

1 Graded Modalities as Linear Types

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3 We present an approach that models graded modal bindings using only linear ones. Inspired by Granule, we
4 present an approach in Idris 2 to model limited grades using a construction, called "mu" (M). We present the
5 construction of M , related ones, operations on them, and some useful properties

8 Todo list

| | |
|--|---|
| 11 Update everything | 1 |
| 12 Finish this | 2 |
| 13 Segway into proof | 4 |
| 14 Finish proof | 5 |
| 15 Fix the alignment of these | 6 |
| 16 Add something on metalogical interpretation | 6 |
| 17 This isn't exactly correct | 7 |
| 18 Expose | 7 |
| 19 Need proof | 8 |
| 20 Need proof | 8 |
| 21 Add def | 9 |
| 22 Examples of formulas | 9 |
| 23 Motivating example | 9 |

29 1 Introduction

30 One of the more interesting developments in Programming Language Theory is Quantitative Type
31 Theory, or QTT. Based off Girard's linear logic, it forms the basis of the core syntax of Idris 2's core
32 language, and also as a starting point for that of Linear Haskell [5, 3, 8, 1]. It has many theoretical
33 applications, including creating a more concrete interpretation of the concept of a "real world",
34 constraining memory usage, and allowing for safer foreign interfaces Need citation. Apart
35 from just the theoretical insert, QTT has the potential to serve as an underlying logic for languages
36 like Rust, where reasoning about resources takes the forefront.

37 However, new developments in Graded Modal Type Theory (GrTT), in particular with Granule,
38 serve to create a finer grained¹ notion of usage than QTT. In GrTT, any natural number may serve
39 as a usage, and in some cases even things that are first glance not natural numbers. GrTT is part of
40 a larger trend of "types with algebras" being used to create inferable, simple, and intuitive systems
41 for models of various things. Of these, some of the more notable ones are Koka, Effekt, and Flix, all
42 of which seek to model effects with algebras [10, 4, 9].

44
45 ¹Hence the name

Update
ev-
ery-
thing

Listing 1. Definition of linear natural numbers

```

50  data QNat : Type where
51    Zero : QNat
52    Succ : (l k : QNat) -> QNat
53

```

2 Background

2.1 Copying and Dropping

Utlitmatly, one of the notable facts about a language like Rust with single use bindings is the notion of cloning, or copying, a value. Given that Rust's ownership system can be (partially) modeled by a linear type system, Need citation, it makes sense then that Idris' linear library has two interfaces, Duplicable and Discardable, which model duplication and droping of linear resources, respectivly.

However, a choice was made not use Duplicable, and its associated Copies, for a couple of reasons:

- It is hard to use in practice
- It relies heavily on Copies, which is quite similar to the main construction in this paper, mu types

For these reasons, we define a new interface, Copy, which has two methods, copy : $((x : a) \rightarrow_1 (y : a) \rightarrow_1 (pxy))$. This essientially “uses a value twice” in an arbitrary (potentially dependent) function, and an erased proof that $\text{copy} f z =? f z z$.

We also redefine a Drop interface that is just Consumable with a different name, though this is more a style choice than anything else.

2.2 Linear Functions on Numbers

While Idris' does have a linear library, there are a couple problems with the support for linear bindings:

- These are not as well developed as their unrestricted counterparts
- They can't be converted to their unrestricted counterparts

One of the best examples of this is the natural numbers. Clearly, for any binding of 2, we expect that to be exactly one binding of 1 inside a succesor function. However, this is not the case, rather, Idris by default has it so that data constructor arguements are unrestricted by default. This is very important for a case like the natural numbers, where this is taken to the extreme, it is almost always impossible to talk about the Nat datatype in a useful way with linear bindings.

