

Graded Modalities as Linear Types

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

Todo list

Update everything	1
Finish this	2
Segway into proof	4
Finish proof	5
Fix the alignment of these	6
Add something on metalogical interpretation	6
This isn't exactly correct	7
Expose	7
Need proof	8
Notation	8
Proof	9
Proof	10

1 Introduction

One of the more interesting developments in Programming Language Theory is Quantitative Type Theory, or QTT. Based off Girard's linear logic, it forms the basis of the core syntax of Idris 2's core language, and also as a starting point for that of Linear Haskell [4, 2, 7, 1]. It has many theoretical applications, including creating a more concrete interpretation of the concept of a "real world", constraining memory usage, and allowing for safer foreign interfaces Need citation. Apart from just the theoretical insert, QTT has the potential to serve as an underlying logic for languages like Rust, where reasoning about resources takes the forefront.

However, new developments in Graded Modal Type Theory (GrTT), in particular with Granule, serve to create a finer grained¹ notion of usage than QTT. In GrTT, any natural number may serve as a usage, and in some cases even things that are first glance not natural numbers. GrTT is part of a larger trend of "types with algebras" being used to create inferable, simple, and intuitive systems for models of various things. Of these, some of the more notable ones are Koka, Effekt, and Flix, all of which seek to model effects with algebras [9, 3, 8].

¹Hence the name

$$\frac{\Gamma, (x : t), (y : t), x =_? y \vdash (pxy)}{\Gamma, (z : t) \vdash (pzz)} \text{Copy}$$

Fig. 1. The copy rule

2 Background

2.1 Copying Linear Values

Girard’s original linear logic has one very large problem², the fact that there is no way to “duplicate” premises [7]. While this seems like a non-issue, there are some cases where this is completely inadmissible. For instance, consider the natural numbers. Using only the logic, it is impossible to define multiplication on two simple linear natural numbers.

This is because if we define multiplication as $0 * n = 0$ and $(Sm) * n = (m * n) + n$, this will, unless $m = 1$, have more (or less) than one usage of n . That is, we cannot ensure that we can use the variable multiple times. Most interestingly, however, is that this models something important: the cloning of memory. In a language like Rust (excluding the fact that numbers are Copy) we can’t use a value arbitrary many times.

However, unlike Rust, we cannot have a simple Clone trait. This is because Clone has a side effect: it has to be in a region (which is equivalent to having an effect) [9]. In addition, we wouldn’t be able to perform equality reflection on the values.

Definition 2.1 (Copying Values). Copy is an interface, indexed on a type, t , such that there is a function $\text{copy} : (f : ((x : t) \rightarrow_1 (y : t) \rightarrow_1 (pxy))) \rightarrow_1 (z : t) \rightarrow_1 (pzz)$

In other words, take a function that requires two of the same value, and then just use the same value twice, noting its equality

We also have a much simpler drop trait (whose name is also taken from Rust) which given a value destroys it. In Idris, this just means it pattern matches against it, returning no useful operation, which can be represented by the existence of a function $\text{drop} : (x : t) \rightarrow_1 \top$. For instance, we can define $\text{Drop}(x = y)$, because there is only one possible constructor, Ref1 .

Most values are *both* copyable and dropable. Any datatype (or product or sum type) will be dropable if all their components are, and the same for copyable. The only two notable things that are not dropable or copyable are

- Type, as we cannot construct every possible case
- Functions, as this would require a way to “use” a function, which is not in general possible ($\perp - > \alpha$)

Cloning. In practice, however, this definition can be quite difficult to work with

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 successor function. However, this is not the case, rather, Idris by default has it so that data constructor arguments are unrestricted by default. This is very

²for usage as a language

```

99 data QNat : Type where
100   Zero : QNat
101   Succ : (1 k : QNat) -> QNat

```

Listing 1. Definition of linear natural numbers

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.

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`.

Theorem 2.2 (Finite Initial). *There is a finite list of all the inhabitants of $\sum_{n:\mathbb{N}}^1 (n \leq v)$, where $z : \mathbb{N}$*

PROOF. TODO □

2.3 Dependent Pairs

As is common, in Idris, existentials are modeled as a dependent pair [13] [12]. With Idris, however, there is an extra portion to this. Specifically, we can also change the multiplicity of the first and second element of the pair. In addition, we can chose to make these linear, unrestricted, or erased. Because one of the central goals of this is to create a system that does not use unrestricted bindings, we focus only on the linear and erased possibilities.

