

The Calculus of Linear Constructions

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Abstract

The Calculus of Linear Constructions (CLC) is an extension of the Calculus of Constructions (CC) with linear types. Specifically, CLC extends CC with a hierarchy of linear universes that precisely controls the weakening and contraction of its term level inhabitants. We study the meta-theory of CLC, proving that it is a sound logical framework for reasoning about resource. CLC is backwards compatible with CC, allowing CLC to enjoy the decades of CC research. We have formalized and proven correct all major results of the core calculus in the Coq Proof Assistant. We extend CLC with linear inductive types and show that CLC as a programming language enables the manipulation of mutable data structures in a principled way.

1 Introduction

The Calculus of Constructions (CC) is a dependent type theory introduced by Coquand and Huet in their landmark work [11]. In CC types can depend on terms, allowing one to write fine-grain propositions as types. Today, CC and its variations CIC [27] and ECC [26] lie at the core of popular proof assistants such as Coq [30], Agda [25], Lean [12], and others. These theorem provers have found great success in the fields of software verification [19, 2], and constructive mathematics [16, 7].

However, due to its origins as a logical framework for constructive mathematics, it is quite difficult for CC to encode and reason about resources. Intuitively, a mathematical theorem can be applied an unrestricted number of times. Comparatively, the usage of resources is more limited. For example, if we encode Girard’s classical example [15] of purchasing cigarettes literally into CC as a function of type:

$$Money \rightarrow Camels + Marlboro$$

The customer will still maintain full ownership of their money after paying the vendor. Unless the vendor is exceedingly generous, we are faced with the crime of counterfeiting. Users of proof assistants based on CC often need to embed external logics into CC [9] to provide additional reasoning principles for dealing with resource. The design and embedding of these logics is a difficult problem in its own right, requiring additional proofs to justify its soundness. We propose an alternative solution: extend CC with linear types.

Linear Logic is a substructural logic introduced by Girard in his seminal work [14]. Girard notice that the weakening and contraction rules of Classical Logic when restricted carefully, gives rise to a new logical foundation for reasoning about resource. Wadler [32, 33] first notice that an analogous restriction to variable usage in simple type theory leads to a linear type theory, where terms respect resources. A term calculus for linear type theory was later realized by Abramsky [1]. Benton [4] investigates the ramifications of the ! exponential in linear term calculi, decomposing it to adjoint connectives F and G that map between linear and non-linear judgments. Programming languages [23, 35, 5] featuring linear types have also been implemented, allowing programmers to write resource safe software in practical applications. The success of integrating Linear Logic with simple type theory exposes a tantalizing new frontier of integrating linearity with richer type theories.

Work have been done to extend dependent type theories with linear types. Cervesato and Pfenning extends the Edinburgh Logical Framework with linear types [17, 8], being the first to demonstrate that dependent types and linear types can coexist within a type theory. Vákár [31] gives a categorical semantics for linear dependent types. Krishnaswami et al. present a dependent linear type theory [18] based on Benton’s early work of mixed linear and non-linear calculus, demonstrating the ability to internalize imperative programming the style of Hoare Type Theory [24]. Luo et al. introduce the property of essential linearity, and a mixed linear/non-linear context, describing the first type theory that allows types to depend on linear terms. Based on initial ideas of McBride [22], Atkey’s Quantitative Type Theory (QTT) [3] uses semi-ring annotations to track variable occurrence, simulating irrelevance, linear, and affine types within a unified framework. The Idris 2 programming language [6] implements QTT as its core type system.

We propose a new linear dependent type system - The Calculus of Linear Constructions (CLC). CLC extends $CC\omega$ with linear types. $CC\omega$ itself is an extension of CC with a cumulative hierarchy of type universes. We add extra universes L of linear types with cumulativity parallel to the universes U of non-linear types. Universe information is propagated by an indexed typing judgment down to the term level, controlling the usage of weakening and contraction rules. This ultimately results in the *linearity* theorem, stating that all resources are used exactly once.

The presence of both linear and dependent types enables CLC to write specifications that faithfully encodes the usage of resource. The previous example of monetary transaction can be refined using an indexed linear type family $Money : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow L$, and a linear arrow \multimap_L as follows.

$$Money \ 5 \multimap_L Camels + Marlboro$$

This new specification for transaction states that it requires a payment of 5 units of money, the customer is relieved of their ownership after the transaction finishes, effectively preventing the contradiction of having your cake and eating it too.

