, c_m \leftarrow b_m \rangle$  is encoded by the type  $\alpha_J = \bigcap_{i=1}^m (b_i \rightarrow c_i)$ . A global instruction  $\mathbb{I} = \langle I_1, \dots, I_m \rangle$  is encoded as the intersection of types representing all switches in the union of  $I_1, \dots, I_m$ . For example, a simple instruction  $\mathbb{I} = \langle I_1, \dots, I_m \rangle$  with  $I_j = \{a_k^j \leftarrow b_k^j \mid k = 1, \dots, q_j\}$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m$ , is represented by the type  $\tau^{\mathbb{I}}$  defined by

$$\tau^{\mathbb{I}} = \bigcap \{b_k^j \rightarrow a_k^j \mid j = 1 \dots m, k = 1 \dots q_j\}.$$

Assuming  $\mathcal{I} = \{\mathbb{I}_1, \dots, \mathbb{I}_n\}$ , we take  $\Gamma = \{x_0 : f_1 \cap \dots \cap f_m, x_1 : \tau^1, \dots, x_n : \tau^n\}$ , where each  $\tau^j$  represents  $\mathbb{I}_j$ . In addition, let  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} = \Gamma \cup \{y_J : \alpha_J \mid J \in \mathcal{J}\}$ , for any set  $\mathcal{J}$  of local instructions.

A configuration  $\langle e_1 \dots e_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle$  of the machine is now represented by the inhabitation problem  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_m$ . Here is what we need to prove.

**Lemma 18.** *The configuration  $\langle e_1 \dots e_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle$  is accepting if and only if there is a term  $M$  satisfying  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash M : e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_m$ .*

**Proof:** The proof of “only if” goes by induction with respect to the definition of acceptance.

Consider the case  $\langle e_1 \dots e_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathcal{M}}^{\mathbb{I}_j} \langle b_1 \dots b_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle$ , where  $\mathbb{I}_j = \langle I_1, \dots, I_m \rangle$  is simple and where  $e_i \leftarrow b_i$  is in the  $i$ -th component of  $\mathbb{I}_j$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , and  $\langle b_1 \dots b_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle$  is accepting. By induction hypothesis, there exists  $M$  such that  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash M : b_1 \cap \dots \cap b_m$ . By construction, we have  $(x_j : \tau^j) \in \Gamma^{\mathcal{J}}$  with

$$\tau^j \leq \bigcap_{i=1}^m (b_i \rightarrow e_i) \leq \bigcap_{i=1}^m b_i \rightarrow \bigcap_{i=1}^m e_i$$

where the last inequality follows by distributivity properties of  $\leq$ . It follows that  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash x_j M : e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_m$ . The similar case of a universal instruction is left out.

Consider the case of a labeled rule  $\mathbb{I}_j$  corresponding to the variable  $x_j$ . We have a switch  $e_i \leftarrow b_i (c_i \leftarrow d_i)$  at every component, and an accepting configuration  $\langle b_1 \dots b_m, \mathcal{J} \cup \{J\} \rangle$ , where  $J = \langle c_1 \leftarrow d_1, \dots, c_m \leftarrow d_m \rangle$ . By the induction hypothesis there is a term  $N$  such that

$$\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}}, y_J : \alpha_J \vdash N : b_1 \cap \dots \cap b_m.$$

By Lemma 17, we have  $\alpha_J = \bigoplus_i ((d_i \rightarrow c_i) \cap \bigcap_{o \in \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_i} (\omega \rightarrow o))$ , whence, by Lemma 9,

$$\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash \lambda y_J N : \bigcap_i [((d_i \rightarrow c_i) \cap \bigcap_{o \in \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_i} (\omega \rightarrow o)) \rightarrow b_i]$$

Since  $\Gamma(x_j)$  contains all paths  $((d_i \rightarrow c_i) \cap \bigcap_{o \in \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_i} (\omega \rightarrow o)) \rightarrow b_i \rightarrow e_i$ , we may conclude from Lemma 11 that  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash x_j (\lambda y_J N) : e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_m$ .

