

from a domain with a decidable equality theory. This appears to be a reasonable compromise that can make the expressive power of dependent types available to the programmer without sacrificing decidable and efficient type-checking.

7.3 Logical Frameworks

In the previous section, we illustrated how (linear) type theory could be used as the foundation of (linear) functional programming. The demands of a complete functional language and, in particular, the presence of data types and recursion makes it difficult to attain decidable type-checking. In this section we discuss another application of linear type theory as the foundation for a *logical framework*.

A logical framework is a meta-language for the specification and implementation of deductive systems. This includes applications in various logics and programming languages. For surveys of logical frameworks and their applications, see [Pfe96, BM01, Pfe01].

One of the most expressive current frameworks is LF [HHP93] which is based on a λ -calculus with dependent types. There are many elegant encodings of deductive systems in such a framework that can be found in the references above. However, there are also many systems occurring both in logic and programming languages, for which encodings are awkward. Examples are substructural logic (such as linear logic), calculi for concurrency (such as the π -calculus), or programming languages with state (such as Mini-ML with mutable references). Even for pure languages such as Haskell, some aspects of the operational semantics such as laziness and memoization are difficult to handle. This is because at a lower level of abstraction, the implementations of even the purest languages are essentially state-based.

In response to these shortcomings, a linear logical framework (LLF) has been developed [CP96, Cer96, CP98]. This framework solved some of the problems mentioned above. In particular, it allows natural encodings of systems with state. However, it did not succeed with respect to intrinsic notions of concurrency. We will try to give an intuitive explanation of why this is so after showing what the system looks like.

First, in a nutshell, the system LF. The syntax has the following form:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Types} & A & ::= a M_1 \dots M_n \mid \Pi x:A_1 \dots A_2 \\ \text{Objects} & M & ::= c \mid x \mid \lambda x:A. M \mid M_1 M_2 \end{array}$$

Here, a ranges over *type families* indexed by object M_i , c ranges over *object constants*. Unlike the functional language above, these are not declared by formation rules, introduction rules, and elimination rules. In fact, we must avoid additional introduction and elimination rules because the corresponding local reductions make the equational theory (and therefore type checking) difficult to manage.

Instead, all judgments will be *parametric* in these constants! They are declared in a *signature* Σ which is a global analogue of the context Γ . We need

kinds in order to classify type families.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Kinds } K & ::= \prod x_1:A_1 \dots \prod x_n:A_n. \text{ type} \\ \text{Signatures } \Sigma & ::= \cdot \mid \Sigma, a:K \mid \Sigma, c:A \end{aligned}$$

As a simple example, we consider a small imperative language. We distinguish expressions (which have a value, but no effect) from commands (which have an effect, but no value). Expressions are left unspecified, except that variables are allowed as expressions and that we must have boolean values **true** and **false**. In other words, our example is parametric in the language of expressions; the only requirements are that they cannot have an effect, and that they must allow variables. Commands are no-ops (**skip**), sequential composition ($C_1; C_2$), parallel composition ($C_1 \parallel C_2$), assignment ($x := e$) and the allocation of a new local variable (**new** $x:\tau. C$). We also have a conditional construct (**if** e **then** C_1 **else** C_2) and a loop **loop** $l. C$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Expression Types } \tau & ::= \mathbf{bool} \mid \dots \\ \text{Expressions } e & ::= x \mid \mathbf{true} \mid \mathbf{false} \mid \dots \\ \text{Commands } C & ::= \mathbf{skip} \mid C_1; C_2 \mid C_1 \parallel C_2 \mid x := e \mid \mathbf{new } x:\tau. C \\ & \quad \mid \mathbf{if } e \mathbf{ then } C_1 \mathbf{ else } C_2 \mid \mathbf{loop } l. C \end{aligned}$$

For the loop construct **loop** $l. C$, we introduce a label l with scope C . This label is considered a new command in C , where invoking l corresponds to a copy of the loop body. Thus executing **loop** $l. C$ reduces to executing $[\mathbf{loop } l. C/l]C$. Note that this only allows backwards jumps and does not model a general **goto**. Its semantics is also different from **goto** if it is not the “last” command in a loop (see Exercise ?? where you are also asked to model a **while**-loop using **loop**). The simplest infinite loop is **loop** $l. l$.