Compared to preexisting approaches for integrating linear types and dependent types, CLC offers a “lightweight” approach to extending $CC\omega$ with linear types, akin to Mazurak et al.’s work on System F [21]. This allows for a straightforward embedding of CLC into CC, and lifting of CC into CLC, endowing CLC with the fruits of decades of CC research. We further extend CLC with inductive types, showing that as a programming language it can manipulate mutable data structures in a principled way. We have formalized all major results in Coq, and implemented a prototype in OCaml.

Contributions: Our contributions can be summarized as follows.

- First, we describe the Calculus of Linear Constructions, an extension to the Calculus of Constructions with linear types. The integration of linear types and dependent types allows CLC to directly and precisely reason about resource.
- Next, we study the meta-theory of CLC directly, showing that it satisfies the standard properties of confluence, regularity, and subject reduction.
- We observe that CLC is highly backwards compatible with CC. We construct a reduction preserving embedding of CLC into CC, showing that CLC is consistent.
- All major results have been formalized and proven correct in the Coq Proof Assistant with help from the Autosubst [29] library. To the best of our knowledge, our development is the first machine checked formalization of a linear dependent type theory.
- Furthermore, we extend CLC with linear inductive data, demonstrating that as a programming language, CLC can safely manipulate mutable data structures.
- Finally, we give an implementation extended with user definable linear and non-linear inductive types. Algorithmic type checking employed by the implementation streamlines the process of writing CLC.

2 The Language of CLC

2.1 Syntax

The syntax of the core type theory is presented in Figure 1. Our type theory contains two sorts of predicative universes U and L , being the types of non-linear types and linear types respectively. An additional impredicative universe U_* is the type of propositions, in the same spirit as $CC\omega$'s *Prop* universe.

| | | |
|-----------------|---|------------------------|
| k | $:= 0 \mid 1 \mid 3 \dots$ | predicative levels |
| i | $:= * \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid 3 \dots$ | (im)predicative levels |
| s, t | $::= U \mid L$ | sorts |
| m, n, A, B, C | $::= U_i \mid L_k \mid x$ $\mid (x : A) \rightarrow_s B \mid A \rightarrow_s B$ $\mid (x : A) \multimap_s B \mid A \multimap_s B$ $\mid \lambda x. n \mid m \ n$ | expressions |

Figure 1: Syntax

A clear departure of our language from standard presentations of both linear type theory, and dependent type theory is the presence of four function types: $(x : A) \rightarrow_s B$, $A \rightarrow_s B$, $(x : A) \multimap_s B$, $A \multimap_s B$. The reason for these variants is that we have built the $!$ exponential of linear logic directly into the syntax of function types. The behavior of $!$ is difficult to account for even in simple linear type theory. Subtle issues arise if $!!$ is not canonically isomorphic to $!$, which may invalidate the substitution lemma [34]. By integrating the exponential directly into function syntax, we give implicitly limit $!$ to only be used canonically. This allows us to derive substitution, and a direct embedding of CLC into $CC\omega$ without needing extra machinery for manipulating exponential.

$$\begin{aligned}
(_ : A) \rightarrow_U B &\equiv !(!A \multimap !B) & (1) \\
(_ : A) \rightarrow_L B &\equiv !(!A \multimap B) & (2) \\
A \rightarrow_U B &\equiv !(A \multimap !B) & (3) \\
A \rightarrow_L B &\equiv !(A \multimap B) & (4) \\
(_ : A) \multimap_U B &\equiv !A \multimap !B & (5) \\
(_ : A) \multimap_L B &\equiv !A \multimap B & (6) \\
A \multimap_U B &\equiv A \multimap !B & (7) \\
A \multimap_L B &\equiv A \multimap B & (8)
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 2: Correspondence of CLC types and MELL implications

Figure 2 illustrates the correspondence between CLC function types and Multiplicative Exponential Linear Logic (MELL) implications. MELL lacks counterparts for the cases (1), (2), (5), (6) if the co-domain B is dependent on arguments of the domain A .

2.2 Universes and Cumulativity

CLC features three sorts of universes, *Prop*, *U*, and *L*. *Prop* is the impredicative universe propositions. *U*, and *L* are the predicative universe of non-linear types, and linear types respectively. The main mechanism that CLC uses to distinguish between linear and non-linear types is by the universe which they belong. Intuitively, terms with types that occur within *Prop*, and *U* are unrestricted in their usage. Terms with types that occur within *L* are restricted to being used exactly once.

