Fully Abstract Normal Form Bisimulation for Call-by-Value PCF

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***Abstract*—We present the first fully abstract normal form bisimulation for call-by-value PCF (PCF_v). Our model is based on a labelled transition system (LTS) that combines elements from applicative bisimulation, environmental bisimulation and game semantics. In order to obtain completeness while avoiding the use of semantic quotiening, the LTS constructs traces corresponding to interactions with possible functional contexts. The model gives rise to a sound and complete technique for checking of PCF_v program equivalence, which we implement in a bounded bisimulation checking tool. We test our tool on known equivalences from the literature and new examples.**

I. Introduction

The full abstraction problem for PCF, i.e. constructing a denotational model that captures contextual equivalence in the paradigmatic functional language PCF, was put forward by Milner in the mid 1970's [28]. The first fully abstract denotational models for PCF were presented in the early 1990's and gave rise to the theory of *game semantics* [2], [12], [30], while fully abstract models for its call-by-value variant were given in [10], [3]. Fully abstract operational models of PCF have been given in terms of *applicative bisimulations* [1], [9], [11] and *logical relations* [31], and for other pure languages in terms of *environmental bisimulations* [39], [36] and *logical relations* [32], [4]. On the other hand, Loader demonstrated that contextual equivalence for finitary PCF is undecidable [26].

A limitation of the game semantics models for PCF is their intentional nature. While the denotations of inequivalent program terms are always distinct, there are equivalent terms whose denotations are also distinct and become equivalent only after a semantic quotiening operation. Quotiening requires universal quantification over tests, which amounts to quantification over all (innocent) contexts. This hinders the use of game models for pure functional languages to prove equivalence of terms, as any reasoning technique needs to involve all contexts of term denotations in the semantic model (i.e. all possible *Opponent strategies*). In a more recent work, Churchill et al. [7] were able to give a direct characterisation of program equivalence in terms of so-called *sets of O-views*, built out of term denotations. The latter work is to our knowledge the only direct (i.e. quotient-free) semantic characterisation of PCF contextual equivalence, though it is arguably more of theoretical value and does not readily yield a proof method.

Operational models also involve quantification over all identical (applicative bisimulation) or related (logical relations, environmental bisimulations) closed arguments of type A, when describing the equivalence class of type $A \to B$. Although successful proof techniques of equivalence have been developed based on these models, universal quantification over opponent-generated terms must be handled in proofs with rather manual inductive or coinductive arguments.

Normal-Form (NF) bisimulation, also known as open bisimulation, was originally defined for characterising Lévy-Longo tree equivalence for the lazy lambda calculus [35] and adapted to languages with call-by-name [21], call-by-value [22], nondeterminism [23], aspects [14], recursive types [25], polymorphism [20], control with state [37], state-only [6], and control-only [5]. It has also been used to create equivalence verification techniques for a lambda calculus with state [16].

The main advantage of NF bisimulation is that it does away with quantification over opponent-generated terms, replacing them with fresh open names. This has also been shown [25], [20], [16] to relate to operational game semantics models where opponent-generated terms are also represented by names [19], [8], [13]. The main disadvantage of NF bisimulation is that — with the notable exception of languages with control and state [37], and state-only [6], [16] — it is too discriminating thus failing to be fully abstract with respect to contextual equivalence. This is particularly true for pure languages such as PCF, and its call-by-value variant PCF_v which is the target of this paper.

However, the discriminating power of NF bisimulation depends on the labelled transition system (LTS) upon which it is defined. Existing work define NF bisimulation over LTSs that treat call and return moves between term and context in a fairly standard way: these are immediately observable by the bisimulation as they appear in transition annotations, and context moves correspond to imperative, not purely functional, contexts. As we show in Section II, this is overly discriminating for a language such as PCF_v. Moreover, existing NF bisimulation techniques, either do not make extensive use of the the context's knowledge in the LTS configurations (e.g. [25]), or consider an ever-increasing context knowledge (e.g.

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[6]) which is only fully abstract for imperative contexts.

In this paper we present the first fully abstract NF bisimulation for PCF_v, defined in Section III. To achieve this we develop in Section IV a novel Labelled Transition System (LTS) which:

- is based on an operational presentation of game models (cf. [19]) and uses Proponent and Opponent configurations (and *call/return moves*) for evaluation steps that depend on the modelled term and its environment, respectively;
- uses an explicit stack principle to guarantee well-bracketing and stipulates that the *opponent view* of the LTS trace be restricted to moves related to the last open proponent call (cf. *well-bracketing* and *visibility* [12]);
- restricts opponent moves so that they correspond to those of a pure functional context, by explicitly keeping track of previous opponent responses to proponent moves and their corresponding (opponent) view (cf. *innocence* [12]);
- postpones observations of proponent call/return moves until computations are complete to avoid unnecessary distinctions between equivalent terms.

We then define a notion of NF bisimulation over this LTS which combines standard move/label synchronisation with coherence of corresponding opponent behaviours. We show that the latter is fully abstract with respect to contextual equivalence (Section V). Due to its operational nature and the absence of quantification over opponent-generated terms, the model lends itself to a bounded model-checking technique for equivalence which we implement in a prototype tool (Section VI). We conclude in Section VII.

II. Motivating Examples

We start with a simple example of equivalence that showcases unobservable behaviour differences in PCF_v.

Example 1. Consider the following equivalent terms of type $(\mathsf{unit} \to \mathsf{int}) \to (\mathsf{unit} \to \mathsf{int}) \to \mathsf{int}$.

$M_1 =$
```
fun f -> fun g -> if f () == g () then
                  if f () == g () then 0 else 1
                  else 2
```

$N_1 =$
```
fun f -> fun g -> if g () == f () then 0 else 2
```

These two terms are contextually equivalent because the context cannot observe whether `f` and `g` have been called more than once with the same argument. Two calls of a pure and deterministic function with the same argument both diverge or return the same value. Moreover, the context cannot observe the order of calls to the context-generated functions `f` and `g`. As we will see in Section IV, our LTS restricts the behaviour of context-generated functions such as `f` and `g` so that they behave in a pure deterministic manner, and does not make distinctions based on their call order. □

We now discuss key *observable* behaviour differences in PCF_v through the lens of bisimulation theories. As explained in [15], the main feature in environmental bisimulation definitions [38], [39], [18], [17], [36] is *knowledge accumulation:* environmental bisimulation collects the term-generated functions in an environment representing the knowledge of the context. This knowledge is used in the following bisimulation tests to distinguish terms:

1) to call a function from the environment multiple times in a row with the same argument;
2) to call a function from the environment multiple times in a row with different arguments;
3) to call environment functions after other environment functions have returned; and
4) to use environment functions in the construction of context-generated functions.

The above is easily understood to be necessary in stateful languages and was shown to be needed in pure languages with existential types [15]. However, as applicative bisimulation has shown, it is unnecessary to accumulate the context's knowledge in order to create a theory of PCF_v: applicative bisimulation interrogates related functions in isolation from other knowledge by simply applying them to identical arguments.

As discussed in the first example of this section, purity and determinism indeed make (1) unnecessary in PCF_v. However, (2–4) are *necessary* tests that a normal form bisimulation theory for PCF_v must perform. This is because a normal form bisimulation definition must prescribe the necessary interaction between terms and context *under any evaluation context* and not just at top-level computations. Applicative bisimulation on the other hand is only defined in terms of top-level function applications, where the context's knowledge is limited. Universal quantification over the code of context-generated function arguments implicitly encodes all the interactions that related terms may have with these arguments. We showcase the need for (2–4) in the following three example inequivalences.

Example 2. Consider the inequivalent terms M_2, N_2 of type $(((\mathsf{bool} \to \mathsf{bool}) * (\mathsf{bool} \to \mathsf{bool})) \to \mathsf{bool}) \to \mathsf{bool} \to \mathsf{bool}$.

$M_2 =$
```
fun f -> fun b ->
    let rec X d = f (X, fun _ ->  d)
    in X b
```

$N_2 =$
```
fun f -> fun b ->
    f ((fun _ -> _bot_), fun _ ->  b)
```

Here `_bot_` is a diverging term and `_` represents an unused variable; `X` has type $\mathsf{bool} \to \mathsf{bool}$.

Term M_2 will receive a function `f` and a boolean `b`. It will then create a recursive term which calls `f` with a pair containing two $\mathsf{bool} \to \mathsf{bool}$ functions. If `f` calls `X`, the first function in the pair, with a boolean `d`, computation will recur; if it calls the second function, it will receive the argument of the latest call to `X`. On the other hand, N_2 calls `f` with a pair of functions where the first one diverges upon call, and the second one returns `b`, provided at the beginning of the interaction.

These terms can be distinguished by the following context:

```
let f = fun (X, fd) -> if fd false then X false
                       else true
in [] f true
```

This context creates a function `f` that receives two functions `X` and `fd`, and conditionally calls `X` with `false`, if the call to `fd`

returns `true`. When placed in the hole `[]` of this context, M_2 will receive `f` and value `true`. Recursive function `X` will thus be first called with `true`, in the last line of M_2, and then again with `false` by `f`, causing the termination of the computation. On the other hand, with N_2 in the hole, the context will diverge.

