Chapter 5

A Linear Logical Framework

[a lot of stuff omitted here for now which is easily accessible in published papers]

5.1 Representation of Meta-Theory

The features which make the linear logical framework so suitable for the representation of deductive systems with linear or imperative features, also make it a good candidate to represent proofs of properties of such deductive systems. If one follows the natural line of development, however, it turns out that proofs of meta-theorems are representable, but that their validity cannot be guaranteed by linear type-checking alone. Presently, there exist no good tools to verify the necessary additional properties, but their development is the subject of ongoing research.

In this section, we will examine two relatively simple examples of metatheoretic properties and their proofs in the context of LLF encodings. We will pay particular attention to the additional checks required to verify the proofs, since they must currently be carried out by the user. The examples are soundness and completeness of sequent derivations (including cut) with respect to natural deductions. The proofs we give here is somewhat different from the ones in Chapter 2 since here we are not interested in the fine-grained analysis which relates cut-free sequent derivations to normal deductions.

We present all the LLF encodings in the concrete syntax of linear Twelf introduced in prior lectures and documented in [CP97] and Section 5.2. In particular, we will take full advantage of term reconstruction to recover the types of all free variables, which are implicitly Π -quantified over each declaration.

We begin with the encoding of the intuitionistic, propositional fragment of linear logic. Here we omit propositions \bot , $\neg A$, and ?A which require a second judgment of "possible truth".

% 1

```
%%% Propositions
o : type.
                               %name o A
%%% Multiplicatives
                               % A -o B
lolli : o -> o -> o.
tensor : o -> o -> o.
                               % A * B
                               % 1
one
       : 0.
%%% Additives
                               % A & B
with : o \rightarrow o \rightarrow o.
top : o.
                               % Т
plus : o -> o -> o.
                               % A + B
                               % 0
zero : o.
%%% Exponentials
                               % A -> B
imp : o -> o -> o.
bang : o \rightarrow o.
                               %! A
```

We encode the main judgment of linear logic, Γ ; $\Delta \vdash A$ using the standard encoding technique for hypothetical and linear hypothetical judgments. A natural deduction \mathcal{D} of Γ ; $\Delta \vdash A$ will therefore be represented as a canonical LLF object M such that $\lceil \Gamma \rceil$; $\lceil \Delta \rceil \vdash^{LF} M$: $\operatorname{nd} \lceil A \rceil$ where

With this idea it is almost possible to achieve a perfect bijection between canonical LLF objects of type $\operatorname{nd}^{\sqcap}A^{\sqcap}$ and natural deductions of A.¹

¹For the exception consider the two derivations of $A \multimap (\top \otimes \top)$ and their representation.

```
oneI : nd (one).
oneE : nd (one)
        -o nd C
        -o nd C.
%%% Additives
% A & B
withI : nd A & nd B -o nd (with A B).
withE1 : nd (with A B) -o nd A.
withE2 : nd (with A B) -o nd B.
topI : \langle T \rangle -o \ nd \ (top).
% no topE
% A + B
plusI1 : nd A -o nd (plus A B).
plusI2 : nd B -o nd (plus A B).
plusE : nd (plus A B)
         -o ((nd A -o nd C) & (nd B -o nd C))
         -o nd C.
% 0
% no zeroI
zeroE : nd (zero)
         -o <T>
         -o nd C.
%%% Exponentials
% A -> B
impI : (nd A -> nd B) -o nd (imp A B).
impE : nd (imp A B) -o nd A -> nd B.
%! A
bangI : nd A -> nd (bang A).
bangE : nd (bang A)
         -o (nd A -> nd C)
         -o nd C.
```

Representation of the sequent calculus is discussed in some detail in the literature [CP97]. Briefly, it arises by considering two basic judgments, "A is a hypothesis" and "A is the conclusion". We represent this via two corresponding type families, left $\[\cap A \]$ for hypotheses and right $\[\cap A \]$ for the conclusion. So a sequent derivation of $\[\Gamma \]$; $\[\triangle \] \Longrightarrow A$ is represented by a canonical LLF object M

left : o -> type.

such that $\lceil \Gamma \rceil$; $\lceil \Delta \rceil \vdash^{LF} M : \text{right } \lceil A \rceil$, where

Unlike natural deduction, we now need to explicitly connect the left and right judgments, which is done in two dual ways. Initial sequents allow us to conclude right $\lceil A \rceil$ from left $\lceil A \rceil$. The rules of Cut allow us to substitute a derivation of right $\lceil A \rceil$ for a hypothesis left $\lceil A \rceil$. There are two forms of cut, since we might replace a linear or unrestricted hypothesis.