The possible combinations, and their names in Idris, as well as their constructors, are given

		0	1
below	0	Σ^1 , Sigma, For	\exists^1 , Exists, Given
	1	Σ^0 , Subset, Elem	Σ^1 , Sigma, For

We write all of these with the same “typebind” shorthand, which, when binding application is added, will allow the above to be written as `For(x : N)|(x =? x)`, for instance [14].

Each of these has different parts of the pair being “inspected”. In an existential statement, we don't care about the scrutinee, so that is irrelevant. `Subset`, with its notion of refinement types, doesn't particularly care about the second elements proof, only that it exists. Finally, Σ represents the “traditional” dependent pair, where we (might) care about both elements, and so both of them are linear.

Note that because of the nature of erased bindings, there isn't a difference between a type that has only erased at runtime and an bindings that is 0, so Σ^1 models both the linear and erased pair.

2.4 Notable Categories

In Haskell, it is common to refer to the category encompassing all of Haskell as `Hask`. Here, we do a similar thing, exact for the category of Idris 2 types with functions as morphisms, we call `Idr`. In addition, for the category of Idris 2 types with linear functions as morphisms, we write `Idr1`.

```

148 data Mu : (n : QNat) -> (t : Type) -> (w : t) -> Type where
149   MZ :
150       Mu 0 t w
151   MS :
152       (1 w : t) ->
153       (1 xs : Mu n t w) ->
154       Mu (Succ n) t w

```

Listing 2. The definition of M in Idris

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 2.

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 , \boxtimes MZ, and \odot , MS, Which have the signatures $\boxtimes : \mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w$ and $\odot : (w : t) \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} \ (\text{Succ } n) \ t \ w$

Firstly, it should be noted that the names were chosen due to the fact that the indices of them are related. That is, \boxtimes 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. $\mathcal{M} \ 0 \ t \ w$ can only be constructed by \boxtimes .

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 $x : \mathcal{M} \ 2 \ \text{String} \ \text{"value"}$, we can only construct this through \odot , an 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 $\mathcal{M} \ 1 \ \text{String} \ \text{"value"}$, which we then repeat one more time and get another “value” an finally we match $\mathcal{M} \ 0 \ \text{String} \ \text{"value"}$ and get that we must have \boxtimes .

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

The w index or “witness” is the value being copied. Notably, if we remove the w index, we would have $\boxtimes : Mnt$, 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. One important fact about \mathcal{M} is we can always “lower” a unrestricted value into \mathcal{M} . That is, there is a function $\text{gen} : (w : t) \rightarrow_{\omega} \mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w$. Unfourtanetly, because Idris dosen’t have a way to “thread” together infinite linear values to get an unrestricted one, the inverse of this does not exist.

There are two very basic functions that bear mention with respect to M . The first of these is witness, which is of the form $\text{witness} :_0 \forall (w : t) \rightarrow_0 \mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w \rightarrow t$. 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 $\text{drop} : \mathcal{M} \ 0 \ t \ w \rightarrow \top$, which allows us to drop a value. Its signature is simple $\text{drop}\boxtimes := ()$.

```

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

```

Listing 3. Proof of 3.5 in Idris

Finally, we have $\text{once} : \mathcal{M} \ 1 \ t \ w \rightarrow_1 t$, where we have $\text{once}(x \odot \boxtimes) := x$

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 $\mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w$, so long as that type is well formed.

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

PROOF. Induct on n , the first case, $\mathcal{M} \ 0 \ t \ w$, contains zero applications of \odot , as it is \boxtimes . The second one splits has $x : \mathcal{M} \ (S n') \ t \ w$, and we can destruct on the only possible constructor of M for S , \odot , and get $y :_1 t$ and $z :_1 \mathcal{M} \ n' \ t \ w$ 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 $S n'$ \square

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 $\mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w$, then $x =_? y$.

PROOF. Induct on n .