This is effectively the only simple context that can distinguish M_2 and N_2, and thus a NF bisimulation theory of equivalence for PCF_v must accumulate `X` in the opponent's knowledge at inner interaction levels to allow calling `X` after `fd` has returned. This shows the need for allowing (3) in a NF bisimulation. Indeed, if we omit this from the technique we develop in the following sections, M_2 and N_2 would be deemed equivalent. □

The following variation of the above example shows that the context may need to call the same function twice, with different arguments, to make observations.

Example 3. Consider the inequivalent terms M_3, N_3 of type $((\mathsf{bool} \to (\mathsf{bool} \to \mathsf{bool})) \to \mathsf{bool}) \to \mathsf{bool} \to \mathsf{bool}$.

```
M3 = fun f -> fun b ->
       let rec X d = f (fun e -> if e then X
                                      else (fun _ -> d))
       in X b
```

```
N3 = fun f ->  fun b ->
       f (fun e -> if e then (fun d -> _bot_)
                        else (fun _ -> b))
```

where `X` has type bool → bool. The distinguishing context is

```
let f = fun fXd ->
          let X = fXd true in
          let fd = fXd false in
          if fd false then X false else true
in [] f true
```

Here the interaction between the terms and the context are as in the previous example, with the difference that the context must apply `fXd` to `true` and then `false` to receive the two functions `X` and `fd`. The context terminates with M_3 but diverges with N_3 in its hole.

This is effectively the only simple context that can distinguish M_3 and N_3, and thus a NF bisimulation theory of equivalence for PCF_v that describes all the term-context interactions must accumulate `fXd` in the context's knowledge in order to apply it twice in a row. This showcases the need for allowing (2) in a NF bisimulation. □

Our final example shows that functions from the context's knowledge must be used within a context-generated function in order to distinguish two terms.

Example 4. Consider the inequivalent terms M_4, N_4 of type $T = ((\mathsf{int} \to \mathsf{int}) \to \mathsf{int} \to \mathsf{int}) \to \mathsf{int} \to \mathsf{int}$.

```
M4 = let rec X count = fun f -> fun i ->
       f  (fun j -> if (count > 0)
                    then X (count-1) f j
                    else _bot_)  i
     in X k
```

```
N4 = fun f -> fun i -> let rec Y j = f Y j
                       in Y i
```

where `X` and `Y` have type int → T and int → int, respectively.

This is a family of examples in which the distinguishing interaction increases with k; N_4 enables `f` to call itself an arbitrary number of times, whereas M_4 enables up to k recursive calls of `f` before it diverges. The distinguishing context below attempts to perform $k+1$ recursive calls and then to return 0:

```
[] (fun Z -> fun i -> if i > 0 then Z (i-1) else 0)
```
$(k+1)$

This context diverges with M_4 but converges with N_4 in its hole. To achieve this, the context uses the function received as argument `Z` inside the context-generated function `fun i -> if i > 0 then Z (i-1) else 0` which is given back to the term. As this is effectively the only context that can distinguish M_4 and N_4, we need to allow our NF bisimulation for PCF_v to construct (symbolic) function values that can internally refer to functions in the context's knowledge at the time of construction; showing the need for allowing (4) in a NF bisimulation. If we omit this from our technique, it would deem M_3 and N_3 equivalent. □

III. Language and Semantics

We work with the language PCF_v, a simply-typed call-by-value lambda calculus with boolean and integer operations [10]. The syntax and reduction semantics are shown in Fig. 1. Expressions (Exp) include the standard lambda expressions with recursive functions ($\mathsf{fix} f(x).e$), together with standard base type constants (c) and operations ($op(\vec{e})$), as well as conditionals and tuple-deconstructing let expressions ($\mathsf{let}(\vec{x}) = e \text{ in } e$). We use standard macros, for example $\bot_T \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathsf{fix} f_{\mathsf{unit}\to T}(x).fx$ and $\lambda x_T.e \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathsf{fix} f_{T\to T'}(x).e$ (with f fresh for e).

The language PCF_v is simply-typed with typing judgements of the form $\Delta \vdash e : T$, where Δ is a type environment (omitted when empty) and T a value type (Type). The rules of the typing system are standard and omitted here [10]. Values consist of boolean, integer, and unit constants, functions and arbitrary length tuples of values.

The reduction semantics is by small-step transitions between closed expressions, $e \to e'$, defined using single-hole evaluation contexts (ECxt) over a base relation $\hookrightarrow$. Holes $[\cdot]_T$ are annotated with the type T of closed values they accept, which we omit when possible to lighten notation. Beta substitution of x with v in e is written as $e[v/x]$. We write $e \Downarrow$ to denote $e \to^* v$ for some v. We write $\vec{\chi}$ to mean a finite sequence of syntax objects $\chi_1, \ldots,$ and assume standard syntactic sugar from the lambda calculus. In our examples we assume an ML-like syntax and implementation of the type system, which is also the concrete syntax of our prototype tool (Section VI).

Contexts D contain multiple, non-uniquely indexed holes $[\cdot]_{i,T}$, where T is the type of value that can replace the hole (and each index i can have one related type). A context is called *canonical* if its holes are indexed $1, \ldots, n$, for some n. Given a canonical context D and a sequence of typed expressions $\Sigma \vdash \vec{e} : \vec{T}$, notation $D[\vec{e}]$ denotes the context D with each hole $[\cdot]_{i,T_i}$ replaced with e_i. We omit hole types where possible

$$
\begin{array}{rrcl}
\textsf{Type}: & T & ::= & \mathsf{bool} \mid \mathsf{int} \mid \mathsf{unit} \mid T \to T \mid T_1 * \ldots * T_n \\
\textsf{Exp}: & e, M, N & ::= & v \mid x \mid (\vec{e}) \mid op(\vec{e}) \mid e\, e \mid \mathsf{if}\, e\, \mathsf{then}\, e\, \mathsf{else}\, e \mid \mathsf{let}(\vec{x}) = e\ \mathsf{in}\ e \\
\textsf{Val}: & u, v & ::= & c \mid \mathsf{fix} f_T(x).e \mid (\vec{v}) \\
\textsf{ECxt}: & E & ::= & [\cdot]_T \mid (\vec{v}, E, \vec{e}) \mid op(\vec{v}, E, \vec{e}) \mid E\, e \mid v\, E \mid \mathsf{if}\, E\, \mathsf{then}\, e\, \mathsf{else}\, e \mid \mathsf{let}(\vec{x}) = E\ \mathsf{in}\ e \\
\textsf{Cxt}: & D & ::= & [\cdot]_{i,T} \mid e \mid (\vec{D}) \mid op(\vec{D}) \mid D\, D \mid \mathsf{if}\, D\, \mathsf{then}\, D\, \mathsf{else}\, D \mid \mathsf{fix} f_T(x).D \mid \mathsf{let}(\vec{x}) = D\ \mathsf{in}\ D
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{rcl@{\qquad}rcl}
(\mathsf{fix} f(x).e)\, v & \hookrightarrow & e[v/x][\mathsf{fix} f(x).e/f] & op(\vec{c}) & \hookrightarrow & w \quad \text{if } op^{\mathsf{arith}}(\vec{c}) = w \\
\mathsf{let}(\vec{x}) = (\vec{v})\ \mathsf{in}\ e & \hookrightarrow & e[\vec{v}/\vec{x}] & \mathsf{if}\, c\, \mathsf{then}\, e_1\, \mathsf{else}\, e_2 & \hookrightarrow & e_i \quad \text{if } (c, i) \in \{(\mathsf{tt}, 1), (\mathsf{ff}, 2)\} \\
 & & & E[e] & \to & E[e'] \quad \text{if } e \hookrightarrow e'
\end{array}
$$

Fig. 1. Syntax and reductions of PCF_v. Variables x, y, z, etc. sourced from countably infinite set Var. c ranges over constants $(), \mathsf{tt}, \mathsf{ff}$ and n (for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$).

and indices when all holes in D are annotated with the same i. Standard contextual equivalence [29] follows.

Definition 5 (Contextual Equivalence)**.** Expressions $\vdash e_1 : T$ and $\vdash e_2 : T$ are *contextually equivalent*, written as $e_1 \equiv e_2 : T$, when for all contexts D such that $\vdash D[e_1] : \mathsf{unit}$ and $\vdash D[e_2] : \mathsf{unit}$ we have $D[e_1] \Downarrow$ iff $D[e_2] \Downarrow$. □

Due to the language being purely functional, we can refine the contexts needed for contextual equivalence to *applicative* ones.

Definition 6. Applicative contexts are given by the syntax:

$$E_a ::= [\cdot]_T \mid E\, {}_a v \mid \mathsf{if}\, E_a = c\, \mathsf{then}\, ()\, \mathsf{else}\, \bot_{\mathsf{unit}} \mid \pi_i(E_a)$$

where $\pi_i(\chi)$ returns the i-th component of tuple χ. □

Using the fact that applicative bisimulation is fully abstract [15], [11], we can show the following.

Proposition 7 (Applicative contexts suffice)**.** *$e_1 \equiv e_2 : T$ iff for all applicative contexts E_a such that $\vdash E_a[e_1]_T, E_a[e_2]_T : \mathsf{unit}$ we have $E_a[e_1] \Downarrow$ iff $E_a[e_2] \Downarrow$.*

IV. LTS with Symbolic Higher-Order Transitions

We now define a Labelled Transition System (LTS) which allows us to probe higher-order values with possible symbolic arguments. The LTS follows the operational game semantics approach, with several adjustments:

- the basis of the LTS is the operational game model of [19];
- the Opponent behaviours are constrained to *innocent* ones (cf. [10]) by use of an *opponent memory* component M;
- the denotation of an expression is not just the transitions that the LTS produces for this expression but, instead, these transitions together with the corresponding opponent memory at top-level configurations.