%name left L

```
right : o -> type.
                             %name right R
%%% Initial sequents
init : (left A -o right A).
%%% Cuts
cut : right A
       -o (left A -o right C)
       -o right C.
cut! : right A
        -> (left A -> right C)
        -o right C.
   The renaming rules are the left and right rules for each connective, cast into
LLF.
%%% Multiplicatives
% A -o B
lolliR : (left A -o right B) -o right (lolli A B).
lolliL : right A
          -o (left B -o right C)
          -o (left (lolli A B) -o right C).
% A * B
tensorR : right A -o right B -o right (tensor A B).
tensorL : (left A -o left B -o right C)
           -o (left (tensor A B) -o right C).
% 1
oneR : right (one).
oneL : (right C)
        -o (left (one) -o right C).
```

```
%%% Additives
% A & B
withR : right A & right B -o right (with A B).
withL1 : (left A -o right C)
          -o (left (with A B) -o right C).
withL2 : (left B -o right C)
          -o (left (with A B) -o right C).
% T
topR : <T> -o right (top).
% no topL
% A + B
plusR1 : right A -o right (plus A B).
plusR2 : right B -o right (plus A B).
plusL : (left A -o right C) & (left B -o right C)
        -o (left (plus A B) -o right C).
% 0
% no zeroR
zeroL : <T> -o (left (zero) -o right C).
%%% Exponentials
% A -> B
impR : (left A -> right C) -o right (imp A C).
impL : right A
        -> (left B -> right C)
        -o (left (imp A B) -o right C).
%! A
bangR : right A -> right (bang A).
bangL : (left A -> right C)
         -o (left (bang A) -o right C).
```

Note that LLF allows a one-by-one representation of the rules without any auxiliary judgment forms. It is this directness of encoding which makes it feasible to write out the proof of soundness and completeness of the sequent calculus with respect to natural deduction in a similar manner. We begin with the slightly easier direction of soundness.

Theorem 5.1 (Soundness of Sequent Calculus with Cut) If Γ ; $\Delta \Longrightarrow A$ then Γ ; $\Delta \vdash A$.

Proof: By induction over the structure of the given sequent derivation. This

constructive proof contains a method by which a natural deduction \mathcal{D} can be constructed from a sequent derivation \mathcal{R} . Under the Curry-Howard isomorphism, one might expect this method to be represented as a dependently typed function

$$sd: \Pi A: o. \ right A \to nd A.$$

Unfortunately, such a function cannot be defined within LLF, since it lacks the means to define functions recursively, or distinguish cases based on the possible input derivations.²

Instead, we represent the proof as a higher-level judgment sd relating the derivations \mathcal{D} and \mathcal{R} . We do not give the awkward informal presentation of this relation, only its implementation in linear Twelf. Since hypotheses on the left of the sequent are represented by a different judgment, we also need to explicitly relate the hypotheses in the two judgments, using sd'.

Each case in the proof corresponds to an inference rule defining this higherlevel judgment.

Case:
$$\mathcal{R} = \overline{\Gamma; x:A \Longrightarrow A}$$
 I.

Then

$$\frac{}{\Gamma;x:A\vdash A}x$$

is the corresponding derivation. In the formalization, the labels of the hypothesis A are different, but related by sd'. Thus we declare:

where L stands for label of the sequent hypothesis (of type left $\lceil A \rceil$) and X stands for the label of the natural deduction hypothesis (of type $\operatorname{nd} \lceil A \rceil$).