- The first case, where x and y are both $\mathcal{M} \ 0 \ t \ w$, is trivial because, as per 3.3 they both must be \boxtimes
- The inductive case, where, from the fact that for any a and b (both of $\mathcal{M} \ n' \ t \ w$) we have $a =_? b$, we prove that we have, for x and y of $\mathcal{M} \ (S n') \ t \ w$ that $x =_? y$. We note that we can destruct both of these, with $x_1 : \mathcal{M} \ n' \ t \ w$ and $y_1 : \mathcal{M} \ n' \ t \ w$, 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 $\mathcal{M} \ n' \ t \ w$ has the above property, which is the induction hypothesis. \square

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 $\mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w$ is well-formed, then it must have exactly one inhabitant.

 Segway
into
proof

 Finish
proof

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \alpha}{\Gamma, [w] : [t]_0 \vdash \alpha} \text{Weak}$$

```

weak : (ctx -@ a) -@ ((LPair ctx (Mu 0 t w)) -@ a)
weak f (x # MZ) = f x

```

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

PROOF. We know by 3.5 that there is *at most* one inhabitant of $\mathcal{M} n t w$. We then induct on n to show that there must also exist *at least* one inhabitant of the type.

- The first case is that $\mathcal{M} 0 t w$ is always constructible, which is trivial, as this is just \Box .
- The second case, that $\mathcal{M} n' t w$ provides $\mathcal{M} (Sn') t w$ being constructible is also trivial, namely, if we have the construction on $\mathcal{M} n' t w$ 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 \mathcal{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.

One important derivation of this is that if $\mathcal{M} n t w$ is well formed, we can *always* construct an inhabitant of it.

Lemma 3.7 (Examples of Mu). *There is a erased function, Example : $\forall (n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_0 \forall (t : *) \rightarrow_0 \forall (w : t) \Rightarrow_0 \mathcal{M}$*

PROOF. This is a trivial corollary of 3.6 \square

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 [11]. It instead does this similarly to how others have embedded QTT in Agda [6, 5].

Namely, rather than viewing $\mathcal{M} n t w$ as the *type* $[t]_n$, we instead view it as the *judgment* $[w] : [t]_r$. 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 $\Gamma \vdash [x] : [a]_r$ is $\Gamma \vdash \phi : \mathcal{M} r a x$, 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 drop where the exact relationship is shown in ??.

Remark 3.8. 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.

The fact that these are equivalent becomes even more clear when we create \otimes , *split*, and *join* and *expand*, which are included in the definition of context concatenation and flattening in Granule [5].

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

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

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

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

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 $\otimes : \forall (m : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_0 \forall n \rightarrow_0 \mathbb{N}. \mathcal{M} \ m \ t \ w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} \ (m + n) \ t \ w$ 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 3.8, we can liken the function \otimes to context concatenation [11]. However, unlike Granule, we define this in the language itself. Per as a matter of fact, it isn't actually possible to construct \boxtimes in Granule, as it would require a way to reason about type level equality, which isn't possible [granule].

Lemma 3.9. \otimes is commutative³, that is, $x \otimes y =_? y \otimes x$.

PROOF. These types are the same, and by 3.6, they are equal. \square

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 $\mathcal{M} \ m \ t \ w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} \ (m + n) \ t \ w$. We actually use this a fair bit more than we use combine, as split doesn't impose any restrictions on the witness, which is very useful for when we discuss \wedge types.

In a similar manner to how we proved (in 3.9) the commutativity of \otimes , we can prove that these are inverses.

Lemma 3.10. Given that we have $f := \text{split}$, and $g := \text{uncurry}^1(\otimes)^4$, then f and g are inverses.

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

Need citation

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

Definition 3.11. We define $\text{join} : \mathcal{M} \ m \ (\mathcal{M} \ n \ t \ w) \ ?^5$. Its definition is like that of natural number multiplication, with it defined as follows:

$$\text{join} \boxtimes := \boxtimes$$

$$\text{join}(x_0 \odot x_1) := x_0 \otimes (\text{join} x_1)$$

This is equivalent to flattening of values, and bears the same name as the equivalent monadic operation, join. Just like \boxtimes had the inverse split, join has the inverse expand. Of these, expand is by far the most complex: the Idris definition of expand is nearly as long as the other three combined. Granted, most of this is just copying values and proofs that various values are equal to each other, but still, this is incredibly long