Natural Numbers. The solution to this, then, is to define the *linear* natural numbers. While the linear library also defines LNat, we also don't use that, because of the fact that, again, it relies on the Copies construction, in addition to already not having that large of an implementation to begin with. Granted, our version is almost exactly the same, and is defined as follows:

The rest of the operations use a model as close to the simple inductive definitions as possible, using copy instead of the more complex duplicate.

```

99 record Exists (t : Type) (p : (t -> Type)) where
100   constructor Evidence
101   0 fst' : t
102   1 snd' : p fst'
103

```

Listing 2. Definition of linear existentials

```

104
105 data Mu : (n : QNat) -> (t : Type) -> (w : t) -> Type where
106   MZ :
107     Mu 0 t w
108   MS :
109     (1 w : t) ->
110     (1 xs : Mu n t w) ->
111     Mu (Succ n) t w
112
113

```

Listing 3. The definition of M in Idris

2.3 Existential Types

Existential types, regarding dependent types, usually refers to dependent pair (Σ) types [13]. In this context, we see the first element of the pair as “evidence” for the type of the second element of the pair. In Idris, this is formalized (in Idris’s *base*) by stating that the first argument is runtime erased, similarly to which universal quantification is a function that is erased.

However, for our usage here this is not suitable, as we are dealing with principally linear values, and `Exists` is unrestricted. Fourtanetly, however, the change from unrestricted to linear existentials is quite trivial, the construction of which may be found at ??

Not much is notable about this, we define the operations as is usual, except every time a function would be unrestricted over the second value it is instead linear. We also have a operator, `#?`, which serves as sugar for this, using Idris’s typebind, mechanism.

3 Mu types

The core construction here is M , or, in Idris, `Mu`, type. This is made to model a “source” of a given value. It is indexed by a natural number, a type, and an erased value of that type. The definitions of this in Idris are given at ??.

Definition 3.1. M is a polymorphic type with signature $M : (n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow (t : *) \rightarrow (w : t) \rightarrow *$

In addition, M has two constructors

Definition 3.2. There are two constructors of M , \diamond `MZ`, and \odot , `MS`, Which have the signatures $\diamond : M n t w$ and $\odot : (w : t) \rightarrow_1 M n t w \rightarrow_1$

Firstly, it should be noted that the names were chosen due to the fact that the indices of them are related. That is, \diamond or “mu zero” will always be indexed by 0, and \odot , “mu successor”, is always indexed by the successor of whatever is given in.

Remark 3.3. $M 0 t w$ can only be constructed by \diamond .

Intuitively, M represents n copies of t , all with the value w , very much inspired by the paper “How to Take the Inverse of a Type”. For instance, if we want to construct $x : M 2 String$ “value”, we can

only construct this through \odot , as we know, but nothing but the first argument of the value, that we must take as a initial argument value, and as a second value of the form $M 1 \text{ String} "value"$, which we then repeat one more time and get another "value" and finally we match $M 0 \text{ String} "value"$ and get that we must have \diamond .

We can then say that we know that the only constructors of $M 2 \text{ String} "String"$ is "value" \odot "value" $\odot\odot$. Note the similarity between the natural number and the constructors. Just as we get 2 by applying $\text{S} \text{ twice}$ to Z , we get $M 2 \text{ String} "value"$ by applying \odot twice to \diamond . This relationship between M types and numbers is far more extensive, as we will cover later.

The windex or "witness" is the value being copied. Notably, if we remove the w index, we would have $\diamond : Mnt$, and $\odot : t \rightarrow_1 Mnt \rightarrow_1 M(Sn)t$, which is simply LVect . The reason that this is undesirable is that we don't want this as it allows for M to have heterogeneous elements. However, if we are talking about "copies" of something, we know that should all be the exact same.

There are two very basic functions that bear mention with respect to M . The first of these is *witness*, which is of the form $\text{witness} :_0 \forall(w : t) \rightarrow_0 M n t w \rightarrow t$. Note that this is an *erased* function. Its implementation is quite simple, just being $\text{witness}\{w\}_- := w$, which we can create, as erased functions can return erased values [Need citation]. In addition, we also have $\text{drop} : M 0 t w \rightarrow \top$, which allows us to drop a value. Its signature is simple $\text{drop}\diamond := ()$.