Then we reason:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{D}_1 :: (\Gamma; \Delta_1 \vdash A) & \text{By i.h. on } \mathcal{R}_1 \\ \mathcal{D}_2 :: (\Gamma; \Delta_2 \vdash B) & \text{By i.h. on } \mathcal{R}_2 \\ \mathcal{D} :: (\Gamma; (\Delta_1 \times \Delta_2) \vdash A \otimes B) & \text{By } \otimes \text{I from } \mathcal{D}_1 \text{ and } \mathcal{D}_2 \end{array}$$

²The lack of definition by cases and recursion is essential to obtain adequate encodings (see [SDP97])

The appeals to the induction hypothesis are implemented by "recursive calls" in the sd judgment.

$$\textbf{Case: } \mathcal{R} = \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{R}_1 \\ \Gamma; (\Delta_1, x_1 : A, x_2 : B) \Longrightarrow C \\ \hline \Gamma; (\Delta_1, x : A \otimes B) \Longrightarrow C \end{array}} \otimes \mathbf{L}.$$

In this case we reason:

$$\mathcal{D}_1 :: (\Gamma; (\Delta_1, x_1 : A, x_2 : B) \vdash C)$$
 By i.h. on \mathcal{R}_1
$$\mathcal{X} :: (\Gamma; x : A \otimes B \vdash A \otimes B)$$
 By hypothesis x
$$\mathcal{D} :: (\Gamma; (\Delta_1, x : A \otimes B) \vdash C)$$
 By \otimes E from \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{D}_1

In the implementation, we have to take care to introduce the new hypotheses in the premisses, that is, the parameters x_1 and x_2 . Further, we need to relate the hypotheses in the two different judgments (as indicated already in the case for initial sequents above), by using the sd' judgment. We label the hypotheses in the sequent calculus with l, l_1 , and l_2 .

$$\mathcal{D}_1 :: (\Gamma; \Delta \vdash A)$$
 By i.h. on \mathcal{R}_1
$$\mathcal{D}_2 :: (\Gamma; \Delta \vdash B)$$
 By i.h. on \mathcal{R}_2
$$\mathcal{D} :: (\Gamma; \Delta \vdash A \& B)$$
 By &I from \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2

In the formalization of this case, we have to be careful to use the alternative conjunction at the meta-level as well, since the assumptions about the connection between hypotheses left $\lceil A \rceil$ and $\operatorname{nd} \lceil A \rceil$ are linear and may be needed in both branches.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Case:} \ \mathcal{R} = \ \frac{\mathcal{R}_1}{\Gamma; (\Delta_1, x_1 : A) \Longrightarrow C} \\ \frac{\Gamma; (\Delta_1, x : A \otimes B) \Longrightarrow C}{\Gamma; (\Delta_1, x : A \otimes B) \Longrightarrow C} \end{aligned} \otimes L_1.$$

This case is slightly more complicated than the previous ones, since we need to appeal to the substitution lemma.

$$\mathcal{D}_1 :: (\Gamma; \Delta_1, x_1 : A \vdash C)$$
 By i.h. on \mathcal{R}_1 $\mathcal{D}_2 :: (\Gamma; x : A \otimes B \vdash A)$ By $\otimes E_1$ from hypothesis x $\mathcal{D} :: (\Gamma; (\Delta_1, x : A \otimes B) \vdash C)$ By the substitution lemma from \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2

The implementation exploits the compositionality of the representation to model the appeal to the substitution lemma by application in the LLF. We have (in the LLF representation):

In the concrete code, D1 will be bound to $(\hat{\lambda}x_1: \text{nd} \lceil A \rceil, \lceil \mathcal{D}_1 \rceil)$, so the application in the second to the last line is written as D1 ^ (withE1 ^ X).

Case:
$$\mathcal{R} = \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{R}_1 & \mathcal{R}_2 \\ \Gamma; \Delta_1 \Longrightarrow A & \Gamma; (\Delta_2, x:A) \Longrightarrow C \\ \hline \Gamma; (\Delta_1 \times \Delta_2) \Longrightarrow C \end{array}}_{\text{Cut.}}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_1 :: (\Gamma; \Delta_1 \vdash A)$$
 By i.h. on \mathcal{R}_1 $\mathcal{D}_2 :: (\Gamma; (\Delta_2, x : A) \vdash C)$ By i.h. on \mathcal{R}_2 $\mathcal{D} :: (\Gamma; (\Delta_1 \times \Delta_2) \vdash C)$ By the substitution lemma from \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2

The representation uses the same technique of meta-level application as the case for $\&R_1$ above.