Thus, the LTS comprises of *Proponent* and *Opponent* configurations with corresponding transitions, modelling the computations triggered by an expression and its context respectively. Opponent is construed as the syntactic context, which provides values for the functions that are open in the expression. Open functions are modelled with (opponent-generated) *abstract names*, which are accommodated by extending the syntax and typing rules with abstract function names α:

$$\textsf{Val}: \quad u, v, w ::= c \mid \mathsf{fix} f_T(x).e \mid (\vec{v}) \mid \alpha^i_T$$

Abstract function names α^i_T are annotated with the type T of function they represent, and with an index $i \geq 0$ that is used for bookkeeping; these are omitted where not important. $\mathsf{an}(\chi)$ is the set of abstract names in χ.

The definition of our LTS (Fig. 2) is explained below.

Moves:

Our LTS uses *moves*:

$$\eta ::= \mathsf{call}(\alpha_T, D) \mid \mathsf{ret}(D) \mid \underline{\mathsf{call}}(i, v) \mid \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(v)$$

with contexts D and values v built from the following restricted grammars:

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
D_\bullet & ::= & c \mid [\cdot]_{i,T} \mid (\vec{D}_\bullet) \\
v_\bullet & ::= & c \mid \alpha_T \mid (\vec{v}_\bullet)
\end{array}
$$

Thus, $D_\bullet$ and $v_\bullet$ are values where functions are replaced by holes and abstract names, respectively. To lighten notation, we denote them by D, v.

Moves η are proponent call ($\mathsf{call}(\alpha, D)$) and return ($\mathsf{ret}(D)$) moves involved in transitions from opponent to proponent configurations; and opponent call ($\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i, v)$) and return ($\underline{\mathsf{ret}}(v)$) moves in transitions from opponent to proponent configurations.

Remark 8. Note the abstract names used in moves (and, later, traces) are of the form α_T, i.e. without i-annotations. This amounts to the fact that any two abstract names α^i_T, α^j_T with $i \neq j$ correspond to the same function played by opponent in two different points in the interaction. At each point, the proponent functions $\vec{v}$ that the opponent has access to may differ, and hence the need for different indices to distinguish the two instances of α_T. In the LTS, such distinction is not needed for proponent higher-order values as they are suppressed from proponent moves altogether. □

Definition 9 (Traces)**.** We let a *trace* t be an alternating sequence of opponent/proponent moves. We write $t + t'$ or, sometimes for brevity, $t\, t'$ to mean trace concatenation. □

Configurations:

Proponent configurations are written as $\langle A\,;M\,;K\,;t\,;e\,;V\rangle$ and proponent configurations as $\langle A\,;M\,;K\,;t\,;V\,;\vec{u}\rangle$. All configurations are ranged over by C. In these configurations:

- A is a partial map which assigns a sequence of names $\vec{v}$ to each abstract function name α (that has been used so far in

the interaction) and integer index j. We write $\alpha^{j,\vec{v}} \in A$ for $A(\alpha, j) = \vec{v}$. The index j is used to distinguish between different uses of the same abstract function name α by opponent in the interaction. The sequence of values $\vec{v}$ represents the proponent functions that were available to opponent when the name α^j was used (knowledge accumulation for constructing context-generated functions, cf. Example 4). We write $A \uplus \alpha^{j,\vec{v}}$ for $A \cup ((\alpha, j), \vec{v})$, assuming $(\alpha, j) \notin A$.

- t is the *opponent-visible trace*, i.e. a subset of the current interaction that the opponent can have access to, starting with a move where the proponent calls an opponent abstract function.
- K is a stack of proponent continuations, created by nested proponent calls. We call configurations with an empty stack *top-level* and those with a non-empty stack *inner-level*; opponent top-level configurations are also called *final*. Configurations of the form $\langle \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; e ; \cdot \rangle$ are called *initial*.
- M is a set of opponent-visible traces. It ensures pure behaviour of the opponent (cf. Example 1): it restricts the moves of the opponent when an opponent-visible trace is being run for a second (or subsequent) time. Component M is also examined by the bisimulation to determine equivalence of top-level configurations. It can be seen as a *memory* of the behaviour of the opponent abstract functions so far and an oracle for future moves. Given M, we define a map from proponent-ending traces to next opponent moves:

$$\mathsf{next}_M(t) = \{\eta \mid t\eta \in M\}$$

  We consider only *legal* M's whereby $|\mathsf{next}_M(t)| \leq 1$ for any trace t ending in a proponent move and each abstract function name α appears at most once in M. We write $M[t]$ for $M \cup \{t\}$. We may also write M_C for the M-component of a configuration C.
- e is the proponent expression reduced in proponent configurations.
- In opponent configurations, $\vec{u}$ is the sequence of values (proponent functions) that are available to opponent to call at the given point in the interaction. In both kinds of configurations, V is a stack of sequences of proponent functions. These components encode the opponent knowledge accumulation necessary for a sound NF bisimulation theory for $\mathsf{PCF_v}$. They enable sequence of calls to proponent functions (cf. Examples 2 and 3), and construction of opponent-generated abstract functions with the appropriate level of knowledge attached to them (cf. Example 4).

Transitions:

Transitions are of the form $C \xrightarrow{l} C'$, where transition label l is either an immediately observable move η or a generic τ, hiding any move involved in the transition. In the former case, observable moves can be opponent calls (call) or proponent returns (ret). Unlike standard LTSs, this LTS hides call/return moves involved in transitions of inner-level configurations, which are stored in the configuration memory M instead. As we will see later in this section, this is to allow equivalent terms to have different order of calls to opponent functions. Only *top-level* transitions contain move annotations, making them directly observable. These are transitions produced by one of the barbed rules (PROPRETBARB, OPCALLBARB). In the remaining transition rules moves are accumulated in traces which are stored in the memory component M of the configurations. These will be examined by the bisimulation at top-level configurations.

The simplest transitions are those produced by the PROPTAU rule, embedding reductions into proponent configurations. The remaining transitions involve interactions between opponent and proponent and are detailed below.

Proponent Return:

When the proponent expression has been reduced to a value, the LTS performs a ret-move, either by the PROPRETBARB transition, when the configuration is top-level, or the PROPRET transition, when it is not. In both cases the value v being returned is deconstructed to:

- an *ultimate pattern* D (cf. [24]), which is a context obtained from v by replacing each function in v with a distinct numbered hole; together with
- a sequence of values $\vec{v}$ such that $D[\vec{v}] = v$.

We let $\mathsf{ulpatt}(v)$ be a deterministic function performing this decomposition.

In rule PROPRETBARB the functions $\vec{v}$ obtained from v become the knowledge of the resulting opponent configuration; opponent can call one of these functions to continue the interaction. The previous knowledge $\vec{u}$ stored in the one-frame stack is being dropped. This dropping of knowledge is sufficient for a sound NF bisimulation theory based on this LTS, as justified by our soundness result and corroborated by the conditions of applicative bisimulation which encode top-level interactions without accumulating opponent knowledge from previous moves.

On the other hand, in PROPRET, $\vec{v}$ is added to the most current opponent knowledge $\vec{u}$, stored in the top-frame of the knowledge stack which is popped in the resulting configuration. This is necessary because, in inner level configurations, opponent should be allowed to call a proponent function it knew before it called the function that returned v, allowing observations such as those in Examples 2 and 3.

In PROPRETBARB the context D extracted by ultimate pattern matching becomes observable in the transition label $\mathsf{ret}(D)$. Again, this is in line with the definition of applicative bisimulation where the return values of top-level functions are observed by the bisimulation moves. However, in rule PROPRET this observation is *postponed*: the $\mathsf{ret}(D)$ move is appended to the current trace, and this trace is being stored in the M memory in the configuration. This memory will then be used to make distinctions between configurations in a bisimulation definition,

$$\frac{e \to e'}{\langle A\,;M\,;K\,;t\,;e\,;V\rangle \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle A\,;M\,;K\,;t\,;e'\,;V\rangle}\ \textsc{PropTau}$$

$$\frac{(D,\vec{v}) = \mathsf{ulpatt}(v)}{\langle A\,;M\,;\cdot\,;t\,;v\,;\vec{u}\rangle \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(D)} \langle A\,;M\,;\cdot\,;\cdot\,;\cdot\,;\vec{v}\rangle}\ \textsc{PropRetBarb}$$

$$\frac{(D,\vec{v}) = \mathsf{ulpatt}(v) \qquad K \neq \cdot \qquad t' = t + \mathsf{ret}(D)}{\langle A\,;M\,;K\,;t\,;v\,;\vec{u},V\rangle \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle A\,;M[t']\,;K\,;t'\,;V\,;\vec{u},\vec{v}\rangle}\ \textsc{PropRet}$$