³You can also prove associativity and related properties, the proof is the same

⁴Given that we have $\text{uncurry}^1 : (a \rightarrow_1 b \rightarrow_1 c) \rightarrow (a \times^1 b) \rightarrow_1 c$

⁵For simplicity, we infer the second witness

Fix the alignment of these

Add something on \rightarrow_1 meta-logical interpretation

Definition 3.12. We define $\text{expand} : \forall(m : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall(n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} m * n t w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} m \mathcal{M} n t w ?$, which essentially repeatedly applies split for the number of outer copies, each time splitting off n values, and then turning them into a \mathcal{M} .⁶

This serves as the inverse to context flattening, and, when discussing exponential types, is very roughly equivalent to numerical division. [**lin_distr**]

3.4 Applications over Mu

One of the most important operations possible operations on \mathcal{M} is map , which takes a given linear function $f : (x : t) \rightarrow_1(px)$ and maps it to a function that takes in a type of \mathcal{M} and returns a type on \mathcal{M} . This defines a “functor” from the category of linear functions on Idris types to the “category” of \mathcal{M} on its second and third argument. However, map will have a couple caveats:

- It will have the morphism be external to the linear category, as it will need to use them more than once.
- It has to map over *both* the type and the value inside \mathcal{M} .

Lemma 3.13 (Mapping Mu). *The is a function $\text{map} : (f : ((x : t) \rightarrow_1(px))) \rightarrow_\omega \mathcal{M} n t w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} n(pw)(fw)$*

PROOF. We define this by inducting over n .

The first of these cases, of the form $\text{map} : (f : ((x : t) \rightarrow_1(px))) \rightarrow_\omega \mathcal{M} 0 t w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} 0(pw)(fw)$, is trivial, as it is simply $f\Box := \Box$.

The second of these cases, of the form $\text{map} : (f : ((x : t) \rightarrow_1(px))) \rightarrow_\omega \mathcal{M} (Sn') t w \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} (Sn')(pw)(fw)$ must therefore have a left hand side that ultimately can be split into $x \odot y$, where $w : t$ linearly, and $y : \mathcal{M} n' t w$, also linearly. We can simply apply f to w to get $fw : pw$, and then on y recurse to get $\text{map} f y : \mathcal{M} n' pw fw$, which we call z . We then can simply combine these with \odot to get $x \odot \text{map} f y$, which has the desired type \square

This equivalent to the fact that we can lift linear functions to graded ones. However, one fact about this that isn’t quite satisfying is that we use an ω binding (of f), which we are trying to avoid. Indeed, we know exactly how many f we need: we apply it exactly n times, so we need exactly $n f$. It is for this reason that we construct app , which acts as the “internal” equivalent of map .

Lemma 3.14 (Applying Mu). *We can construct $\text{app} : \mathcal{M} n (t \rightarrow_1 u) w_f \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} n t w_x \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} n u (w_f w_x)$*

PROOF. This construction is essentially the same as 3.13, except now we also induct on the function, however, it is otherwise the exact same. \square

We can actually derive map from app and gen , simply as $\text{map} f x := \text{app}(\text{gen} f) x$. This is important: ultimately, we can redefine map as a simple variation on app that first moves everything into \mathcal{M} and then reasons about it. We could, of course, have done the same thing in reverse, first reasoning about app as map , but this duality is significant for the usage of \mathcal{M} : we don’t need to “go outside” this linear fragment to get function application.

3.5 Applicative Mu

We can use app to derive equivalents of the push and pull methods of Granule, in a similar way to how we can use $< * >$ to define mappings over pairs. In Idris, we define $\text{push} : \mathcal{M} n (t \times_1 u) (w_0 *_1 w_1) \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} n$ and $\text{pull} : \mathcal{M} n t w_0 \times_1 \mathcal{M} n u w_1 \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} n (t \times_1 u) (w_0 *_1 w_1)$.

⁶The Idris definition is found at `Data.Grade.Mu.Lemma`

3.6 Infinite Co-Mu

We also define a coinductive version of mu that works with conatural numbers (as opposed to just natural numbers). While these “co-mu” types are an extension of mu types, they are much more difficult to work with. This is because matching on them no longer involves matching on the result of a constructor MS, but rather on the result of a function.