In order to lift terms from lower universes to higher ones, there exists cumulativity between universe levels of the same sort. We define cumulativity as follows.

Definition 2.1. The cumulativity relation (\preceq) is the smallest binary relation over terms such that

1. \preceq is a partial order with respect to definitional equality.
 - (a) If $A \equiv B$, then $A \preceq B$.
 - (b) If $A \preceq B$ and $B \preceq A$, then $A \equiv B$.
 - (c) If $A \preceq B$ and $B \preceq C$, then $A \preceq C$.
2. $Prop \preceq U_0 \preceq U_1 \preceq U_2 \preceq \dots$
3. $L_0 \preceq L_1 \preceq L_2 \preceq \dots$
4. If $A_1 \equiv A_2$ and $B_1 \preceq B_2$, then
 - (a) $(x : A_1) \rightarrow B_1 \preceq (x : A_2) \rightarrow B_2$
 - (b) $(x : A_1) \multimap B_1 \preceq (x : A_2) \multimap B_2$
 - (c) $A_1 \rightarrow B_1 \preceq A_2 \rightarrow B_2$
 - (d) $A_1 \multimap B_1 \preceq A_2 \multimap B_2$

Figure 3 illustrates the structure of our universe hierarchy. Each linear universes L_i has U_{i+1} as its type, allowing functions to dependently quantify over linear *types*. However, L_i cumulates to L_{i+1} . These two parallel threads of cumulativity prevent linear types from being transported to the non-linear universe, and subsequently losing track of linearity.

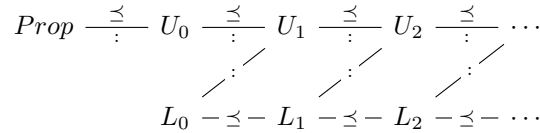


Figure 3: The Universe Hierarchy

2.3 Context and Structural Judgments

The context of our language employs a mixed linear/non-linear representation in the style of Luo[20]. Variables in the context are annotated to indicate whether they are linear or non-linear. A non-linear variable is annotated as $\Gamma, x :_U A$, whereas a linear variable is annotated as $\Gamma, x :_L A$.

Next, we define a $\Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma$ relation that merges two mixed contexts Γ_1 , and Γ_2 into Γ , by performing contraction on shared non-linear variables. For linear variables, the $_ \ddagger _ \ddagger _$ relation is defined if and only if each variable occurs uniquely in one context and not the other. This definition of $_ \ddagger _ \ddagger _$ is what allows contraction for non-linear variables whilst forbidding it for linear ones.

An auxiliary judgment $|\Gamma|$ is defined to assert that a context Γ does not contain linear variables. In other words, all variables found in $|\Gamma|$ are annotated of the form $x :_U A$. The full rules for structural judgments are presented in Figure 4.

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{}{\epsilon \vdash} \text{WF-}\epsilon \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \quad \bar{\Gamma} \vdash A :_U U}{\Gamma, x :_U A \vdash} \text{WF-U} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \quad \bar{\Gamma} \vdash A :_U L}{\Gamma, x :_L A \vdash} \text{WF-L} \\
\\
\frac{}{|\epsilon|} \text{PURE-}\epsilon \qquad \frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U}{|\Gamma, x :_U A|} \text{PURE-U} \\
\\
\frac{}{\epsilon \ddagger \epsilon \ddagger \epsilon} \text{MERGE-}\epsilon \qquad \frac{\Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma}{\Gamma_1, x :_U A \ddagger \Gamma_2, x :_U A \ddagger \Gamma, x :_U A} \text{MERGE-U} \qquad \frac{\Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma \quad x \notin \Gamma_2}{\Gamma_1, x :_L A \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma, x :_L A} \text{MERGE-L1} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma \quad x \notin \Gamma_1}{\Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2, x :_L A \ddagger \Gamma, x :_L A} \text{MERGE-L2}
\end{array}$$

Figure 4: Structural Judgments

Definition 2.2. The context restriction function $\bar{\Gamma}$ is defined as a recursive filter over Γ as follows. All linear variables are removed from context Γ . The result of context restriction is the non-linear subset of the original context.

$$\bar{\epsilon} = \epsilon \qquad \overline{\Gamma, x :_U A} = \bar{\Gamma}, x :_U A \qquad \overline{\Gamma, x :_L A} = \bar{\Gamma}$$