Finally, we have *once*, which takes a value of form $M 1$ and extracts it into the value itself. It has a signature $\text{once} : M 1 t w \rightarrow_1 t$, where we have $\text{once}(x\odot\diamond) := x$

3.1 Uniqueness

While *w*serves a great purpose in the interpretation of M it perhaps serves an even greater purpose in terms of values of M . We can, using w , prove that there exists exactly one inhabitant of the type $\text{Segway} M n t w$, so long as that type is well formed.

Lemma 3.4. $x : M n t w$ only if the concrete value of x contains n applications of \odot .

PROOF. Induct on n , the first case, $M 0 t w$, contains zero applications of \odot , as it is \diamond . The second one splits has $x : M(Sm') t w$, and we can destruct on the only possible constructor of M for S , \odot , and get $y :_1 t$ and $z :_1 Mntw$ where $x =? (y\odot z)$. We know by the induction hypothesis that z contains exactly n' uses of \odot , and we therefore know that the constructor occurs one more times than that, or Sn' □

This codifies the relationship between M types and natural numbers. Next we prove that we can establish equality between any two elements of a given M instance. This is equivalent to the statement "there exists at most one M " [Need citation].

Lemma 3.5. If both x and y are of type $M n t w$, then $x =? y$.

PROOF. Induct on n .

- The first case, where x and y are both $M 0 t w$, is trivial because, as per ?? they both must be \diamond
- The inductive case, where, from the fact that for any a and b (both of $M n' tw$) we have $a =? b$, we prove that we have, for x and y of $M(Sn') t w$ that $x =? y$. We note that we can destruct both of these, with $x_1 : M n' tw$ and $y_1 : M n' tw$, into $x = x_0 \odot x_1$ and $y = y_0 \odot y_1$, where we note that both x_0 and y_0 must be equal to w , and then we just have the induction hypothesis, $x_1 =? y_1$

We thereby can simply this to the fact that $M n' tw$ has the above property, which is the induction hypothesis. □

```

197 0 unique :
198   {n : Nat} -> {t : Type} -> {w : t} ->
199   {a : Mu n t w} -> {b : Mu n t w} ->
200   (a === b)
201 unique {n=Z} {w=w} {a=MZ,b=MZ} = Refl
202 unique {n=(S n')} {w=w} {a=MS w xs, b=MS w ys} = rewrite__impl
203   (\zs => MS w xs === MS w zs)
204   (unique {a=ys} {b=xs})
205   Refl
206
207
208
209

```

Listing 4. Proof of ?? in Idris

Finish
proof

However, we can make an even more specific statement, given the fact we know that w is an inhabitant of t .

Theorem 3.6 (Uniqueness). *If $M n t w$ is well-formed, then it must have exactly one inhabitant.*

PROOF. We know by ?? that there is *at most* one inhabitant of $M n t w$. We then induct on n to show that there must also exist *at least* one inhabitant of the type.

- The first case is that $M 0 t w$ is always constructible, which is trivial, as this is just \diamond .
- The second case, that $M n' t w$ provides $M (Sn') t w$ being constructible is also trivial, namely, if we have the construction on $M n' t w$ as x , we *know* that the provided value must be w .

Given that we can prove that there must be at least and at most one inhabitant, we can prove that there is exactly one inhabitant. \square

This is very important for proofs on M . It corresponds to the fact that there is only one way to copy something, to provide another value that is the exact same as the first.

3.2 Graded Modalities With Mu

A claim was made earlier that M types can be used to model graded modalities within QTT. The way it does this, however, is not by directly equating M types with [] types [12]. It instead does this similarly to how others have embedded QTT in Agda [7, 6].