$$\frac{(D,\vec{v}) = \mathsf{ulpatt}(v) \qquad t' = \mathsf{call}(\alpha, D) \qquad \vec{\alpha}^{j,\vec{u}} \in A}{\langle A\,;M\,;K\,;t\,;E[\alpha^{j}_{T_1\to T_2}\,v]\,;V\rangle \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle A\,;M[t']\,;(t,E[\cdot]_{T_2}),K\,;t'\,;V\,;\vec{u},\vec{v}\rangle}\ \textsc{PropCall}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{next}_M(t) \subseteq \{\underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\alpha}])\} \qquad (D,\vec{\alpha}) \in \mathsf{ulpatt}(T') \qquad t'' = t + \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\alpha}])}{\langle A\,;M\,;(t',E[\cdot]_{T'},T),K\,;t\,;V\,;\vec{v}\rangle \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle A \uplus \vec{\alpha}^{j,\vec{v}}\,;M[t'']\,;K\,;t'\,;E[D[\vec{\alpha}^{j}]]\,;V\rangle}\ \textsc{OpRet}$$

$$\frac{v_i : T_1 \to T_2 \qquad (D,\vec{\alpha}) \in \mathsf{ulpatt}(T_1) \qquad \vec{\alpha} \text{ fresh}}{\langle A\,;M\,;\cdot\,;\cdot\,;\cdot\,;\vec{v}\rangle \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])} \langle A \uplus \vec{\alpha}^{0,\cdot}\,;M\,;\cdot\,;\cdot\,;v_i\,D[\vec{\alpha}^{0}]\,;\cdot\rangle}\ \textsc{OpCallBarb}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{next}_M(t) \subseteq \{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])\} \qquad K \neq \cdot \qquad v_i : T_1 \to T_2 \qquad (D,\vec{\alpha}) \in \mathsf{ulpatt}(T_1) \qquad t' = t + \underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])}{\langle A\,;M\,;K\,;t\,;V\,;\vec{v}\rangle \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle A \uplus \vec{\alpha}^{j,\vec{v}}\,;M[t']\,;K\,;t'\,;(v_i\,D[\vec{\alpha}^{j}])\,;\vec{v},V\rangle}\ \textsc{OpCall}$$

Fig. 2. The Labelled Transition System. We denote by $\cdot$ the empty stack, and by ε the empty sequence.

when top-level transitions are reached. This storing of inner-level moves makes unobservable the order and repetition of proponent calls to opponent functions in the LTS, allowing to prove equivalences such as the one in Example 1.

Proponent Call:

Rule PropCall produces a transition when a call to an opponent abstract function $\alpha^{j}_{T_1\to T_2}$ is at reduction position in a proponent expression. Function $\mathsf{ulpatt}(v)$ is again used to decompose the call argument to context D and functions $\vec{v}$, whereas α^{j} is looked up in A to identify the knowledge $\vec{u}$ attached to this use of the α name at the time α^{j} was created. Then $\vec{v}$ and $\vec{u}$ are combined to create opponent's knowledge in the resulting configuration. The trace t accumulated in the (proponent) source configuration of the transition is being pushed onto the stack component K together with the continuation of the expression being reduced. This is because a proponent call transition triggers the creation of a new opponent-visible trace t', starting with the call move. This new trace is stored in the memory M and used in the resulting (opponent) configuration.

Segmentation of traces into opponent-visible trace fragments, as performed by this rule, is important for full abstraction of the NF bisimulation defined below. When configurations are compared by the bisimulation, the exact interleaving of these trace segments is not observable as the language is pure and opponent-generated functions have only a local view of the overall computation. Moreover, opponent-visible traces relate to O-views in game semantics but contain only a single (initiating) proponent call move.

Opponent Return:

An opponent configuration with a non-empty stack component K may return a value with rule OpRet. In order to obtain this value we extend ulpatt to the return type T through the use of symbolic function names: $\mathsf{ulpatt}(T)$ is the set of all pairs $(D,\vec{\alpha}_{\vec{T}})$ such that $\vdash D[\vec{\alpha}] : T$, where D is a value context that does not contain functions, and the types of $\vec{\alpha}$ and the corresponding holes match. Note that in this definition we leave the j annotation of α's blank as it is filled-in by the rule. In the resulting configuration $\alpha^{j,\vec{v}}$ is added in A, extending its domain by (α, j).

This transition can be performed in two cases; when:

- $\mathsf{next}_M(t) = \emptyset$. In this case the current opponent-visible trace t is not a strict prefix of a previously performed trace stored in M, and the configuration can non-deterministically perform this return transition. If it does, the resulting configuration stores in M the extended trace $t'' = t + \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\alpha}])$. Note that j is not stored in moves and thus neither in M. Moreover in this case the $\vec{\alpha}$ used are chosen fresh, this is guaranteed by the implicit condition that M is legal and thus α cannot appear twice in M.
- $\mathsf{next}_M(t) = \{\underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\alpha}])\}$. In this case the current configuration is along an opponent-visible trace that has occurred previously and performed a return as a next move. Thus because the opponent must have purely functional behaviour, the configuration can perform no other but this return transition.

If $\mathsf{next}_M(t)$ does not fall into one of the above cases the transition does not apply.

To encode functional behaviour, the current opponent knowledge $\vec{v}$ can only be stored in the abstract functions $\vec{\alpha}$ generated at this transition and stored in A. It *cannot* be carried forward otherwise in the resulting proponent function. Hence, if T' is a base type, this knowledge is lost after the transition.

Opponent Call:

The proponent function being called in these transitions defined by OPCALLBARB and OPCALL is one of those in the current opponent knowledge $\vec{v}$. We use the relative index i in $\vec{v}$ to refer to the function being called. The argument supplied to this function is obtained again by the function ulpatt applied to the argument type T_1.

Opponent call transitions are differentiated based on whether they are top- or inner-level. Top-level opponent calls (OPCALLBARB) are immediately observable and thus transitions are annotated with the move. Moreover, the opponent knowledge is dropped at the transition and not accumulated in the knowledge stack or created abstract function names. This is in line with applicative bisimulation where related top-level functions are called only at the point they become available in the bisimulation, and are provided with identical arguments, thus not not containing any related functions from the observer knowledge.

However inner-level opponent calls are not immediately observable and thus the corresponding move is stored in traces in M. As for inner opponent return transitions, $\mathsf{next}_M(t)$ may require that the transition must or cannot be applied.

Big-Step bisimulation:

Definition 10 (Trace transitions)**.** We use $\twoheadrightarrow$ for the reflexive and transitive closure of the $\xrightarrow{\tau}$ transition. We write $C \xrightarrow{\eta}\!\!\!\!\twoheadrightarrow C'$ to mean $C \twoheadrightarrow \xrightarrow{\eta} \twoheadrightarrow C'$, and $C \xrightarrow{t}\!\!\!\!\twoheadrightarrow C'$ to mean $C \xrightarrow{\eta}\!\!\!\!\twoheadrightarrow \xrightarrow{t'}\!\!\!\!\twoheadrightarrow C'$ when $t = \eta t'$. □

Note that, by definition, trace transitions derived by our LTS only contain call and ret moves.

Definition 11. Given a closed expression $\vdash e : T$, the initial configuration associated to e is:

$$C_e = \langle \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; e ; \cdot \rangle$$

Accordingly, we can give the semantics of e as:

$$[\![e]\!] = \{(t, M) \mid \exists A, t', V, \vec{v}.\ C_e \xrightarrow{t}\!\!\!\!\twoheadrightarrow \langle A ; M ; \cdot ; t' ; V ; \vec{v} \rangle\}.$$

□

A closed term e will be first evaluated by the LTS using the operational semantics rules (and PROPTAU). Once a value is reached, this will be communicated to the context by means of a proponent return (rule PROPRETBARB), after it has been appropriately decomposed. For there on, the game continues with opponent interrogating functions produced by proponent (using rule OPAPPBARB). Proponent can interrogate functions provided by opponent (PROPAPP), leading to further interaction all of which remains hidden (see τ-transitions), until proponent provides a return to opponent's top-level application (PROPRETBARB).

Example 12. We now revisit the terms in Example 1 to show how our LTS works. We start with term M_1 from Example 1 placed in an initial configuration $C_1 = \langle \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; M_1 ; \cdot \rangle$. The first is a proponent return transition which moves the function into the opponent's knowledge.

$$C_1 \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \langle \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; M_1 \rangle = C_{12}$$

Then opponent calls and proponent immediately returns the second function (`fun g -> ...`), which we call M_{11}, and opponent calls M_{11}; all are top-level interactions.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{11} &\xrightarrow{\mathsf{call}(1,\alpha_f)} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; M_{11}[\alpha_f^0/\mathtt{f}] ; \cdot \rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; M_{11}[\alpha_f^0/\mathtt{f}] \rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{\mathsf{call}(1,\alpha_g)} \langle \alpha_f^0, \alpha_g^0 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; M_{12} ; \cdot \rangle = C_{12} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$M_{12} = \begin{array}{l}\texttt{if } \alpha_f^0\ \texttt{() == } \alpha_g^0\ \texttt{() then} \\ \quad \texttt{if } \alpha_f^0\ \texttt{() == } \alpha_g^0\ \texttt{() then 0 else 1} \\ \texttt{else 2}\end{array}$$

The following transition is a proponent call of α_f^0, followed (necessarily, due to types) by an opponent return.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{12} &\xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0, \alpha_g^0 ; \{t_1\} ; (\cdot, E_1) ; t_1 ; \cdot ; \cdot \rangle \\ &\qquad \text{(inner-level move } \mathsf{call}(\alpha_f, ()), \text{ rule PROPCALL)} \\ &\xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0, \alpha_g^0 ; \{t_2\} ; \cdot ; \cdot ; E_1[k_1] ; \cdot \rangle = C_{13} \\ &\qquad \text{(inner-level move } \mathsf{ret}(k_1), \text{ rule OPRET)} \end{aligned}$$

where $t_1 = \mathsf{call}(\alpha_f, ())$ and $t_2 = t_1, \mathsf{ret}(k_1)$ and k_1 is an integer constant and $E_1 = (\texttt{if } [\cdot]_{\mathsf{int}} \texttt{ == } \alpha_g^0\ \texttt{() then } \ldots)$. The transitions continue with the call and return of α_g.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{13} &\xrightarrow{\tau}\xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0, \alpha_g^0 ; M_1 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; E_2[k_2] ; \cdot \rangle = C_{14} \\ &\qquad \text{(inner-level moves } \mathsf{call}(\alpha_g, ()) \text{ and then } \mathsf{ret}(k_2)) \end{aligned}$$

where $M_1 = \{t_2, t_3\}$ and $t_3 = \mathsf{call}(\alpha_f, ()), \mathsf{ret}(k_1)$ and k_2 is an integer constant and $E_2 = (\texttt{if } k_1 \texttt{ == } [\cdot]_{\mathsf{int}} \texttt{ then } \ldots)$.