The “if” part is shown by induction with respect to  $M$ , where  $M$  is assumed to be in normal form, cf. Lemma 7. Consider the case of  $M = x_j M'$ , where  $(x_j : \tau^j) \in \Gamma^{\mathcal{J}}$  represents a simple instruction of the form  $\mathbb{I}_j = \langle I_1, \dots, I_m \rangle$ . Since  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash x_j M' : e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_m$ , it follows from Lemma 5 that we must have  $\tau^j \leq \zeta \rightarrow \bigcap_{i=1}^m e_i$ , and  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash M' : \zeta$ , for some  $\zeta$ .

By Lemma 1, we have  $\zeta \leq \bigcap \{b_t \mid t \in T\}$ , and  $\bigcap \{a_t \mid t \in T\} \leq \bigcap_{i=1}^m e_i$ , where  $\bigcap_{t \in T} (b_t \rightarrow a_t)$  is a component of  $\tau^j$ . Since  $e_i$  and  $a_t$  are atoms, we actually have  $\{e_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq m\} \subseteq \{a_t \mid t \in T\}$ . Assume for simplicity that  $\{1, \dots, m\} \subseteq T$ , and  $e_i = a_i$ , for all  $i$ . So  $\zeta \leq \bigcap \{b_i \mid i = 1 \dots m\}$  and thus  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash M' : b_1 \cap \dots \cap b_m$ . By induction hypothesis,  $\langle b_1 \dots b_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle$  is accepting. Moreover, by construction of  $\tau^j$  together with  $\tau^j \leq \zeta \rightarrow \bigcap_{i=1}^m e_i$ , it must be that  $e_i \leftarrow b_i$  is in the  $i$ -th component of  $\mathbb{I}_j$ , for  $i = 1 \dots m$ . It follows that  $\langle e_1 \dots e_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle \Rightarrow_{\mathcal{M}}^{\mathbb{I}_j} \langle b_1 \dots b_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle$ , and hence  $\langle e_1 \dots e_m, \mathcal{J} \rangle$  is accepting.

The case of a universal instruction is similar. Again the most complex case is when  $M = x(\lambda y N)$ . If  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash M : e_1 \cap \dots \cap e_m$  then, for every  $i$ , there must be a component  $((a_i \rightarrow b_i) \cap \bigcap_{o \in \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_i} (\omega \rightarrow o)) \rightarrow c_i \rightarrow e_i$  in  $\Gamma(x)$  such that

$$\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}} \vdash \lambda y N : \bigcap_i ((a_i \rightarrow b_i) \cap \bigcap_{o \in \mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}_i} (\omega \rightarrow o)) \rightarrow c_i.$$

Using again Lemmas 11 and 17, we see that  $\Gamma^{\mathcal{J}}, y : \alpha_J \vdash \bigcap_i c_i$ , for an appropriate  $J$ , and here we apply the induction hypothesis.  $\square$

**Theorem 19.** *The inhabitation problem for  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$  is EXPSPACE-complete.*

**Proof:** The problem is in EXPSPACE by Proposition 12, hardness follows from Corollary 16. Indeed, by Lemma 18, the machine  $\mathcal{M}$  halts if and only if type  $\gamma_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \gamma_k \rightarrow s_1 \cap \dots \cap s_m$  is inhabited, where  $\gamma_i$  are all types from the environment  $\Gamma$ . (Note that the initial  $\mathcal{J}$  is empty.)  $\square$

## 4 PSPACE-completeness without subtyping

Systems of intersection types are often defined without subtyping, but with the intersection elimination rule ( $\cap\text{E}$ ) (which is derivable in presence of the subsumption rule). Such a restriction of  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$  is given in Figure 3.

$\frac{}{\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash x : \tau} (\text{var})$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau \rightarrow \tau' \quad \Gamma \vdash N : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (M N) : \tau'} (\rightarrow\text{E})$
$\frac{\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash M : \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x M : \tau \rightarrow \tau'} (\rightarrow\text{I})$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau_1 \cap \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash M : \tau_i} (\cap\text{E})$

**Fig. 3:** Type system  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$  without subtyping.

Define a relation  $\sqsubseteq$  as the least quasi-order such that:

- $\tau \cap \sigma \sqsubseteq \tau$ ;
- If  $\sigma \sqsubseteq \sigma'$  then  $\tau \rightarrow \sigma \sqsubseteq \tau \rightarrow \sigma'$ .