To make these slightly easier to work with, we define functions from these CMu types and Mu types, as to allow us to re-use the same functions for CMu. Need code

4 Resource Algebras as Types

In many programming languages, algebras are used as a supplement to the type system to model various concepts [3] [8] [9]. Among these, Granule uses a resource algebra to model multiplicity [11]. However, a number of libraries in Haskell use the type system itself to model algebras

Need citation

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

4.1 Formula Language

Definition 4.1. Form’ is a polymorphic type indexed by a \mathbb{N} . We also define a function, $\text{Eval}' : \text{Form}'n \rightarrow_1 \text{QVectnN} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. 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 $\text{Unify}'\phi\psi := \forall(n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \text{Solve}'n\phi$

We will write $x \in \phi$ or $\phi \ni x$ for $\text{Solve}'\phi x$, and $\phi \subseteq \psi$ or $\psi \supseteq \phi$ for $\text{Unify}'\phi\psi$. Notably, this means 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 numbers, those being all their possible outputs. We then say that a given number is “in” the formula if it is possible for it to be output, and a subset if every “element” is in the superset. We define the interpretation of each constructor of Form’ based off its branch of Eval’

This means that Form’ forms a category on \subseteq

Need proof

4.2 The Core Formulas

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

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

Lemma 4.2. $\text{FVar}' \ni n$ is trivial.

PROOF. This expands to $\exists^1_{(x:\mathbb{N})} (\text{Eval}'\text{FVar}'x =? n)$, which, if we have (n, α) , where α is $\text{Eval}'\text{FVar}'n =?$, n , which is trivial. \square

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$

4.3 The Binary Constructors

The remaining constructor models the notion of “binary operations” on Form’. It allows us to create a very basic tree of quantity expressions, which, combined with FVal’ and FVar’, allow us to model literals, variables, and “applications” of either addition, multiplication, minimims and maximums to those formulas.

It makes use of a enumeration type, FOp, which are attached to each operation on two values.

Definition 4.3. We define $\text{FOp} = +|-|\text{min}|\text{max}$, and also define runOp that has the type $\text{op} \rightarrow_1 \mathbb{N} \rightarrow_1 \mathbb{N} \rightarrow_1 \mathbb{N}$, such that we map the operation in FOp to its corresponding two argument function

Notation

FApp' then takes that operations and applies it to two formulas. This allows us to create “quantity expressions”.

Definition 4.4. FApp' is of the type $\text{FApp}' : (\text{op} : \text{FOp}) \rightarrow_1 \forall (a : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall (b : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_0 \text{Form}' a \rightarrow_1 \text{Form}' b \rightarrow_1$

Need code

Note that we *add* the number of variables in the types, and the first number is linear, not erased. This has to do with the system of variables in Form': each variable can only occur once. While this does limit the power of Form', it also makes it substantially simplifies the solving of Form'.

This allows us to reason about formulas easily, because we know that each part of the formula can be solved independtly.

Lemma 4.5. If $\phi \ni x$, and $\psi \ni y$, then $\text{FApp}' \text{op} \phi \psi \ni (\text{runOp} \text{op})xy$.

While this dosen't look very intuitive, this is simply the fact that $\phi + \psi \ni x + y$ and so on.

Proof

PROOF. □

4.4 Abstract Forms

While so far we have been dealing with formulas with explicit numbers of variables. However, we almost never actually care about the inputs to a formula, we care only about the outputs. Neither $x \in \phi$ or $\phi \subseteq \psi$ is dependent on the type of the given formulas. So, rather than dealing with the “concrete” types, we instead deal with an abstract type, Form, which is a dependent linear pair of the form $\sum_{n:\mathbb{N}}^1 (\text{Form}' n)$.

We then apply equivalents to each operation that works on Form instead of Form' n , and there name is the respective operation, merely with the prime dropped from the end We also define Solve and Unify, which are defined likewise. Finally, we use the same notation for Form as Form' n , 5 for FVal 5, $\phi + \psi$ for FAdd $\phi \psi$, and $x \in \phi$ for Solve and $\phi \subseteq \psi$ for Unify $\phi \psi$.