The behaviour of α_f and α_g are now determined at this point from the traces t_2 and t_3 in the memory component of the configuration. Thus the following transitions only depend on whether $k_1 = k_2$. If they are not equal, proponent returns with a single $\mathsf{ret}(2)$ transition.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{14} &\xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(2)} \langle \alpha_f^0, \alpha_g^0 ; M_1 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot \rangle = C_{15}(k_1, k_2) \\ &\qquad (\text{with } k_1 \neq k_2 \text{ in } M_1) \end{aligned}$$

If they are equal, the remaining transitions will be the following ones, reaching final configuration C_{15}.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{14} &\xrightarrow{\tau}\xrightarrow{\tau}\xrightarrow{\tau}\xrightarrow{\tau} \quad \text{(inner-level moves } \mathsf{call}(\alpha_f, ()), \mathsf{ret}(k_1), \\ &\qquad \mathsf{call}(\alpha_g, ()), \mathsf{ret}(k_2)) \\ &\xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(0)} \langle \alpha_f^0, \alpha_g^0 ; M_1 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot \rangle = C_{15}(k_1, k_2) \\ &\qquad (\text{with } k_1 = k_2 \text{ in } M_1) \end{aligned}$$

The $\mathsf{ret}(k_1)$ and $\mathsf{ret}(k_2)$ moves are the only possible at those points of the trace due to the memory component M_1, encoding a purely functional behaviour of the opponent.

Therefore, C_1 has only the following trace transitions:

$$C_1 \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\alpha_f)} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\alpha_g)} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(2)} C_{15}(k_1,k_2) \quad (\text{with } k_1 \neq k_2)$$

$$C_1 \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\alpha_f)} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\alpha_g)} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(0)} C_{15}(k_1,k_2) \quad (\text{with } k_1 = k_2)$$

Configuration $C_1' = \langle \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; N_1 ; \cdot \rangle$ has the same trace transitions, with fewer inner call and return moves, in different order, resulting in top-level configurations with the same memory as the corresponding ones above. One can thus see that the two original terms M_1 and N_1 are equivalent under this LTS as $[\![M_1]\!] = [\![N_1]\!]$. □

Example 13. Here we explore the inequivalent terms from Example 3 to show how they are differentiated by our LTS. We focus on the configuration $C_2 = \langle \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; M_2 ; \cdot \rangle$ and the transitions that differentiate it from N_2, corresponding to the behaviour of the context shown in Example 3.

To simplify notation in this example, we identify memory components with the same prefix closure and use in configurations below an instructive representative of each memory component equivalent class.

Since M_2 is a curried two-argument function similar to M_1 in the preceding example, we will have the following initial transitions.

$$C_2 \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\alpha_f)} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}([])} \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\mathsf{tt})} \twoheadrightarrow \langle \alpha_f^0 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; M_{21} ; \cdot \rangle = C_{21}$$

where $M_{21} = \alpha_f^0$ `(X, fun _ -> tt)` and `X` is the recursive function `fix X(d) -> `α_f^0 `(X, fun _ -> d)`. The next transition is an inner proponent call.

$$C_{21} \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; \{t_1\} ; K_1 ; t_1 ; \cdot ; v_1, v_2 \rangle = C_{22} \quad (\text{inner move } \mathsf{call}(\alpha_f, ([],[])))$$

where $v_1 = \mathsf{X}$ and $v_2 = \mathbf{fun}\ \_\ \texttt{->}\ \mathsf{tt}$ and $t_1 = \mathsf{call}(\alpha_f, ([],[]))$ and $K_1 = (\cdot, [\cdot])$. At this point of the interaction, opponent can either return a value or call one of the v_i. Since we are focusing on the behaviour of the discriminating context we show the following call to v_2:

$$C_{22} \xrightarrow{\tau} \twoheadrightarrow \langle \alpha_f^0 ; \{t_2\} ; K_1 ; t_2 ; \mathsf{tt} ; V_1 \rangle = C_{23} \quad (\text{inner move } \underline{\mathsf{call}}(2,\mathsf{ff}))$$

where the one-frame stack V_1 is (v_1, v_2) and $t_2 = t_1, \underline{\mathsf{call}}(2,\mathsf{ff})$. This is followed by

$$C_{23} \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; \{t_3\} ; K_1 ; t_3 ; \cdot ; v_1, v_2 \rangle \quad (\text{inner } \mathsf{ret}(\mathsf{tt}))$$
$$\xrightarrow{\tau} \twoheadrightarrow \langle \alpha_f^0 ; \{t_4\} ; K_1 ; t_4 ; M_{22} ; V_1 \rangle = C_{24} \quad (\text{inner } \underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\mathsf{ff}))$$

where $t_3 = t_2, \mathsf{ret}(\mathsf{tt})$ and $t_4 = t_3, \underline{\mathsf{call}}(1,\mathsf{ff})$ and $M_{22} =$ α_f^0 `(X, fun _ -> ff)`. Then the recursive call results to the transition:

$$C_{24} \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; M_1 ; K_2 ; t_1 ; V_1 ; v_1, v_2' \rangle = C_{25} \quad (\text{inner } \mathsf{call}(\alpha_f, ([],[])))$$

where $M_1 = \{t_4\}[t_1] = \{t_4\}$ and $K_2 = (t_4, ([],[])), K_1$ and $v_2' =$ `fun _ -> ff`. At this point opponent must necessarily call v_2' as the current trace t_1 in the configuration is a prefix of t_4 in the memory component M_1 and $\mathsf{next}_M(t_1) = \underline{\mathsf{call}}(2,\mathsf{ff})$:

$$C_{25} \xrightarrow{\tau} \twoheadrightarrow \langle \alpha_f^0 ; M_2 ; K_2 ; t_2 ; \mathsf{ff} ; V_2 \rangle \quad (\text{inner } \underline{\mathsf{call}}(2,\mathsf{ff}))$$
$$\xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; M_3 ; K_2 ; t_3' ; V_1 ; v_1, v_2' \rangle = C_{26} \quad (\text{inner } \mathsf{ret}(\mathsf{ff}))$$

where $t_3' = t_2, \mathsf{ret}(\mathsf{ff})$ and $M_2 = \{t_4\}[t_2] = \{t_4\}$ and $M_3 = \{t_4\}[t_3'] = \{t_4, t_3'\}$ and $V_2 = (v_1, v_2'), V_1$. Trace t_3' is not a prefix of t_4 and therefore opponent can perform any move, including returning a value.

$$C_{26} \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; M_4 ; K_1 ; t_4 ; \mathsf{tt} ; V_1 \rangle \quad (\text{inner } \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(\mathsf{tt}))$$
$$\xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; M_5 ; K_1 ; t_5 ; \cdot ; v_1, v_2 \rangle \quad (\text{inner } \mathsf{ret}(\mathsf{tt}))$$
$$\xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; M_6 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \mathsf{tt} ; \cdot \rangle \quad (\text{inner } \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(\mathsf{tt}))$$
$$\xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(\mathsf{tt})} \langle \alpha_f^0 ; M_6 ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot ; \cdot \rangle$$

where $M_4 = M_3[t_4'] = \{t_4, t_4'\}$ and $t_4' = t_3', \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(\mathsf{tt})$ and $M_5 = \{t_5, t_4'\}$ and $t_5 = t_4, \mathsf{ret}(\mathsf{tt})$ and $M_6 = \{t_6, t_4'\}$ and $t_6 = t_5, \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(\mathsf{tt})$.

Term N_2 is not able to perform this transition trace as once the first function of the pair is called, it diverges. □

We note that the LTS is deterministic at proponent configurations, but not at opponent configurations as the latter can fire more than one τ-transitions. Nonetheless, as the behaviour of opponent is restricted by the memory M, we can show the following.