We now turn to the representation of syntax. We have a framework type **tp** representing object language types, and index expressions by their object language type. We show the representation function $\ulcorner \tau \urcorner$ and $\ulcorner e \urcorner$.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \ulcorner \mathbf{bool} \urcorner = \mathbf{bool} & \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{tp} \quad : \text{ type} \\ \mathbf{bool} \quad : \mathbf{tp} \\ \mathbf{var} \quad : \mathbf{tp} \rightarrow \text{ type} \\ \mathbf{exp} \quad : \mathbf{tp} \rightarrow \text{ type} \\ \mathbf{v} \quad : \forall t:\mathbf{tp}. \mathbf{var}(t) \rightarrow \mathbf{exp}(t) \end{array} \\ \ulcorner x \urcorner = \mathbf{v} \ulcorner \tau \urcorner x & \\ \ulcorner \mathbf{true} \urcorner = \mathbf{true} & \mathbf{true} \quad : \mathbf{exp}(\mathbf{bool}) \\ \ulcorner \mathbf{false} \urcorner = \mathbf{false} & \mathbf{false} \quad : \mathbf{exp}(\mathbf{bool}) \end{array}$$

One of the main points to note here is that variables of our imperative language are represented by variables in the framework. For the sake of convenience, we choose the same name for a variable and its representation. The type of such a variable in the framework will be $\mathbf{var}(\ulcorner \tau \urcorner)$ depending on its declared type. \mathbf{v} is the coercion from a variable of type τ to an expression of type τ . It has to be indexed by a type t , because it could be applied to an expression of any type.

Commands on the other hand do not return a value, so their type is not indexed. In order to maintain the idea the variables are represented by variables, binding constructs in the object language (namely **new** and **loop**) must be translated so they bind the corresponding variable in the meta-language. This idea is called *higher-order abstract syntax* [PE88], since the type of such constructs is generally of order 2 (the constructors **new** and **loop** take functions as arguments).

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\ulcorner \mathbf{skip} \urcorner & = \text{skip} \\
\ulcorner C_1; C_2 \urcorner & = \text{seq } \ulcorner C_1 \urcorner \ulcorner C_2 \urcorner \\
\ulcorner C_1 \parallel C_2 \urcorner & = \text{par } \ulcorner C_1 \urcorner \ulcorner C_2 \urcorner \\
\ulcorner x := e \urcorner & = \text{assign } \ulcorner \tau \urcorner x \ulcorner e \urcorner \text{ for } x \text{ and } e \text{ of type } \tau \\
\ulcorner \mathbf{new } x:\tau. C \urcorner & = \text{new } \ulcorner \tau \urcorner (\lambda x:\text{var}(\ulcorner \tau \urcorner). \ulcorner C \urcorner) \\
\ulcorner \mathbf{if } e \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2 \urcorner & = \text{if } \ulcorner e \urcorner \ulcorner C_1 \urcorner \ulcorner C_2 \urcorner \text{ for } e \text{ of type } \mathbf{bool} \\
\ulcorner \mathbf{loop } l. C \urcorner & = \text{loop } (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. \ulcorner C \urcorner)
\end{array}$$

In the declarations below, we see that **assign** and **new** need to be indexed by their type, and that a conditional command branches depending on a boolean expression. In that way only well-typed commands can be represented—others will be rejected as ill-typed in the framework.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\text{cmd} & : \text{type} \\
\text{skip} & : \text{cmd} \\
\text{seq} & : \text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd} \\
\text{par} & : \text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd} \\
\text{assign} & : \forall t:\text{tp}. \text{var}(t) \rightarrow \text{exp}(t) \rightarrow \text{cmd} \\
\text{new} & : \forall t:\text{tp}. (\text{var}(t) \rightarrow \text{cmd}) \rightarrow \text{cmd} \\
\text{if} & : \text{exp}(\mathbf{bool}) \rightarrow \text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd} \\
\text{loop} & : (\text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd}) \rightarrow \text{cmd}
\end{array}$$

So far, we have not needed linearity. Indeed, the declarations above are just a standard means of representing syntax in LF using the expressive power of dependent types for data representation.

Next we would like to represent the operational semantics in the style of encoding that we have used in this class before, beginning with expressions. We assume that for each variable x of type τ we have an affine assumption $x = v$ for a value v of type τ . In a context $x_1 = v_1, \dots, x_n = v_n$ all variables x_i must be distinct. In judgmental notation, our judgment would be $\Psi \vdash^\alpha e \hookrightarrow v$, where Ψ represents the store and \vdash^α is an affine hypothetical judgment. In our fragment it would be represented by only three rules

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{}{\Psi, x = v \vdash^\alpha x \hookrightarrow v} \text{ev_var} \\
\frac{}{\Psi \vdash^\alpha \mathbf{true} \hookrightarrow \mathbf{true}} \text{ev_true} \qquad \frac{}{\Psi \vdash^\alpha \mathbf{false} \hookrightarrow \mathbf{false}} \text{ev_false}
\end{array}$$