Namely, rather than viewing $M n t w$ as the *type* $[t]_n$, we instead view it as the *judgment* $[w] : [t]_n$. Fortunately, due to the fact that this is Idris 2, we don't need a separate \vdash , as M is a type, which, like any other, can be bound linearly, so, the equivalent to the GrTT statement $\Gamma \vdash [x] : [a]$, is $\Gamma \vdash \phi : M r a x$, which can be manipulated like any other type.

This is incredibly powerful. Not only can we reason about graded modalities in Idris, we can reason about them in the language itself, rather than as part of the syntax, which allows us to employ regular proofs on them. This is very apparent in the way constructions are devised. For instance, while Granule requires separate rules for dereliction, we do not, and per as a matter of fact we just define it as once; a similar relationship exists between weakening and dropwhere the exact relationship is shown in ??.

Remark 3.7. We assume that $M n t w$ is equivalent to $[w] : [t]_n$.

Unfortunately, there is no way to prove this in either language, as M can't be constructed in Granule, and graded modal types don't exist in Idris 2.

```

246                                      $\frac{\Gamma \vdash \alpha}{\Gamma, [w] : [t]_0 \vdash \alpha}$  Weak
247
248 weak  : (ctx -@ a) -@ ((LPair ctx (Mu 0 t w)) -@ a)
249 weak f (x # MZ) = f x

```

Fig. 1. The meta-logical drop rule and its Idris 2 equivalent

$$\diamond \otimes x := x \quad (1)$$

$$Z+x \qquad \qquad \qquad := x \qquad \qquad \qquad (2)$$

$$(a \odot b) \otimes x := a \odot (b \otimes x) \quad (3)$$

$$(Sn) + x := S(n + x) \quad (4)$$

3.3 Operations on Mu

There are a number of operations that are very important on M . The first of these that we will discuss is combination. We define this as $\otimes : \forall(m : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_0 \forall n \rightarrow_0 \mathbb{N} M m t w \rightarrow_1 M n t w \rightarrow_1 M (m + n) t w$ and we define it inductively as $\odot \otimes x := x$, and $(a \odot b) \otimes x := a \odot (b \otimes x)$. Note the similarity between the natural number indices and the values, where $0 + x := x$ and $(Sn) + x := S(n + x)$

In addition, using the assumption of ??, we can liken the function \otimes to context concatenation [12]. However, unlike Granule, we define this in the language itself. Per as a matter of fact, it isn't actually possible to construct \otimes in Granule, as it would require a way to reason about type level equality, which isn't possible.

Lemma 3.8. \otimes is commutative², that is, $x \otimes y =? y \otimes x$.

PROOF. These types are the same, and by ??, they are equal.

Given that we can “add” (Or, as we will see later, multiply) two M , it would seem natural that we could also subtract them. We can this function, which is the inverse of `combine`, `split`, which has the signature `split : ∀(m : N) →₀ ∀(n : N) →₁`

We actually use this if a fairbit more than we use `combine`, as `split` doesn't impose any restrictions on the witness.

In a similar manner to how we proved (in ??) the commutativity of \otimes , we can prove that these are inverses.

Lemma 3.9. Given that we have $f := \text{split}$, and $a := \text{uncurry}^1(\otimes)^3$, then f and a are inverses.

PROOF. The type of f is $M(m+n)t w \rightarrow_1 M m t w \times^1 M n t w$, and that of g is $M m t w \times^1 M n t w \rightarrow_1 M(n+m)t w$, so there composition $f \circ g : (- : M(m+n)t w) \rightarrow_1 M(m+n)t w$ (the same for $g \circ f$). Any function from a unique object and that same unique object is an identity, thereby these are inverses

Need citation

Another relevant construction is multiplicity “joining” and its inverse, multiplicity “expanding”.