2.4 Type Formation

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{|\Gamma|}{\Gamma \vdash U_* :_U U_0} \text{PROP-AXIOM} \qquad \frac{|\Gamma|}{\Gamma \vdash U_k :_U U_{k+1}} \text{U-AXIOM} \qquad \frac{|\Gamma|}{\Gamma \vdash L_k :_U U_{k+1}} \text{L-AXIOM} \\
\\
\frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U_i \quad \Gamma, x :_U A \vdash B :_U U_*}{\Gamma \vdash (x : A) \rightarrow_U B :_U U_*} \text{U-PROP} \\
\\
\frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U_k \quad \Gamma, x :_U A \vdash B :_U s_k}{\Gamma \vdash (x : A) \rightarrow_s B :_U U_k} \text{U-PROD} \qquad \frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U L_k \quad \Gamma \vdash B :_U s_k}{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow_s B :_U U_k} \text{ARROW} \\
\\
\frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U_k \quad \Gamma, x :_U A \vdash B :_U s_k}{\Gamma \vdash (x : A) \multimap_s B :_U L_k} \text{L-PROD} \qquad \frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U L_k \quad \Gamma \vdash B :_U s_k}{\Gamma \vdash A \multimap_s B :_U L_k} \text{LOLLI}
\end{array}$$

Figure 5: Type Formation

2.5 Term Formation

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{|\Gamma|}{\Gamma, x :_U A \vdash x :_U A} \text{U-VAR} \qquad \frac{|\Gamma|}{\Gamma, x :_L A \vdash x :_L A} \text{L-VAR} \\
\\
\frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash (x : A) \rightarrow_s B :_U U_i \quad \Gamma, x :_U A \vdash n :_s B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x.n :_U (x : A) \rightarrow_s B} \text{U-}\lambda_1 \\
\\
\frac{|\Gamma| \quad \Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow_s B :_U U_k \quad \Gamma, x :_L A \vdash n :_s B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x.n :_U A \rightarrow_s B} \text{U-}\lambda_2 \\
\\
\frac{\bar{\Gamma} \vdash (x : A) \multimap_s B :_U L_k \quad \Gamma, x :_U A \vdash n :_s B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x.n :_L (x : A) \multimap_s B} \text{L-}\lambda_1 \\
\\
\frac{\bar{\Gamma} \vdash A \multimap_s B :_U L_k \quad \Gamma, x :_L A \vdash n :_s B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x.n :_L A \multimap_s B} \text{L-}\lambda_2 \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_U (x : A) \rightarrow_s B \quad \bar{\Gamma}_2 \vdash n :_U A \quad \Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash m n :_s B[n/x]} \text{U-APP-1} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_U A \rightarrow_s B \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash n :_L A \quad \Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash m n :_s B} \text{U-APP-2} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_L (x : A) \multimap_s B \quad \bar{\Gamma}_2 \vdash n :_U A \quad \Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash m n :_s B[n/x]} \text{L-APP-1} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_L A \multimap_s B \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash n :_L A \quad \Gamma_1 \ddagger \Gamma_2 \ddagger \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash m n :_s B} \text{L-APP-2} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash m :_s A \quad \bar{\Gamma} \vdash B :_U s_i \quad A \preceq B}{\Gamma \vdash m :_s B} \text{CONV}
\end{array}$$

Figure 6: Term Formation

2.6 Reduction and Equality

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{m_1 \rightsquigarrow^* n \quad m_2 \rightsquigarrow^* n}{m_1 \equiv m_2 : A} \text{JOIN} \quad \frac{}{x \rightsquigarrow x} \text{P-VAR} \quad \frac{}{U \rightsquigarrow U} \text{P-U} \quad \frac{}{L \rightsquigarrow L} \text{P-L} \quad \frac{n \rightsquigarrow n'}{\lambda x. n \rightsquigarrow \lambda x. n'} \text{P-}\lambda \\
\\
\frac{n \rightsquigarrow n'}{\lambda x. n \rightsquigarrow \lambda x. n'} \text{P-}\lambda \quad \frac{m \rightsquigarrow m' \quad n \rightsquigarrow n'}{m \ n \rightsquigarrow m' \ n'} \text{P-APP} \quad \frac{m \rightsquigarrow m' \quad n \rightsquigarrow n'}{(\lambda x. m) \ n \rightsquigarrow m' [n'/x]} \text{P-}\beta \\
\\
\frac{A \rightsquigarrow A' \quad B \rightsquigarrow B'}{(x : A) \rightarrow_s B \rightsquigarrow (x : A') \rightarrow_s B'} \text{P-U-PROD} \quad \frac{A \rightsquigarrow A' \quad B \rightsquigarrow B'}{A \rightarrow_s B \rightsquigarrow A' \rightarrow_s B'} \text{P-ARROW} \\
\\
\frac{A \rightsquigarrow A' \quad B \rightsquigarrow B'}{(x : A) \multimap_s B \rightsquigarrow (x : A') \multimap_s B'} \text{P-L-PROD} \quad \frac{A \rightsquigarrow A' \quad B \rightsquigarrow B'}{A \multimap_s B \rightsquigarrow A' \multimap_s B'} \text{P-LOLLI}
\end{array}$$