Among the remaining cases, the exponentials and the cut of an unrestricted hypothesis require some additional case to make sure the meta-level hypothesis are also unrestricted. Similarly, in the case for $\top R$, care must be taken so the linearity of the meta-reasoning is not violated by allowing weakening with the \top of LLF. We leave it to the reader to write out these cases and relate them to the complete code given below.

```
sd : right A -> nd A -> type.
sd' : left A -> nd A -> type.
%%% Initial sequents
initSD : sd (init ^ L) X
          o- sd' L X.
%%% Cuts
cutSD : sd (cut ^ R1 ^ R2) (D2 ^ D1)
         o- sd R1 D1
         o- ({1:left A} {x:nd A}
               sd' 1 \times -o sd (R2 ^1) (D2 ^x).
cut!SD : sd (cut! R1 ^ R2) (D2 D1)
          <- sd R1 D1
          o- ({1:left A} {u:nd A}
                sd' 1 u -> sd (R2 1) (D2 u)).
%%% Multiplicatives
% A -o B
lolliRSD : sd (lolliR ^ R1) (lolliI ^ D1)
            o- ({1:left A} {x:nd A}
                  sd' l x - o sd (R1 ^1) (D1 ^x).
lolliLSD : sd (lolliL ^ R1 ^ R2 ^ L) (D2 ^ (lolliE ^ X ^ D1))
            o- sd R1 D1
            o- ({1:left B} {x:nd B}
                  sd' l x - o sd (R2 ^1) (D2 ^x)
            o- sd' L X.
% A * B
tensorRSD : sd (tensorR ^ R1 ^ R2) (tensorI ^ D1 ^ D2)
             o- sd R1 D1
             o- sd R2 D2.
tensorLSD : sd (tensorL ^ R1 ^ L) (tensorE ^ X ^ D1)
             o- ({11:left A} {12:left B} {x1:nd A} {x2:nd B}
                   sd' 11 x1
                   -o sd' 12 x2
                   -o sd (R1 ^ l1 ^ l2) (D1 ^ x1 ^ x2))
             o- sd' L X.
```

```
% 1
oneRSD : sd (oneR) (oneI).
oneLSD : sd (oneL \hat{\ } R1 \hat{\ } L) (oneE \hat{\ } X \hat{\ } D1)
          o- sd R1 D1
          o- sd' L X.
%%% Additives
% A & B
withRSD : sd (withR ^ (R1, R2)) (withI ^ (D1, D2))
           o- sd R1 D1 & sd R2 D2.
withL1SD : sd (withL1 ^ R1 ^ L) (D1 ^ (withE1 ^ X))
            o- ({l1:left A} {x1:nd A}
                   sd' 11 x1 -o sd (R1 ^ 11) (D1 ^ x1))
            o- sd' L X.
withL2SD : sd (withL2 ^{\circ} R2 ^{\circ} L) (D2 ^{\circ} (withE2 ^{\circ} X))
            o- ({12:left B} {x2:nd B}
                  sd' 12 x2 -o sd (R2 ^ 12) (D2 ^ x2))
             o- sd' L X.
% T
topRSD : sd (topR ^ ()) (topI ^ ())
          o- < T>.
% no topL
% A + B
plusR1SD : sd (plusR1 ^ R1) (plusI1 ^ D1)
            o- sd R1 D1.
plusR2SD : sd (plusR2 ^ R2) (plusI2 ^ D2)
            o- sd R2 D2.
plusLSD : sd (plusL ^ (R1, R2) ^ L) (plusE ^ X ^ (D1, D2))
           o- (({l1:left A} {x1:nd A}
                   sd' 11 x1 -o sd (R1 ^ 11) (D1 ^ x1))
                  & ({12:left B} {x2:nd B}
                       sd' 12 x2 -o sd (R2 ^ 12) (D2 ^ x2)))
           o- sd' L X.
% 0
% no zeroR
zeroLSD : sd (zeroL ^ () ^ L) (zeroE ^ X ^ ())
           o- <T>
           o- sd' L X.
%%% Exponentials
```

```
% A -> B
impRSD : sd (impR ^ R1) (impI ^ D1)
          o- ({1:left A} {u:nd A}
                sd' 1 u \rightarrow sd (R1 1) (D1 u)).
impLSD : sd (impL R1 ^ R2 ^ L) (D2 (impE ^ X D1))
          <- sd R1 D1
          o- ({1:left B} {u:nd B}
                sd' 1 u -> sd (R2 1) (D2 u))
          o- sd' L X.
%! A
bangRSD : sd (bangR R1) (bangI D1)
           <- sd R1 D1.
bangLSD : sd (bangL ^ R1 ^ L) (bangE ^ X ^ D2)
           o- ({1:left A} {u:nd A}
                 sd' 1 u -> sd (R1 1) (D2 u))
           o- sd' L X.
```