Definition 3.10. We define $\text{join} : M m \rightarrow (M n t w)$?⁴. Its definition is like that of natural number multiplication, with it defined as follows:

²You can also prove associativity and related properties, the proof is the same.

³Given that we have $\text{uncurry}^1 : (a \rightarrow_1 b \rightarrow_1 c) \rightarrow (a \times^1 b) \rightarrow_1 c$

⁴For simplicity, we infer the second witness

```

295
296 app : Mu n (t -@ u) wf -> Mu n t wx -@ Mu n
297   ↳ Mu n u (wf wx)
298 app MZ MZ = MZ
299 app (MS f fs) (MS x xs) = MS (f x) (app
300   ↳ fs xs)           map : (f : t -@ u) -> Mu n t w -@ Mu n
                           ↳ u (f w)
                           map f MZ = MZ
                           map f (MS x xs) = MS (f x) (map {w=x} f
                           ↳ xs)
301
302
303
304
305
306 joindiamond := ◊
307 join(x0 ⊕ x1) := x0 ⊗ (joinx1)
308
309 This is equivalent to flattening of values, and bears the same name as the equivalent monadic
310 operation, join. Just like ⊕ had the inverse split, join has the inverse expand
311
312 3.4 Applications over Mu
313 There is still one crucial operation that we have not yet mentioned, and that is application over  $M$ .
314 That is, we want a way to be able to lift a linear function into  $M$ . We can do this, and we call it map,
315 due to its similarity to functorial lifting and its definition may be found ??.
316
317 However, there is something unsatisfying about map. Namely, the first argument is unrestricted.
318 However, we know exactly how many of the function we need. It will simply be the same as the
319 number of arguments.
320 So, we define another function, app, which has the type  $\text{app} : (f : M n (t \rightarrow_1 u) w_f) \rightarrow_1 (x : M n t w_x) \rightarrow_1 M$ 
321 and a definition given at ??.
322 Notably, if we define a function  $\text{genMu} : (x : !_* t) \rightarrow_1 \forall (n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 M n t x.\text{unrestricted}$ , which
323 is simply defined as  $\text{genMu}(\text{MkBang}_0) := \diamond$  and  $\text{genMu}(\text{MkBang}_x)(S_n) := (x \odot (\text{genMu}(\text{MkBang}_x)))$ ,
324 we can define map as  $\text{map}\{n\}fx := \text{app}(\text{genMu}fn)x$ .
325
326 3.5 Applicative Mu
327 We can use app to derive equivalents of the push and pull methods of Granule, in a simi-
328 lar way to how we can use <*> to define mappings over pairs. In Idris, we define  $\text{push} : M n (t \times_1 u) (w_0 *_{1'} w_1) \rightarrow_1 M n t w_0 \times_1 M n u w_1$  and  $\text{pull} : M n t w_0 \times_1 M n u w_1 \rightarrow_1 M n (t \times_1 u) (w_0 *_{1'} w_1)$ .
329
330 However, while not having a very interesting implementation, it does allow something very
331 interesting to be stated, that morphisms on  $M$  types are internal to  $M$ . That is, we don't need to use
332 an  $\omega$  binding to model functions on  $M$ , we can instead just use  $M$  types themselves. This is very
333 important: we can model linear mapping as a linear map.
334
335 3.6 Infinite Co-Mu
336 We also define a coinductive version of mu that works with conatural numbers (as opposed to just
337 natural numbers). While these "co-mu" types are a extension of mu types, they are much more
338 difficult to work with. This is because matching on them no longer involves matching on the result
339 of a constructor MS, but rather on the result of a function.
340 To make these slightly easier to work with, we define functions from these CMu types and Mu
341 types, as to allow us to re-use the same functions for CMu. Need code
342
343

```

Listing 5. Definition of `map` and `app`
 This
isn't
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actly
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rect

Expose

344 **4 Resource Algebras as Types**

345 In many programming languages, algebras are used as a supplement to the type system to model
 346 various concepts. Among these, Granule uses a resource algebra to model multiplicity [12]. However,
 347 a number of libraries in Haskell use the type system itself to model algebras Need citation
 348

349 It stands to reason then that it should be possible, with mu types and Idris' rich type system, to
 350 model the resource algebras of Granule. We propose that this is indeed possible with a definition of
 351 Form' types.