Figure 7: Equality and Parallel Reduction

2.7 Meta Theory

We have proven the type soundness of our language in the form of *progress* and *preservation* theorems. The proofs have been formalized in Coq with help from the Autosubst[29] library.

2.7.1 Step and Parallel Step

The following lemmas and proofs are entirely standard. The restriction to value-form arguments for β -reduction does not pose any complications.

Lemma 2.1. *Single step reduction implies parallel step reduction. If $m \rightsquigarrow m'$, then $m \rightsquigarrow^* m'$.*

Lemma 2.2. *Parallel reduction satisfies the diamond property. If $m \rightsquigarrow m_1$ and $m \rightsquigarrow m_2$ then there exists m' such that $m_1 \rightsquigarrow m'$ and $m_2 \rightsquigarrow m'$.*

Corollary 2.2.1. *The transitive reflexive closure of parallel reduction is confluent. If $m \rightsquigarrow^* m_1$ and $m \rightsquigarrow^* m_2$ then there exists m' such that $m_1 \rightsquigarrow^* m'$ and $m_2 \rightsquigarrow^* m'$.*

Corollary 2.2.2. *The definitional equality relation is an equivalence relation.*

2.7.2 Substitution

Though the *substitution* lemma is widely considered a boring and bureaucratic theorem, it is surprisingly hard to design linear typed languages where the *substitution* lemma is admissible. Much of this difficulty arise during the substitution of non-linear expressions. Perhaps the most famous work detailing the issues of substitution is due to Wadler[34]. Since computation arise as a consequence of substitution, it is imperative to get it right.

Generally, the application rule looks similar to the following for languages with linear types.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash m : A \multimap B \quad \Delta \vdash n : A}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash m \ n : B}$$

If type A is a non-linear type, then n ought to be used freely. However, it is possible for n to contain linear variables present in Δ . If m is a lambda abstraction $\lambda x. m'$ where x occurs multiple times within m' , substitution of n for x will cause duplication of linear variables. One approach for solving

this issue is to wrap non-linear values in an explicit modality, unpacking the internal value only when needed[34, 18]. Another is to ban non-linear expressions from containing linear variables[8, 20, 3].

Our call-by-value semantics resolves the substitution problem without imposing any of the modifications mentioned previously to the typing of application. The crucial realization is the following *value soundness* lemma: non-linear *values* contain no linear variables.

Lemma 2.3. *Value soundness.* If $\Gamma \vdash v :_U A$ then Γ .

From the *value soundness* lemma, the standard rule for application is admissible. Intuitively, a single copy of each linear resource is used to create a single non-linear value. This value can then be freely duplicated without needing the original resources to generate fresh copies. This is consistent with the common practice of retrieving non-linear values from linear references.

Lemma 2.4. *Substitution.* For $\Gamma_1, x :_s A \vdash m :_t B$ and $\Gamma_2 \vdash v :_s A$, if there exists Γ such that merge $\Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma$ is defined, then $\Gamma \vdash [v/x]m :_t [v/x]B$.

2.7.3 Type Soundness

The following theorems are a direct result of the *substitution* lemma and various canonical-form lemmas.

Theorem 2.5. *Progress.* For $\epsilon \vdash m :_s A$, either m is a value or there exists n such that $m \rightsquigarrow n$.

Theorem 2.6. *Preservation.* For $\Gamma \vdash m :_s A$, if $m \rightsquigarrow n$ then $\Gamma \vdash n :_s A$.