Altogether, the formula language is as follows:

op	⊠	+
		*
		min
		max
Form	ϕ	⊠
		n
		Number
		—
		Variable
		$\phi \text{ op } \phi$
		Application

4.5 Decidability of Formulas

One of the reacons this specific set of formula types was chosen is that it allows for $\phi \ni n$ to be provably terminadably decidable for any formula and natural number. That is, their is a total function DecSolve from a formula and natural number to either $\phi \ni n$ or a proof that it is absurd

We prove this by case anaylisis and induction. Firstly, we have the two base cases:

Lemma 4.6. $\text{FVar}' \ni n$ is decidable.

PROOF. This reduces to $\exists_{(x:\mathbb{N})}^1 (\text{Eval}' \text{FVar}' x =_? n)$, which simply has $(n, \text{Ref1})$. □

Lemma 4.7. $FVal'v \ni n$ is decidable.

PROOF. This reduces to $\exists^1_{(x:\mathbb{N})} (Eval'FVal'vx =_? n)$, which further reduces to $\exists^1_{(x:\mathbb{N})} (v =_? n)$, and, as natural number equality is decidable, is decidable \square

There are 4 more inductive cases, one for each operation.

However, first, we must define the induction hypothesis. Because for each case they are exactly the same, we note them all here.

4.6 Formula Syntax Sugar

5 Omega Types

Omega types allow us to generalize mu types to bindings that have multiple possible values. For instances, in the Granule binding $x : t [2*c]$, the binding has a variable multiplicity given by the effect formula $2 * c$ [5]. This allows for Granule to have, say, a function `mapMaybe` which has the form $(a \rightarrow_1 b) \rightarrow_{0.1} (Maybe a) \rightarrow_1 (Maybe b)$.

Of course, this is just one example of many of the potential utility of such a system, perhaps the most interesting of which is modeling the idea of optional ownership. We propose Ω , which model such bindings of variable multiplicity using a continuations on the exact number of bindings

Ω types allow for bindings that have multiplicity polymorphism. The simplest example of this is a binding that may or may not be used. In Granule such bindings are created by allowing for effect formulas to serve as multiplicities

5.1 Extended Mu

Definition 5.1 (Omega types). Ω is an erased function that takes a `Form` as an argument, as well as a type, t , and a witness of t , which, altogether, has the signature $\Omega : Form \rightarrow (t : *) \rightarrow w \rightarrow *$. Its definition is $\Omega \phi t w := (n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall (n \in \phi) \Rightarrow_0 M n t w$

This is simplest understood by example.

The easiest form of this is $\Omega FVar t w$, which expands to the type $(n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall (n \in FVar) \Rightarrow_0 M n t w$. Per 4.2, this becomes simply $(n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \mathcal{M} n t w$. Thereby, this is simply a mapping from any number of bindings to that many bindings of the form $w : t$.

Another simple form of Ω is that where the formula is some `FVal`. This type, given that the specific number is m , expands to $(n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall (n \in FVal m) \Rightarrow_0 M n t w$. Because $FVar m \ni n$ only exists if $n =_? m$, we know that this will simply be equivalent to $\mathcal{M} m t w$.

Given that $\mathcal{M} n t w$ is unique, and given the fact that $\Omega \phi t w$ serves as a generalization of mu types, it stands to reason that $\Omega \phi t w$ is provably unique. This is partially true. Namely, this can be proven, but only by assuming η equivalence.

By using η , this is then a trivial corollary

Lemma 5.2 (Uniqueness of Omega). $\Omega \phi t w$ is unique.

PROOF. \square

5.2 Operations on Omega

Among the more important operations on Ω are mapping and weakening. Mapping generalizes the notion of mapping upon \mathcal{M} to those upon Ω . Just like \mathcal{M} , we can similarly map a simple unrestricted function over a Ω . We can, doing something similar to what we did in and create a derivation that uses a function in an omega multiplicity.