352

353 **4.1 Formula Language**

354 **Definition 4.1.** Form' is a polymorphic type indexed by a \mathbb{N} . We also define a function, $\text{Eval}' : \text{Form}'n \rightarrow_1 \text{QVectn} \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. Further, we define a function $\text{Solve}' : \text{Form}'n \rightarrow_1 \mathbb{N} \rightarrow_1 *$, which is defined as $\text{Solve}'\phi x := \exists_1(x : \text{Form}'n) \text{Eval}'\phi x =? y$. In addition, we define $\text{Unify}'\phi\psi := \forall(n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \text{Solve}'n\phi$ —

355

356 We will write $x \in \phi$ or $\phi \ni x$ for $\text{Solve}'\phi x$, and $\phi \subseteq \psi$ $\psi \supseteq \phi$ for $\text{Unify}'\phi\psi$. Notably, this means
 357 that $\phi \subseteq \psi := \forall(n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \phi \ni n \rightarrow \psi \ni n$. This allows us to consider formulas as “sets” of natural
 358 numbers, those being all their possible outputs. We then say that a given number is “in” the formula
 359 if it is possible for it to be output, and a subset if every “element” is in the superset. We define the
 360 interpretation of each constructor of Form' based off its branch of Eval'

361 Need proof

362 This means that Form' forms a category on \subseteq

363 **4.2 The Core Formulas**

364 Out of six total constructors of formulas, four of them are binary constructors modeling addition,
 365 multiplication, joins and meets, while the other two model the basic notion of “variable” and
 366 “constant” in a formula.

367 These last two we will discuss first. The first of these is FVar' , which has the type $\text{Form}'1$. It
 368 models the notion of a singular variable in the formula. It evaluates as $\text{Eval}'\text{FVar}'[x] := x$, notably,
 369 however, this is the only branch, as the only possible index that FVar' can produce is 1.

370 Of all the formulas, FVar' is the most general. That is to say, it is the terminal object in the
 371 category of Form' .

372 Need proof

373 The next of these, FVal' , models the notion of “constants” in formulas. It has the form $\text{FVal}' : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow_1 \text{Form}'0$, and has the evaluation of $\text{Eval}'(\text{FVal}'n)[] := n$

374

375 **4.3 The Binary Constructors**

376 The remaining constructors of $\text{Form}'n$ all have the exact same form, that of $\forall(a : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall(b : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_0 \text{Form}'a \rightarrow_1 \text{Form}'b$. They are FAdd' , FMul' , FMax' , FMin' , which model addition multiplication joins and meets. The
 377 branch of $\text{Eval}' \text{FAdd}' p q n$ is as follows:

378 Need code

379 The other branches are defined similarly, simply switching out the operation of addition for
 380 whatever operation is appropriate.

381 One of the important facts about all of these constructors is that they operate on two formulas
 382 *Independently*. That is, if $y \in \phi$ and $z \in \psi$, then it must also be true that $(y + z) \in (\text{FAdd}'\phi\psi)$, and
 383 similarly for all the others. So, we can reason about both parts of this completely independently,
 384 which will be useful for creating a decision procedure of Solve' .

385

386

387

388

389

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391

392

393 **4.4 Abstract Forms**

394 Almost all of the reasoning we do about Form' is about their outputs, but *not* their inputs. Because
 395 of this, it would be useful to be able to define an abstract Form, that is nullary and instead abstracts
 396 existentially over the \mathbb{N} indice. We define it as

397

398 **4.5 Decidability of Solutions**

399

400 One of the most important properties of the algebra that we have defined here is that is provably
 401 decidable, that is, everything can be determined to be a solution of a formula or a contradiction of
 402 such by a terminating function.