The signature above is type-correct in linear Twelf. But what does this establish? For example, assume that we had forgotten the last clause—the signature would still have been correctly typed, but it would no longer represent a proof, since not all possible cases have been covered. So we need to verify the following properties in addition to the type correctness in order to be sure that the signature represents a proof.

1. The signature is well-moded. This means that when we appeal to the induction hypothesis we have actually constructed an of the appropriate type, and in the end we have fully constructed the object whose existence is postulated. In concrete terms, when we make a recursive call, we need to make sure the input arguments to the type family are fully instantiated, and before we return the output arguments to the type family are also fully instantiated.

For example, the first argument of the type family sd is an input argument, the second an output argument. We then reason as follows:

```
tensorRSD: sd (tensorR ^ R1 ^ R2) (tensorI ^ D1 ^ D2)
o- sd R1 D1
o- sd R2 D2.
```

we reason as follows:

When we use this clause, the first argument to sd is given, so R1 and R2 are ground.

Therefore, the input arguments to both recursive calls are ground.

They yield ground outputs D1 and D2.

Therefore the output (tensorI ^ D1 ^ D2) will be ground.

Failure of mode-correctness are often simple typographical mistakes which leave the clause well-typed, such as in the following cases.

In the first, R3 is not ground, in the second D3 is not ground.

2. The signatures is *terminating*. This means all recursive calls are carried out on smaller terms. These will just be proper subterms if the informal induction argument is over the structure of a derivation. There is one slight complication in that we must allow instantiation of bound variables by parameters so that, for example,

is terminating since (R1 1 11 1 12) is considered a subterm of the input argument (tensorL 1 R1 1 L) because 11 and 12 are parameters.

3. The signature *covers* all possible cases. This is the most error-prone property which must be verified, and failures can be subtle. There are three principles classes of failures: A case for a constructor has been omitted, a case for a parameter is missing, or a case is given, but not general enough. For example, a missing case for a parameter arises if we omit the assumption sd' 11 x1 from the declaration of tensorLSD above:

When 11 is encountered in an initial sequence or the principal proposition of a left rule, it will be impossible to proceed with the translation, since 11 has not been related to the natural deduction hypothesis x2.

The more subtle case of insufficient generality is exhibited by the following two examples, both of which mean that perfectly valid translations cannot be carried out. The first fails to allow weakening when translating instances of the $\top R$ rule.

The second applies only to instances where the conclusion of the $\otimes R$ rule has the form $A \otimes A$.

```
tensorRSD: sd (tensorR ^ R1 ^ R2) (tensorI ^ D2 ^ D1)
o- sd R1 D1
o- sd R2 D2.
```

This fact is only apparent when we look at the reconstructed form of this clause.

Both R1 and R2 are derivations of sequents with conclusion A1. The reconstruction of the correct clause is

From the above examples one can see that bugs in proof representations can be subtle. Some may be caught by running examples, other by inspection, but the need for a reliable verification procedure should be clear.

The second example is the completeness property: whenever A can be derived by natural deduction, it can also be derived in the sequent calculus. The proof is very direct, but makes rather heavy use of the cut rule (in contrast to the proof in Chapter 2).

```
Theorem 5.2 (Completeness of Sequent Calculus with Cut) If \Gamma; \Delta \vdash A then \Gamma; \Delta \Longrightarrow A.
```

Proof: By induction of the structure over the given natural deduction. The main insight is that all introduction rules can be translated straightforwardly to right rules, while all elimination rules require one or more uses of the cut rule in the sequent calculus.³

³[show a few cases]