The other operation is very important, as it allows us to use these in practice. It is derived from a (slightly simplified) version of the \sqsubseteq rule presented in “Quantitative program reasoning with graded modal types”, as shown in .

expand_Ω : Ω p * q t w →₁ Ω p Ω q t w ?

expand_Ω :

(n₀ : ℕ) →₁ ∀(n₀ ∈ p * q) ⇒₀ M n₀ t w →₁ (n₁ : ℕ) →₁ ∀(n₁ ∈ p) ⇒₀ M n₁ (n₂ : ℕ) →₁ ∀(n₂ ∈ q) ⇒₀ M n₂

Its definition is ultimately given as follows:

Construction 5.3 (Restriction). *There is a value restrict, which, given a Ω φ t w and ψ ⊆ φ, then we have Ω ψ t w*

PROOF. We first expand the second argument to ∀(n : ℕ) →₁ (ψ ⊃ n →₁ φ ⊃ n), and the result and argument to (n₀ : ℕ) →₁ ∀(n₀ ∈ ψ) ⇒₀ M n₀ t w and (n₁ : ℕ) →₁ ∀(n₁ ∈ φ) ⇒₀ M n₁ t w, respectively. We can therein introduce n₁ and n₁ ⊃ φ, respectively, and are left with the goal $\mathcal{M} n_0 t w$. However, since we know that because of the property required that , and therefore, we can provide the goal. □

Given the fact that Ω attempts to generalize M, it stands to reason that each of the operations on \mathcal{M} have equivalents on Ω. This is, unfortunately, only partially true.

While we can create equivalents of combine and join, we *cannot* create the exact equivalents of split and can only create a specific version expand. The reason for this is that we cannot “split off” a certain number of values from a function. So, if we *did* have a function split_Ω : Ω p + q t w →₁ ∑_{Ω p t w}¹ Ω q t w, it would have to expand to split_Ω : (n₀ : ℕ) →₁ ∀(n₀ ∈ p + q) ⇒₀ M n₀ t w. We would need to know the total number of bindings n₀, but there is no guarantee that we will have n₁ and n₂ at the same time.

A similar problem exists with expand, where we have to solve for an arbitrary number of values.

The problem with split is irreparable: it is impossible for us to define a way to get “a couple values” out of Ω without also destroying it. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for expand. We can restrict this type of this to only having the form described in

These do have an implementation. Given the fact that most of it simply involves the usage of proofs of certain values existing, we omit here.

Using these, just as \mathcal{M} generalize the notion of specific multiplicities, Ω generalizes the notion of arbitrary multiplicities. However, unlike \mathcal{M} , Ω generalizes the notion of multiplicity polymorphism. So, for instance, we can have variables in a formula rather than just a specific form.

In this sense, Ω serves as a generalization of \mathcal{M} .

Lemma 5.4. Ω FVal n t w and $\mathcal{M} n t w$ are equivalent

PROOF. The first of these expands to (n' : ℕ) →₁ ∀(n' ∈ FVal n) ⇒₀ M n' t w, and, as per , this only has the solution of n' =? n, and therefore the function is a constant $\mathcal{M} n t w$ □

We can then generalize combine_Ω as a generalization of combine _{\mathcal{M}} , which itself is intended to model context concatenation. Indeed, it is perfectly valid to, as we did before, construct meta-logical equivalents of combine_Ω in Idris:

We can, as we can for \mathcal{M} , create equivalents of meta-logical context flattening and expanding using the Idris equivalents.

5.3 Infinite Lazy Copies

While Ω types can model some uses of unrestricted multiplicities, as noted before ??, there are some things, and in particular the splitting of values, that cannot. This is a large problem: for

definitions, we want to be able to get an arbitrary number of values without changing it. While we could introduce an infinite stream of values itself, which would allow us to *get* an infinite number of values, we then couldn't ever drop all the values, or, if it isn't Drop able, then we can't drop any of the values.

Despite this, we first start off by creating an infinite stream type that has only one co-constructor, $\text{Stream}t x$, which represents an *actually* infinite number of bindings of $x : t$. This by itself is somewhat useful, we can, by interleaving values, split it into two separate streams. The important fact about Stream , however, is that if t is droppable then $\text{Stream}t x$ is droppable. Now, not every type in general is droppable, so at first this doesn't seem that useful. But, we know that we can drop Ω , by merely producing exactly 0 bindings. So, if we define a datatype Source as $\text{Source}t x := \text{Stream}(\Omega \text{FVar}' t w)$, we can note that this type is droppable.