403

We prove each part individually

404

405 **Lemma 4.2.** $x \in FVal' n$ is decidable

406

407 PROOF. This boils down to $\exists_1(y : \mathbb{N})(x =_? n)$, and, as equality of \mathbb{N} is decidable, is itself decidable

408

409

410 Likewise, variable are also decidable

411

412 **Lemma 4.3.** $x \in FVar' n$ is decidable

413

414 PROOF. This boils down to $\exists_1(y : \mathbb{N})x =_? y$, which is trivially true (x, x)

415

416

417

418

5 Omega Types

419 While mu types allowed us to generalize linear quantities to graded ones, we have a construction, Ω ,
 420 that generalizes mu types to arbitrary formulas. We do this by specifying a quantity formula for the
 421 type, rather than a specific quantity.

422

423 **Definition 5.1** (Omega definition). Ω is a type indexed on a Form, a type, and a witness of that
 424 type such that $\Omega p t w := (n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall n \in p \Rightarrow_0 M n t w$

425

426 That is, it maps a number that satisfies the property of being a solution to a formula to that many
 427 bindings of that value.

428

429

5.1 Basic Properties

430 One of the most significant properties of Ω is that it can be “weakened”. That is, if a given
 431 formula p is “in” q , then there exists a function from $\Omega q t w$ to $\Omega p t w$, which we call weaken.
 432 The reason that this must exist is apparent upon expanding the types, whence we get weaken :
 433 $\forall p \subseteq q \Rightarrow_0 ((m : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall m \in q \Rightarrow_0 M m t w) \rightarrow_1 ((n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall n \in p \Rightarrow_0 M n t w)$, which is trivial

434

435

5.2 Operations on Omega

436

5.3 Completeness and Uniqueness of Omega

437 There are two very important facts about omega types, specifically with reference to mu types.
 438 Namely, they both revolve around the idea that omega types can serve as an exact model for mu
 439 types. The first of these is the fact that for all $M n t w$, there is a linearly isomorphic Ω
 440

441

Add
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442 **5.4 Infinite Lazy Copies**

443 **6 Exponential Types**

444 **6.1 Exponential Types as Graded Values**

446 **6.2 Operations on Exponential Types**

447 **6.3 The type of Strings Squared**

448 **6.4 Inverting Types**

449 **7 Using Mu and Friends**

450 **7.1 Sources and Factories**

452 **8 Conclusion**

453 **Related Work**

454 *GrTT and QTT.* While QTT, in particular as described here, is quite useful, it of course has its
 455 limits. In particular, the work of languages like Granuleto create a generalized notion of this in
 456 a way that can easily be inferred and checked is important. However, in terms of QTT (or even
 457 systems outside it) this is far from complete.

458
 459 *The Syntax.* For instance, even with the \wedge types, the syntax for this, and more generally linearity
 460 in general, tends to be a bit hard to use. A question of how to integrate into the source syntax
 461 would be quite interesting. Also, in general, one of the advantages of making an algebra part of the
 462 core language itself (as opposed to a construction on top of it) is that it makes it easier to create an
 463 inference engine for that language..

464
 465 *Bump Allocation.* QTT has been discussed as a potential theoretical model for ownership systems.
 466 One of the more useful constructs in such a system is bump allocation. With particular use seen in
 467 compilers, bump arena allocation, where memory is pre-allocated per phase, helps both separate
 468 and simplify memory usage. It is possible that a usage of M types (given the fact that we know
 469 exactly how many times we need a value) as a form of modeling of arena allocation might be useful.

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473
 474 **Artifacts**

475 All Idris code mentioned here is either directly from or derived from the code in the Idris library
 476 `idris-mult`, which may be found at its repository⁵

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