Lemma 14 (M-determinacy)**.** *Given final configurations C, C_1, C_2 such that $C \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(D')} \twoheadrightarrow C_i$ (for $i = 1,2$), if $M_{C_1} \cup M_{C_2}$ is legal then $C_1 = C_2$.*

Proof. Let us set $M = M_{C_1} \cup M_{C_2}$. We break down the transitions from C to C_i as follows:

$$C \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])} C_{i0} \xrightarrow{\tau} C_{i1} \xrightarrow{\tau} \cdots \xrightarrow{\tau} C_{in_i} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(D')} \twoheadrightarrow C_i$$

We show that, for each $j = 0, \ldots, n$, where $n = \min(n_1, n_2)$, $C_{1j} = C_{2j}$. We do induction on j; the base case is clear from the LTS rules. Now consider $C_{ij} \xrightarrow{\tau} C_{i(j+1)}$. By IH, $C_{1j} = C_{2j}$. If they are (both) P-configurations then, by determinacy of proponent, the two configurations are bound to make the same move. Hence, $C_{1(j+1)} = C_{2(j+1)}$. If C_{ij} are O-configurations, let their current (common) trace component be t. As the memory maps M_1, M_2 of $C_{1(j+1)}, C_{2(j+1)}$ are included in M, we must have $\mathsf{next}_{M_1}(t) = \mathsf{next}_{M_2}(t)$ and, hence, C_{1j} and C_{2j} must have made the same move and therefore $C_{1(j+1)} = C_{2(j+1)}$. Now, since $C_{1n} = C_{2n}$ and one of them makes a P-return then, by determinacy of proponent, the other must make the same P-return. Hence, $C_1 = C_2$. □

Weak bisimulation is defined in the standard way, albeit using the big-step transition relation corresponding to initial and final configurations.

Definition 15 (Weak (Bi-)Simulation)**.** A binary relation $\mathcal{R}$ on initial and final configurations is a *weak simulation* when for all $C_1\ \mathcal{R}\ C_2$:

- *Initial configurations:* if $C_1 \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_1'$, there exists C_2' such that $C_2 \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_2'$ and $C_1'\ \mathcal{R}\ C_2'$;
- *Final configurations:* if $C_1 \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])\,\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_1'$ with $\vec{\alpha}$ fresh for C_2, there exists C_2' such that $C_2 \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])\,\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_2'$ and $C_1'\ \mathcal{R}\ C_2'$;
- $M_{C_1} \subseteq M_{C_2}$ (where M_{C_i} is the M-component of C_i).

If $\mathcal{R}$, $\mathcal{R}^{-1}$ are weak simulations then $\mathcal{R}$ is a *weak bisimulation*. Similarity ($\lessapprox$) and bisimilarity ($\approx$) are the largest weak simulation and bisimulation, respectively. □

This definition resembles that of applicative bisimulation for $\mathrm{PCF_v}$, in that related top-level functions applied to identical arguments must co-terminate and return related results. However the most important difference here is that there is no quantification over all possible programs. The context D is a value without any functions in it (essentially containing constants and/or pairs) which is determined by the type of the i'th function. The fresh names $\vec{\alpha}$ correspond to opponent-generated functions but are first-order entities that are equivalent up to renaming. Thus this definition constitutes a big-step Normal Form bisimulation.

Note in the previous definition the side-condition stipulating that the fresh abstract names used in the proponent application must not match any of the abstract names of C_2. That, along with the condition $M_{C_1} \subseteq M_{C_2}$, allow us to establish the following. Recall we write $\mathsf{an}(\chi)$ for the abstract names in χ.

Lemma 16. *Given weak simulation $\mathcal{R}$ and $C_1\ \mathcal{R}\ C_2$ with $\mathsf{an}(C_1) \subseteq \mathsf{an}(C_2)$, there is a weak simulation $\mathcal{R}' \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ such that $C_1\ \mathcal{R}'\ C_2$ and, for all $C_1'\ \mathcal{R}'\ C_2'$, $\mathsf{an}(C_1') \subseteq \mathsf{an}(C_2')$.*

Proof. It suffices to show $\mathcal{R}' = \{(C_1, C_2) \in \mathcal{R} \mid \mathsf{an}(C_1) \subseteq \mathsf{an}(C_2)\}$ a weak simulation. Pick some $C_1\ \mathcal{R}'\ C_2$ and suppose $C_1 \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])\,\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_1'$ with $\vec{\alpha}$ fresh for C_2. By hypothesis, there is $C_2 \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])\,\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_2'$ with $C_1'\ \mathcal{R}\ C_2'$. Therefore, $M_{C_1'} \subseteq M_{C_2'}$. Since $\mathsf{an}(C_1') = \mathsf{an}(C_1) \cup \mathsf{an}(M_{C_1'}) \cup \{\vec{\alpha}\}$, we can deduce that $\mathsf{an}(C_1') \subseteq \mathsf{an}(C_2')$. □

Definition 17 (Bisimilar Expressions)**.** Expressions $\vdash e_1 : T$ and $\vdash e_2 : T$ are bisimilar, written $e_1 \approx e_2$, when $C_{e_1} \approx C_{e_2}$. □

Lemma 18. *$e_1 \approx e_2$ iff $[\![e_1]\!] = [\![e_2]\!]$.*

Proof. Note first that if $e_1 \approx e_2$ and $(t, M) \in [\![e_1]\!]$ then, starting from C_{e_2}, we can simulate the transitions producing t and arrive at the same M (using also Lemma 16). Conversely, suppose that $[\![e_1]\!] = [\![e_2]\!]$ and define:

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(C_1, C_2) \mid M_{C_1} = M_{C_2} \wedge \exists t.\, C_{e_i} \overset{t}{\twoheadrightarrow} C_i \wedge C_i \text{ final}\}.$$

We show that $\mathcal{R}$ is a weak bisimulation. Suppose $C_1\ \mathcal{R}\ C_2$ with trace $C_{e_i} \overset{t}{\twoheadrightarrow} C_i$, and let $C_1 \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])\,\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_1'$ with $\vec{\alpha}$ fresh for C_2. As $[\![e_1]\!] = [\![e_2]\!]$, there is a transition sequence:

$$C_{e_2} \overset{t}{\twoheadrightarrow} \hat{C}_2 \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(i,D[\vec{\alpha}])\,\mathsf{ret}(D')} C_2'$$

such that $M_{C_1'} = M_{C_2'}$. Since $M_{C_2} = M_{C_1} \subseteq M_{C_1'}$, we have $M_{C_2} \subseteq M_{C_2'}$. Hence, starting from C_{e_2} and repeatedly applying Lemma 14, we conclude that $C_2 = \hat{C}_2$, and thus C_2 can match the challenge of C_1. Hence, $\mathcal{R}$ is a weak simulation and, by symmetry, a weak bisimulation. □

The previous result can be used to show that bisimilarity is sound and complete with respect to contextual equivalence. The proof is discussed in the next section.

Theorem 19 (Full abstraction)**.** *$e_1 \approx e_2$ iff $e_1 \equiv e_2$.*

Furthermore, normal-form similarity is fully abstract with respect to contextual approximation.

V. Full Abstraction

To prove that the LTS is sound and complete we use an extended LTS based on operational game semantics [19]. The latter differs from our main LTS in that proponent and opponent can play the same kinds of moves, and in particular they can pass fresh function names to the other player, or apply functions of the other player by referring to their corresponding names. This duality in roles allows for the modelling of both expressions and contexts. Moreover, all moves are recorded in the trace, not just top-level ones, which in turn enables us to compose two LTS's corresponding respectively to an expression and its context.

We shall call this the *game-LTS*, whereas the main LTS shall simply be *the/our LTS*. We shall be re-using some of our main LTS terminology here, for example traces will again be sequences of moves, albeit of different kind of moves. This is done for notional economy and we hope it is not confusing.

A. The game-LTS

We start by introducing an enriched notion of trace. Traces shall now consist of *moves* of the form:

$$\begin{array}{rrcl} \text{Moves} & m & ::= & p \mid o \\ \text{Proponent moves} & p & ::= & \mathsf{call}(\mathfrak{o}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}]) \mid \mathsf{ret}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}]) \\ \text{Opponent moves} & o & ::= & \underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}]) \mid \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}]) \end{array}$$

where $\mathfrak{o}, \mathfrak{p}$ (and variants thereof) are sourced from disjoint sets *ONames* and *PNames* of *opponent* and *proponent names* respectively. Names represent abstract functions and are used to abstract away the functions that a context and an expression are producing in a computation. We shall often be abbreviating "proponent" and "opponent" to P and O respectively and write, for instance, "O-moves" or "P-names".

A ***complete trace*** is then given by the following grammar.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} CT & \to & CT_P \mid CT_O \\ CT_P & \to & \mathsf{ret}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}])\ CT_{OP} \\ CT_O & \to & \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])\ CT_{PO} \\ CT_{OP} & \to & \cdot \mid \underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])\ CT_{PO}\ \mathsf{ret}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}])\ CT_{OP} \\ CT_{PO} & \to & \cdot \mid \mathsf{call}(\mathfrak{o}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}])\ CT_{OP}\ \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])\ CT_{PO} \end{array}$$

A *trace* is a prefix of a complete trace. A trace t is called *legal* if it satisfies these conditions:

- for each $t'p \sqsubseteq t$ with $p = \mathsf{call}(\mathfrak{o}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}])$ or $p = \mathsf{ret}(D)\vec{\mathfrak{p}}$:
  - $\vec{\mathfrak{p}}$ do not appear in t' — we say that move p *introduces* each $\mathfrak{p} \in \vec{\mathfrak{p}}_i$ — and
  - there is some move o' in t' that introduces $\mathfrak{o}$;
- for each $t'o \sqsubseteq t$ with $o = \underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])$ or $o = \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D)\vec{\mathfrak{o}}$:
  - $\vec{\mathfrak{o}}$ do not appear in t' — we say that move o *introduces* each $\mathfrak{o}_i \in \vec{\mathfrak{o}}$ — and
  - there is some move p' in t' that introduces $\mathfrak{p}$.