3 Extensions

3.1 Data Types

Though it is possible to encode data and propositions directly in the core language using Church-encodings, it is incredibly inconvenient. To address this, our implementation allows users to define inductive data types[13] similar to Coq or Agda[25]. A pattern matching construct[10] is defined on inductive types for data elimination. Checking is performed to ensure that non-linear inductive types do not carry linear terms and linear types cannot be used as type indices or parameters.

Commonly used inductive types are formalized in Figures 8 with their Introduction and Elimination rules formalized in Figure 9 and Figure 10 respectively. Reduction for data types obey the same call-by-value semantics as outlined in 2.6. Other standard data types that are not covered here are \mathbb{N} for natural numbers and \top for the unit type.

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U \quad \Gamma, x :_U A \vdash B :_U U}{\Gamma \vdash \Sigma x : A.B :_U U} \Sigma \qquad \frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U \quad \Gamma, x :_U A \vdash B :_U L}{\Gamma \vdash Fx : A.B :_U L} F \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U L \quad \Gamma \vdash B :_U L}{\Gamma \vdash A \otimes B :_U L} \otimes \qquad \frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash m :_U A \quad \Gamma \vdash n :_U A}{\Gamma \vdash m =_A n :_U U}
\end{array}$$

Figure 8: Data Formation

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_U A \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash n :_U (\lambda x.B) m \quad \text{merge } \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash (m, n) :_U \Sigma x : A.B} \Sigma\text{-INTRO} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_U A \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash n :_L (\lambda x.B) m \quad \text{merge } \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash [m, n] :_L Fx : A.B} F\text{-INTRO} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_L A \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash n :_L B \quad \text{merge } \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \langle m, n \rangle :_L A \otimes B} \otimes\text{-INTRO} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash n :_U A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{refl } n :_U n =_A n}
\end{array}$$

Figure 9: Data Introduction

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_U \Sigma x.A.B \quad \Gamma_2, x :_U A, y :_U B \vdash n :_s C \quad \text{merge } \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } (x, y) := m \text{ in } n :_s C} \Sigma\text{-ELIM} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_L Fx.A.B \quad \Gamma_2, x :_U A, y :_L B \vdash n :_s C \quad \text{merge } \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } [x, y] := m \text{ in } n :_s C} F\text{-ELIM} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash m :_L A \otimes B \quad \Gamma_2, x :_L A, y :_L B \vdash n :_s C \quad \text{merge } \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } \langle x, y \rangle := m \text{ in } n :_s C} \otimes\text{-ELIM} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash p :_U m =_A n \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash q :_s B[m] \quad \bar{\Gamma}, x :_U A \vdash B[x] :_U s \quad \text{merge } \Gamma_1 \Gamma_2 \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \text{subst}(\lambda x.B, p, q) :_s B[n]}
\end{array}$$

Figure 10: Data Elimination

3.2 Imperative Programming

With the addition of data types, axioms for imperative programming can be added to the language. In Figure 11 we give a set of axioms for stateful programs. Note that these axioms are not associated with any reductions. This unsurprisingly breaks the *Progress Theorem* as axioms are neither values nor can they reduce. Despite this obvious shortcoming, the axiomatic treatment of state provides an interface for extraction of imperative code with safe manual memory management.

3.2.1 State Programs

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U \quad \Gamma \vdash m :_U A \quad \Gamma \vdash l :_U \mathbb{N}}{\Gamma \vdash l \mapsto_A m :_U L} \text{CAPABILITY} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash A :_U U \quad \Gamma \vdash m :_U A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{new}(m) :_L Fl : \mathbb{N}.l \mapsto_A m} \text{NEW} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash c :_L l \mapsto_A m}{\Gamma \vdash \text{free}(c) :_U \top} \text{FREE} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash c :_L l \mapsto_A m}{\Gamma \vdash \text{get}(l, c) :_L Fx : A.Fe : (x =_A m).l \mapsto_A m} \text{GET} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash c :_L l \mapsto_A m \quad \bar{\Gamma} \vdash n :_U A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{set}(l, c, n) :_L l \mapsto_A n} \text{SET}
\end{array}$$

Figure 11: State Programs

3.2.2 Laws for Free

4 Future Work

All of the theorems we have developed so far are purely syntactic in nature. But the natural correspondence between linear types and call-by-value semantics seem to hint at a deeper connection. Indeed, past works[28] have provided insight for the simply typed case. We would like to extend these results our dependent linear type theory.

5 Conclusion

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