The representation of this proof is straightforward along the lines of the soundness proof. This time, we need only one meta-level judgment since we can relate hypotheses in natural deduction directly to initial sequent derivations.

```
cp : nd A -> right A -> type.
%%% Multiplicatives
% A -o B
lolliICP : cp (lolliI ^ D1) (lolliR ^ R1)
            o- (\{x:nd A\} \{1:left A\}
                   cp x (init \hat{ } 1) -o cp (D1 \hat{ } x) (R1 \hat{ } 1)).
lolliECP : cp (lolliE ^ D1 ^ D2)
            (cut ^ R2
                `([l^left A] cut ^ R1
                     ^ ([k^left (lolli A B)]
                          lolliL ^ (init ^ 1) ^ ([r^left B] init ^ r) ^ k)))
            o- cp D1 R1
            o- cp D2 R2.
% A * B
tensorICP : cp (tensorI ^ D1 ^ D2) (tensorR ^ R1 ^ R2)
             o- cp D1 R1
             o- cp D2 R2.
tensorECP : cp (tensorE ^ D1 ^ D2)
             (cut ^ R1
                 ^ [l^left (tensor A B)] tensorL ^ R2 ^ 1)
             o- cp D1 R1
             o- ({x:nd A} {1:left A} {y:nd B} {k:left B}
                    cp x (init ^ 1)
                    -o cp y (init ^ k)
                    -o cp (D2 ^ x ^ y) (R2 ^ 1 ^ k)).
% 1
oneICP : cp (oneI) (oneR).
oneECP : cp (oneE ^ D1 ^ D2) (cut ^ R1 ^ ([l^left (one)] oneL ^ R2 ^ 1))
          o- cp D1 R1
          o- cp D2 R2.
%%% Additives
% A & B
withICP: cp (withI ^ (D1, D2)) (withR ^ (R1, R2))
           o- cp D1 R1 & cp D2 R2.
withE1CP : cp (withE1 ^ D1)
            (cut ^ R1
```

```
^{\circ} ([l^left (with A B)] withL1 ^{\circ} ([k^left A] init ^{\circ} k) ^{\circ} 1))
             o- cp D1 R1.
withE2CP : cp (withE2 ^ D1)
             (cut ^ R1
                ^{\circ} ([l^left (with A B)] withL2 ^{\circ} ([k^left B] init ^{\circ} k) ^{\circ} 1))
             o- cp D1 R1.
% T
topICP : cp (topI ^ ()) (topR ^ ())
          o- <T>.
% no topE
% A + B
plusI1CP : cp (plusI1 ^ D1) (plusR1 ^ R1)
             o- cp D1 R1.
plusI2CP : cp (plusI2 ^ D2) (plusR2 ^ R2)
             o- cp D2 R2.
plusECP : cp (plusE ^ D1 ^ (D2 , D3))
            (cut ^ R1
               ^ ([1^left (plus A B)] plusL ^ (R2, R3) ^ 1))
            o- cp D1 R1
            o- ({x:nd A} {1:left A}
                   cp x (init ^ 1)
                  -o cp (D2 ^ x) (R2 ^ 1))
               & ({y:nd B} {k:left B}
                    cp y (init ^ k)
                     -o cp (D3 \hat{} y) (R3 \hat{} k)).
% 0
% no zeroI
zeroECP : cp (zeroE ^ D1 ^ ())
            (cut ^ R1 ^ ([l^left (zero)] zeroL ^ () ^ 1))
            o- cp D1 R1
            o- <T>.
%%% Exponentials
% A -> B
impICP : cp (impI ^ D1) (impR ^ R1)
           o- ({u:nd A} {1:left A}
                 cp u (init \hat{} 1) \rightarrow cp (D1 u) (R1 1)).
impECP : cp (impE ^ D1 D2)
           (cut! R2
              ^ ([1:left A] cut ^ R1
                    ^ ([k^left (imp A B)]
```

5.2 Concrete Syntax of Linear Twelf

In this section, we extend the concrete syntax of Elf [Pfe94] to express the linear operators of LLF. In doing so, we want to fulfill two constraints: first of all, existing Elf programs should not undergo any syntactic alteration (unless they declare some of the reserved identifiers that we will introduce) if we were to execute them in an implementation of LLF relying on the new syntax. In other words, the extension we propose should be conservative with respect to the syntax of Elf. Second, we want to avoid a proliferation of operators: keeping their number as small as possible will make future extensions easier to accommodate if their inclusion appears beneficial.