Thus, in a legal trace all applications refer to names introduced earlier in the trace. Put otherwise, all function calls must be to functions that are available when said calls are made. We say that an application $\underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])$ (or $\mathsf{call}(\mathfrak{o}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}])$) is *justified* by the (unique) earlier move that introduced $\mathfrak{p}$ (resp. $\mathfrak{o}$). On the other hand, a return is justified by the call to which it returns. In a legal trace, all call moves are justified.

Due to the modelled language being functional, not all names are visible to the players (i.e. proponent and opponent) at all times. For example if opponent makes two calls to proponent function $\mathfrak{p}$, say first $\underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}, D_1[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}_1])$ and later $\underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}, D_2[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}_2])$, the second call will hide from proponent all the trace related to the first one. This limitation is captured by the notion of *view*. Given a legal trace t, we define its *P-view* $\ulcorner t \urcorner$ and *O-view* $\llcorner t \lrcorner$ respectively as follows:

$$\ulcorner t \urcorner = \begin{cases} t & \text{if } |t| \leq 1 \\ \ulcorner t' \urcorner p & \text{if } t = t'p \\ \ulcorner t' \urcorner po & \text{if } t = t'pt''o \text{ and } o \text{ is justified by } p \end{cases}$$

$$\llcorner t \lrcorner = \begin{cases} t & \text{if } |t| \leq 1 \\ \llcorner t' \lrcorner o & \text{if } t = t'o \\ \llcorner t' \lrcorner op & \text{if } t = t'ot''p \text{ and } p \text{ is justified by } o \end{cases}$$

We will focus on traces where each player's moves are uniquely determined by their current view. This corresponds to game-semantics *innocence* (cf. [12]).

In the following definitions we employ basic elements from nominal set theory [33] to formally account for names in our constructions. Let us write $\mathcal{N}$ for $ONames \uplus PNames$. Finite-support name permutations that respect O- and P-ownership of names are given by:

$$Perm = \{\pi : \mathcal{N} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathcal{N} \mid \exists X \subseteq_{\text{finite}} \mathcal{N}. \forall y \in \mathcal{N} \setminus X. \pi(y) = y \\ \wedge \forall x \in X. x \in ONames \iff \pi(x) \in ONames\}$$

Given a trace t and a permutation π, we write $\pi \cdot t$ for the trace we obtain by applying π to all names in t. We write $t \sim t'$ if there exists some π such that $t' = \pi \cdot t$. The latter defines an equivalence relation, the classes of which we denote by $[t]$:

$$[t] = \{\pi \cdot t \mid \pi \in Perm\}.$$

Moreover, we define the sets of O-views and P-views of t (under permutation) as:

$$PV(t) = \{\pi \cdot \ulcorner t' \urcorner \mid t' \sqsubseteq t \wedge \pi \in Perm\}$$
$$OV(t) = \{\pi \cdot \llcorner t' \lrcorner \mid t' \sqsubseteq t \wedge \pi \in Perm\}$$

Definition 20. A legal trace t is called a ***play*** if:

- for each $t'p, t''o \sqsubseteq t$, the justifier of p (of o) is included in $\ulcorner t' \urcorner$ (resp. $\llcorner t'' \lrcorner$);
- for all $t_1p_1, t_2p_2, t_1'o_1, t_2'o_2 \sqsubseteq t$,
  - if $\ulcorner t_1 \urcorner \sim \ulcorner t_2 \urcorner$ then $\ulcorner t_1p_1 \urcorner \sim \ulcorner t_2p_2 \urcorner$,
  - if $\llcorner t_1' \lrcorner \sim \llcorner t_2' \lrcorner$ then $\llcorner t_1'o_1 \lrcorner \sim \llcorner t_2'o_2 \lrcorner$.

We refer to the conditions above as *visibility* and *innocence* respectively. □

Visibility and innocence are standard game conditions (cf. [12], [27]): the former corresponds to the fact that an expression (or context) can only call functions in its syntactic context; while the latter enforces purely functional behaviour.

We can now proceed to the definition of the game-LTS. Similarly to the previous section, we extend the language syntax of Fig. 1 by including O-names as values. We define proponent and opponent *game-configurations* respectively by:

$$\langle \mathcal{A}; \kappa; K; t; e; V; \vec{\mathfrak{o}} \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \langle \mathcal{A}; \kappa; K; t; V; \vec{\mathfrak{p}} \rangle$$

and range over them by $\mathcal{C}$ and variants. Here:

- $\mathcal{A}$ is a map which assigns to each (introduced) opponent name a sequence of proponent names. We write $\mathfrak{o}^{\vec{\mathfrak{p}}} \in \mathcal{A}$ for $\mathcal{A}(\mathfrak{o}) = \vec{\mathfrak{p}}$. The sequence $\vec{\mathfrak{p}}$ are the proponent (function) names that were available to opponent when the name $\mathfrak{o}$ was introduced.
- Dually, κ is a *concretion map* which assigns to each (introduced) proponent name the function that it represents and the opponent names that are available to it.
- t is a play recording all the moves that have been played thus far. Given t, we define the partial function $\mathsf{next}_O(t)$, which we use to impose innocence on O-moves, by:

  $$\mathsf{next}_O(t) = \{\pi \cdot o \mid \exists t'o \sqsubseteq t. \llcorner t \lrcorner = \pi \cdot \llcorner t' \lrcorner \wedge t(\pi \cdot o) \text{ a play}\}$$

  When we write $\mathsf{next}_O(t) \subseteq_\star [o]$, for some o, t, we mean that either $o \in \mathsf{next}_O(t)$ or $\mathsf{next}_O(t) = \emptyset$.
- K is a stack of proponent continuations (pairs of evaluation contexts and opponent names $\vec{\mathfrak{o}}$), and e is the expression reduced in proponent configurations.
- $\vec{\mathfrak{o}}$ and $\vec{\mathfrak{p}}$ are sequences of other-player names that are available to proponent and opponent respectively at the given point in the interaction; V is a stack of $\vec{\mathfrak{p}}$'s.

Note that we store the full trace in configurations and we use names ($\mathfrak{p}$ and variants) to abstract proponent higher-order values. There is no need of an M-component as we can rely on the full play. We call a configuration *initial* if it is in one of these forms (called respectively *P- and O-initial*):[1]

$$\mathcal{C}_e = \langle \cdot; \cdot; \cdot; \cdot; e; \varepsilon; \varepsilon \rangle \text{ or } \mathcal{C}_E = \langle \cdot; \cdot; (E[\cdot]_T{:}\mathsf{unit}, \varepsilon); \cdot; \cdot; \varepsilon \rangle$$

and *final* if it is in one of these forms (*O- and resp. P-final*):

$$\langle \_; \_; \cdot; \_; \cdot; \_ \rangle \quad \text{or} \quad \langle \_; \_; \cdot; \_; (); \cdot; \_ \rangle.$$

[1] we write $V = \cdot$ for an empty stack, and $V = \varepsilon$ for a singleton stack containing the empty sequence; moreover, here and elsewhere, we use underscore (_) to denote any component of the appropriate type.

$$\frac{(D,\vec{v}) \in \mathsf{ulpatt}(v) \qquad t' = t + \mathsf{ret}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}]) \qquad \kappa' = \kappa \uplus [\vec{\mathfrak{p}} \mapsto \vec{v}^{\vec{\mathfrak{o}}}]}{\langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa\,;K\,;t\,;v\,;\vec{\mathfrak{p}}',V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{o}}\rangle \xrightarrow{\mathsf{ret}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}])} \langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa'\,;K\,;t'\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{p}}',\vec{\mathfrak{p}}\rangle}\ \textsc{PropRet}$$

$$\frac{e \to e'}{\langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa\,;K\,;t\,;e\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{o}}\rangle \xrightarrow{\tau} \langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa\,;K\,;t\,;e'\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{o}}\rangle}\ \textsc{PropTau}$$

$$\frac{(D,\vec{v}) \in \mathsf{ulpatt}(v) \qquad t' = t + \mathsf{call}(\mathfrak{o}, D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}]) \qquad \mathcal{A}(\mathfrak{o}) = \vec{\mathfrak{p}}' \qquad \kappa' = \kappa \uplus [\vec{\mathfrak{p}} \mapsto \vec{v}^{\vec{\mathfrak{o}}}]}{\langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa\,;K\,;t\,;E[\mathfrak{o}_{T_1\to T_2}\,v]\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{o}}\rangle \xrightarrow{\mathsf{call}(\mathfrak{o},D[\vec{\mathfrak{p}}])} \langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa'\,;(E[\cdot]_{T_2},\vec{\mathfrak{o}}),K\,;t'\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{p}}',\vec{\mathfrak{p}}\rangle}\ \textsc{PropApp}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{next}_O(t) \subseteq_\star [\underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])] \qquad (D,\vec{\mathfrak{o}}) \in \mathsf{ulpatt}(T') \qquad t' = t + \underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])}{\langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa\,;(E[\cdot]_{T'},\vec{\mathfrak{o}}'),K\,;t\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{p}}\rangle \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{ret}}(D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])} \langle \mathcal{A}\uplus\vec{\mathfrak{o}}^{\vec{\mathfrak{p}}}\,;\kappa\,;K\,;t'\,;E[D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}]]\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{o}}',\vec{\mathfrak{o}}\rangle}\ \textsc{OpRet}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{next}_O(t) \subseteq_\star [\underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}_i, D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])] \qquad \mathfrak{p}_i : T_1 \to T_2 \qquad \kappa(\mathfrak{p}_i) = v^{\vec{\mathfrak{o}}'} \qquad (D,\vec{\mathfrak{o}}) \in \mathsf{ulpatt}(T_1) \qquad t' = t + \underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}_i, D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])}{\langle \mathcal{A}\,;\kappa\,;K\,;t\,;V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{p}}\rangle \xrightarrow{\underline{\mathsf{call}}(\mathfrak{p}_i,D[\vec{\mathfrak{o}}])} \langle \mathcal{A}\uplus\vec{\mathfrak{o}}^{\vec{\mathfrak{p}}}\,;\kappa\,;K\,;t'\,;e\,;\vec{\mathfrak{p}},V\,;\vec{\mathfrak{o}}',\vec{\mathfrak{o}}\rangle}\ \textsc{OpApp}$$

Fig. 3. The Game Labelled Transition System (game-LTS).