**Lemma 20.** *If  $\Gamma \vdash x N_1 \dots N_k : \sigma$  then  $\Gamma(x) \sqsubseteq \tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_k \rightarrow \sigma$ , where  $\Gamma \vdash N_i : \tau_i$ , for all  $i$ .*

**Proof:** Induction.  $\square$

A derivation is *long normal* when it only uses the following rules:

$$\frac{\Gamma(x : \tau) \vdash N : \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x N : \tau \rightarrow \sigma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash N_i : \tau_i \quad (i = 1, \dots, k)}{\Gamma \vdash x N_1 \dots N_k : \alpha} (\Gamma(x) \sqsubseteq \tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_k \rightarrow \alpha)$$

where  $\alpha$  is not an arrow type. The next lemma is almost literally the same as proving that an inhabited simple type has a long normal inhabitant.

**Lemma 21.** *If  $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$  then there is a long normal derivation of  $\Gamma \vdash M' : \tau$ , for some  $M'$ .*

**Proof:** Without loss of generality, we can take  $M$  normal. We use induction with respect to the size of  $M$ . If  $\tau = \sigma \rightarrow \rho$  and  $M = \lambda z N$ , apply induction to  $N$ . If  $M = zN_1 \dots N_k$ , write  $\tau$  as  $\tau = \rho_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \rho_m \rightarrow \alpha$ , with  $\alpha$  not an arrow type. Use Lemma 20, and apply induction to  $\Gamma \vdash N_i : \tau_i$  to obtain terms  $N'_i$  such that  $\Gamma \vdash N'_i : \tau_i$  have long normal derivations. Finally define  $M'$  as the term  $\lambda y_1 \dots y_m. zN'_1 \dots N'_k y_1 \dots y_m$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 22.** *Inhabitation in system  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$  without subtyping is PSPACE-complete.*

**Proof:** By Lemma 21 an inhabited type has an inhabitant with a long normal derivation. Therefore, a PSPACE inhabitation algorithm can be obtained as a slight modification of the ordinary Wajsberg/Ben-Yelles procedure for simple types, as in e.g. [15]. The only difference is that, when looking for a proof of a non-arrow type  $\alpha$ , one chooses a “path” of the form  $\tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_k \rightarrow \alpha$  where  $\Gamma(x) \sqsubseteq \tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_k \rightarrow \alpha$  (rather than  $\Gamma(x) = \tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_k \rightarrow \alpha$ ), for some  $x$ . A path is selected nondeterministically by inspecting the tree of  $\Gamma(x)$  from the root towards the leaves (may stop at an internal  $\cap$ -node). The case  $\Gamma \vdash \tau \rightarrow \sigma$  is reduced as usual to  $\Gamma \vdash \sigma$  or  $\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash \sigma$ , with fresh  $x$ , depending on whether  $\tau \in \text{rn}(\Gamma)$  or not.

The PSPACE-hardness follows easily from PSPACE-hardness of inhabitation in simple types, since  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$  without subtyping is easily seen to be a conservative extension of the simple typed system  $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$  (if  $\Gamma$  contains only simple types, then  $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$  in  $\lambda(-\cap\text{I})$  is equivalent to  $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$  in  $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$ ).  $\square$

## 5 Conclusion

We have considered the question of complexity of inhabitation for a natural fragment of the intersection typed  $\lambda$ -calculus, in which intersections are *explicit*, in the sense of “Church-style” type assumptions or, equivalently, in the sense that intersections cannot be introduced. Decidability was shown by Kurata and Takahashi [7], but the question of complexity was left open. In the present paper we have settled the question: the problem is EXSPACE-complete. We have emphasized the importance of subtyping by pointing out that the problem is PSPACE-complete in the absence of subtyping. Since decidable inhabitation can be seen as a basis for automatic program synthesis problems [12], our result determines the complexity of synthesis for the “Church-style fragment” of the intersection typed  $\lambda$ -calculus. More generally, our result adds to the emerging systematic understanding of the fine structure of intersection type systems.

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