Taking a step back, this makes perfect sense. Streams are infinite sets of values, but each binding in this case is a variable (and potentially zero) number of bindings. So, we get $x + y + z \dots$ number of bindings, where x, y, z etc are all arbitrary natural numbers, which can fall onto any finite or infinite natural numbers, with a potentially infinite amount to spare.

This also has an interpretation physically. If one has an infinite supply of a resource, we can take as much or as little as we like by simply specifying the ones we want and then ignoring the rest.

6 Exponential Types

Linear exponential types have been noted previously to be equivalent to a certain number of bindings of a value. Indeed, this is why they are called *exponential* types, as, say, String^3 models $\text{String} \times \text{String} \times \text{String}$. Here, we construct Exp , which models exponential types using Ω types abstracted over their witness. This allows us to transform the Ω , which requires a witness of the value, to something more closely resembling the type of graded value *themselves*.

Definition 6.1 (Exponential Types). Exp is a type function indexed on a formula, ϕ , and type, t , with the definition of $\text{Exp}\phi t := \exists_{(w:t)}^1 (\Omega \phi t w)$.

We also, as the name suggests, employ a terse notation using the syntax sugar described for formulas earlier 4.6 to write these more expressively.

Notation 6.2. We write $t^\wedge \phi$, where ϕ is a formula-like object and t is a type for $\text{Exp}\phi t$, and, for an even simpler syntax, t^ϕ .

This syntax allows us to write, say t^2 for $\text{Exp}(\text{Given}0\text{FVal}'(S(S0)))t$, which is obviously much clearer⁷.

6.1 Exponential Types as Graded Values

Exponential types serve the primary purpose of modeling linear values, rather than the bindings of those values. So, for instance, the granule type $\text{String}[2]$ is modeled by String^2 . One of the most important facts about exponential types is that they are functorial over *both* their first and second arguments⁸.

Lemma 6.3. *Exponential types have a function* $\text{map}_{\text{Exp}2} : \forall(p : t \rightarrow_1 u) \rightarrow_0 (\forall(w_t : t) \rightarrow_0 \Omega \phi t w_t \rightarrow_1 \Omega \psi u ($

⁷Obviously, this example is a little bit ridiculous, as we already have, say, $2 =_? (S(S0))$, but it still is true that this is a more terse syntax

⁸With respect to \subseteq

⁹Note that when we want to disambiguate among \mathcal{M} and Ω and Exp types, we use a subscript to differentiate them

PROOF. For $\text{map}_{\text{Exp}_2} f x$, we have $\text{Given}(p x_1)(\text{map}_{\Omega} f x_2)$ □

Next, and slightly more interesting, is that over the second

Lemma 6.4. *Exponential types have a function $\text{map}_{\text{Exp}_1} : \forall(\phi \subseteq \psi) \Rightarrow_0 t^\phi \rightarrow_1 t^\psi$ (we call this weaken)*

Finish — PROOF. We simply have □

6.2 The type of Strings Squared

6.3 Inverting Types

7 Using Mu and Friends

7.1 Sources and Factories

8 Conclusion

Related Work

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

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

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

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Artifacts

All Idris code mentioned here is either directly from or derived from the code in the Idris library `idris-mult`, which may be found at its repository¹⁰

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¹⁰Some listings may be modified for readability

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$\text{expand}_\Omega : \Omega \, p * q \, t \, w \rightarrow_1 \Omega \, p \, \mathcal{M} \, q \, t \, w ? \text{expand}_\Omega : (n_0 : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow_1 \forall (n_0 \in p * q) \Rightarrow_0 M \, n_0 \, t \, w \rightarrow_1 (n_1 : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow$

$$\frac{\Gamma_0 \vdash x :_p t \quad \Gamma_1 \vdash x :_q t}{\Gamma_0, \Gamma_1 \vdash x :_{p+q} t} \text{Combine}$$

$\text{Icombine} : (\text{ctx0} \text{ -@ } \Omega \, p \, t \, w) \text{ -@ } (\text{ctx1} \text{ -@ } \Omega \, q \, t \, w) \text{ -@ } (\text{ctx0} \text{ -@ } \text{ctx1} \text{ -@ } \Omega \, (p + q) \, t \, w)$

Fig. 3. The meta-logical combine_Ω rule and its Idris 2 equivalent