Note that, by definition of the LTS, a P-initial configuration can only lead to O-final configurations, whereas O-initial configurations lead to P-final configurations.

Definition 21. The game-LTS is defined by the rules in Fig. 3. Given initial configuration $\mathcal{C}$, we set:

$$CP(\mathcal{C}) = \{t \in \mathsf{Pls}(\mathcal{C}) \mid t \text{ complete}\}$$

where we let $\mathsf{Pls}(\mathcal{C})$ be the set of plays produced by the LTS starting from $\mathcal{C}$. □

We can show that the traces produced by the game-LTS are plays and define a model for $\mathrm{PCF_v}$ based on sets of complete plays, but that would not be fully abstract. Though presented in operational form, our game-LTS is equivalent to the (base) game-model of $\mathrm{PCF_v}$ [10]. Consequently, if we model expressions by the sets of complete plays they produce, we miss even simple equivalences like $\lambda f.\, f() \equiv \lambda f.\, f(f())$ — plays are too intentional and do not take into account the limitations of functional contexts. To address this, one can use a semantic quotient (cf. [10]) or, alternatively, group the plays of an expression into sets of plays so as to profile functional contexts the expression may interact with (cf. [7]). Thus, an expression is modelled by a *set of sets of plays*, one for each possible context. We follow the latter approach, and also combine it with the fact that applicative tests suffice (cf. Proposition 7).

Definition 22. Given a P-starting play t, we call a move m of t ***top-level*** if:

- either m is the initial P-return of t,
- or m is an O-call justified by a top-level P-move,
- or m is a P-return to a top-level O-move.

We say that t is ***top-linear*** if each top-level O-move in t is justified by the P-move that precedes it. □

Hence, top-level moves are those that start from or go to a final configuration. If t is complete and top-linear then:

$$t = p_0 o_1 \cdots p_1 \cdots o_n \cdots p_n \quad \text{and} \quad \llcorner t \lrcorner = p_0 o_1 p_1 \cdots o_n p_n$$

where each o_{i+1} is justified by p_i, each p_i returns o_i $(i > 0)$, and the o_i, p_i above are all the top-level moves in t. This means that, at the top level of a top-linear play, opponent may only choose one of the functions provided by proponent in their last move and examine it (i.e. call it), which precisely corresponds to what an applicative context would be able to do.

We can now present our main results for the game-LTS. Given initial P-configuration $\mathcal{C}$, we define:

$$OV(\mathcal{C}) = \{OV(t) \mid t \in CP(\mathcal{C})\}$$
$$OV_{tl}(\mathcal{C}) = \{OV(t) \mid t \in CP(\mathcal{C}) \text{ and } t \text{ top-linear}\}$$

Proposition 23 (Correspondence)**.** *Given* $\vdash e_1, e_2 : T$, $OV_{tl}(\mathcal{C}_{e_1}) = OV_{tl}(\mathcal{C}_{e_2})$ *iff* $[\![e_1]\!] = [\![e_2]\!]$.

Proposition 24 (Game-LTS full abstraction)**.** *Given* $\vdash e_1, e_2 : T$, $e_1 \equiv e_2$ *iff* $OV_{tl}(\mathcal{C}_{e_1}) = OV_{tl}(\mathcal{C}_{e_2})$.

Theorem 19 follows from the two results above. For the first result we build a translation from the game-LTS to the (plain) LTS that forms a certain bisimulation between the two systems. To prove full abstraction of the game-LTS we use standard and operational game semantics techniques (cf. [12], [19], [8]) along with the characterisation of PCF equivalence by sets of O-views presented in [7].

VI. Prototype Implementation

We implemented the LTS with symbolic higher-order transitions in a prototype bisimulation checking tool for programs written in an ML-like syntax for $\mathrm{PCF_v}$. Our tool implements a Bounded Symbolic Execution–via calls to Z3–for a big-step bisimulation of the LTS; the tool was developed in OCaml[2].

[2] https://github.com/LaifsV1/pcfeq

The tool performs symbolic execution of base type values through an extension of the LTS to include a *symbolic environment* $\sigma : \mathsf{Val} \to \mathsf{Val}$ that accumulates constraints on *symbolic constants* $\varkappa \in \mathsf{Val}$ that extend the set of values. Symbolic constants are of base type and may only be introduced by opponent moves (arguments and return values) and by reducing expressions that involve symbolic constants; their semantics follows standard symbolic execution. The exploration is performed over *configuration pairs* $\langle C_1, C_2, M, \sigma, k\rangle$ of bisimilar term configurations C_1 and C_2, shared memory M and given bound k. This shared memory is the combination of memories in C_1 and C_2. When configurations C_1 and C_2 are final, equivalence requires $M_{C_1} = M_{C_2} = M$. Being a symbolic execution tool, our prototype implementation is *sound* (reports only true positives and true negatives) and *bounded-complete* since it exhaustively and precisely explores all possible paths up to the given bound, which defines the number of consecutive function calls allowed.

Because of the infinite nature of proving equivalence — and even of disproving equivalence — of pure higher-order programs, a bounded exploration often does not suffice for automatic verification. For this reason, we implement simple enhancements that attempt to prune the state-space and/or prove that cycles have been reached to finitise the exploration for several examples in our testsuite. We currently have not implemented more involved up-to bisimulation enhancements, perhaps guided by user annotations, which we leave for future work. In particular we make use of:

- *Memoisation*, which caches configuration pairs. When bounded exploration reaches a memoised configuration pair, the tool does not explore any further outgoing transitions from this pair; these were explored already when the pair was added to the memoisation set.
- *Identity*, which deems two configurations in a pair equivalent when they are syntactically identical; no further exploration is needed in this case.
- *Normalisation*, which renames bound variables and symbolic constants before comparing configuration pairs for membership in the memoisation set. This also normalises the symbolic environments σ in the configuration pairs.
- *Proponent call caching*, which caches proponent calls once the corresponding opponent return is reached. When the same call (same function applied to the same argument) is reached again on the same trace, it is immediately followed by the cached opponent return move. Performing this second call would not have materially changed the configuration, as the behaviour of the call is determined by the traces in the memory M of the configuration.
- *Opponent call skipping*, which caches opponent calls once the corresponding proponent return is reached. If the same call is possible from later configurations with the same opponent knowledge, the call is skipped as the opponent cannot increase its knowledge by repeating the same call.
- *Stack-based loop detection*, which searches the stack component K of a configuration for nested identical proponent calls. When this happens, it means that the configuration is on an infinite trace of interactions between opponent and proponent which will keep applying the same function indefinitely. We deem these configurations diverging.

Running our tool on the examples in this paper on an Intel Core i7 1.90GHz machine with 32GB RAM running OCaml 4.10.0 and Z3 4.8.10 on Ubuntu 20.04 we obtain the following three-trial average results: Example 1, deemed equivalent, 8ms; Example 2, inequivalent, 3ms; Example 3, inequivalent, 4ms; 4, inequivalent, 3ms. For the entire benchmark of thirty seven program pairs, we successfully verify six equivalences and nineteen inequivalences with twelve inconclusive results in 471ms total time. The complete set of examples is available in our online repository.

VII. Conclusion

We have proposed a technique which combines operational and denotational approaches in order to provide a (quotient-free) characterisation of contextual equivalence in call-by-value PCF. This technique provides the first fully abstract normal form bisimulation for this language. We have justified several of our choices in designing our LTS via examples, and we believe the LTS is succinct in not carrying more information than needed for completeness. Our technique gives rise to a sound and complete technique for checking of $\mathrm{PCF}_{\mathsf{v}}$ program equivalence, which we implemented into a bounded bisimulation checking tool.

After testing our tool implementation, we have found it useful for deciding instances of the equivalence problem. This is particularly true for inequivalences: the tool was able to verify most of our examples, including some which were difficult to reason about even informally. Further testing and optimisation of the implementation are needed in order to assess its practical relevance, particularly on larger examples. Currently, the main limitation for the tool is the difficulty in establishing equivalences, as these typically entail infinite bisimulations and are hard to capture in a bounded manner. To address this, we aim to develop up-to techniques [34] and (possibly semi-automatic) abstraction methods in order to finitise the examined bisimulation space.

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