The set of special characters of Elf consists of %:..) (] [} {. We extend these with two symbols: , and $\widehat{}$. LLF object and type family constants are consequently represented as identifiers consisting of any non-empty string that does not contain spaces or the characters %:..) (] [} { , $\widehat{}$. As in Elf, identifiers must be separated from each other by whitespace (i.e., blanks, tabs, and new lines) or special characters. We augment the set of reserved identifiers of Elf (type, \rightarrow and \leftarrow) with \leftarrow T>, &, \rightarrow 0, \leftarrow 0, \leftarrow 5 and \leftarrow 5 and \leftarrow 8. Although not properly an identifier, the symbol () is also reserved; this string is forbidden in Elf.

The following table associates every $\lambda^{\Pi, \neg \circ, \&, \top}$ operator to its concrete representation. Terms in the λ^Π sublanguage of LLF are mapped to the syntax of Elf. This language offers the convenience of writing $\neg >$ as $< \neg$ with the arguments reversed in order to give a more operational reading to a program, when desired: under this perspective, we read the expression $A < \neg B$ as "A if B". We extend this possibility to linear implication, $\neg \circ$. Clearly, when we use $\circ \neg$, the arguments should be swapped: $A \circ \neg B$ is syntactic sugar for $B \neg \circ A$.

	Abstract syntax	Concrete syntax			
Kinds	type	type			
	$\Pi x:A.\ K$	$\{x:A\}K$ $A \rightarrow K$ $K \leftarrow A$			
Types	PM	PM			
	Т	<t></t>			
	A & B	A & B			
	$A \multimap B$	$A ext{ -0 } B ext{ } B ext{ } o ext{ } - A$			
	$\Pi x:A.\ B$	$\{x:A\}B$ $A \rightarrow B$ $B \leftarrow A$			
Objects	⟨⟩	()			
	$\langle M,N angle$	M , N			
	$\operatorname{fst} M$	<fst> M</fst>			
	$\operatorname{snd} M$	\leq snd $>$ M			
	$\hat{\lambda}x:A.\ M$	$[x^A]M$			
	\hat{MN}	$M \hat{\ } N$			
	$\lambda x : A. M$	[x:A]M			
	MN	M N			

The next table gives the relative precedence and associativity of these operators. Parentheses are available to override these behaviors. Note that $-\circ$, ->, \circ -, and <- all have the same precedence.

Precedence	Operator		Position	
highest	<fst> _ <snd> _</snd></fst>		left prefix	
		- ^ -		left associative
	_ & _			right associative
	o _	> _		right associative
	_ o	_ <		left associative
	-,-			right associative
	:			left associative
lowest	{_:_}_	[_:_]_	[_^_]_	left prefix

As in Elf, a signature declaration c:A is represented by the program clause:

$$c:A$$
.

Type family constants are declared similarly. For practical purposes, it is convenient to provide a means of declaring linear assumptions. Indeed, whenever the object formalism we want to represent requires numerous linear hypotheses, it is simpler to write them as program clauses than to rely on some initialization routine that assumes them in the context during its execution. To this end, we permit declarations of the form

$$c$$
 ^ A .

with the intent that this declaration should be inserted in the context as a linear assumption. 4

We retain from Elf the use of % for comments and interpreter directives. Delimited comments have the form $\{...\}$, where embedded delimited comments must be nested properly. We adopt the conventions available in that language in order to enhance the readability of LLF programs [Pfe91]. In particular, we permit keeping the type of bound variables implicit whenever they can be effectively reconstructed by means techniques akin to those currently implemented in Elf.

We write $\{x\}B$, [x]B and $[x^{\hat{}}]B$ when maintaining implicit the type A of the variable x in $\{x:A\}B$, [x:A]B and $[x^{\hat{}}A]B$, respectively. Similar conventions apply to dependent kinds. As in Elf, the binders for variables quantified at the head of a clause can be omitted altogether if we write these variables with identifiers starting with a capital letter. Moreover, the arguments instantiating them can be kept implicit when using these declarations.

Finally, we relax the requirement of writing LLF declarations only in η -long form. With sufficient typing information it is always possible to transform a signature to that format.

⁴[currently, this is unimplemented]

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