Since our framework is linear and not affine, we need to take care of eliminating unconsumed hypotheses. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \ulcorner x = v \urcorner &= \text{value } \ulcorner \tau \urcorner x \ulcorner v \urcorner \\ \ulcorner e \hookrightarrow v \urcorner &= \text{eval } \ulcorner \tau \urcorner \ulcorner e \urcorner \ulcorner t \urcorner \end{aligned}$$

Note that these will be represented as *type families* since judgments are represented as types and deductions as objects.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{value} &: \forall t:\text{tp}. \text{var}(t) \rightarrow \text{exp}(t) \rightarrow \text{type} \\ \text{eval} &: \forall t:\text{tp}. \text{exp}(t) \rightarrow \text{exp}(t) \rightarrow \text{type} \end{aligned}$$

Note that `value` and `eval` are both type families with dependent kinds, that is, the type of the second and third index objects depends on the first index object t in both cases. In the fragment we consider here, the evaluation rules are straightforward, although we have to take care to consume extraneous resources in the case of variable.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ev_true} &: \top \multimap \text{eval bool true true} \\ \text{ev_false} &: \top \multimap \text{eval bool false false} \\ \text{ev_var} &: \forall t:\text{tp}. \forall x:\text{var}(t). \forall v:\text{exp}(t). \forall e:\text{exp}(t). \\ &\quad \top \multimap \text{value } t x v \multimap \text{eval } t (v t x) v \end{aligned}$$

What did we need so far? We have used unrestricted implication and universal quantification, linear implication and additive truth. If we had a binary operator for expressions we would also need an additive conjunction so that the values of variables are accessible in both branches. Kinds and signatures change only to the extent that the types embedded in them change.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Kinds } K &::= \Pi x_1:A_1 \dots \Pi x_n:A_n. \text{type} \\ \text{Signatures } \Sigma &::= \cdot \mid \Sigma, a:K \mid c:A \\ \text{Types } A &::= a M_1 \dots M_n \mid \Pi x:A_1 \dots A_2 \\ &\quad \mid A_1 \multimap A_2 \mid A_1 \& A_2 \mid \top \\ \text{Objects } M &::= c \mid x \mid \lambda x:A. M \mid M_1 M_2 \\ &\quad \mid \hat{\lambda} x:A. M \mid M_1 \hat{\wedge} M_2 \\ &\quad \mid \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle \mid \text{fst } M \mid \text{snd } M \\ &\quad \mid \langle \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Note that in this fragment, uniform deductions are complete. Moreover, every term has a canonical form, which is a β -normal, η -long form. Canonical forms are defined as in Section 2.6 where the coercion from atomic to normal derivations is restricted to atomic propositions. This is important, because it allows a relatively simple algorithm for testing equality between objects, which is necessary because of the rule of type conversion in the type theory.

The appropriate notion of definitional equality here is then defined by the

rules for β -reduction and η -expansion.

$$\frac{\Gamma, x:A; \Delta \vdash M : B \quad \Gamma; \cdot \vdash N : A}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash (\lambda x:A. M) N = [N/x]M : [N/x]B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma; \Delta, u:A \vdash M : B \quad \Gamma; \Delta' \vdash N : A}{\Gamma; \Delta, \Delta' \vdash (\hat{\lambda}u:A. M) \hat{N} = [N/u]M : B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M_1 : A \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash M_2 : B}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash \text{fst} \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle = M_1 : A} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M_1 : A \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash M_2 : B}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash \text{snd} \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle = M_2 : B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M : \forall x:A. B}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M = \lambda x:A. M x : \forall x:A. B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M : A \multimap B}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M = \hat{\lambda}u:A. M \hat{u} : A \multimap B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M : A \& B}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M = \langle \text{fst} M, \text{snd} M \rangle : A \& B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M : \top}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash M = \langle \rangle : \top}$$

The remaining rules are reflexivity, symmetry, transitivity, and congruence rules for each constructors. It is by no means trivial that this kind of equality is decidable (see [CP98, VC00]). We would like to emphasize once again that in a dependent type theory, decidability of judgmental (definitional) equality is necessary to obtain a decidable type-checking problem.

Next we come to the specification of the operational semantics of commands. For this we give a natural specification in terms of two type families, $\text{exec } D C$ where D is a label for the command, and $\text{done } D$ which indicates that the command labeled D has finished. The labels here are not targets for jumps since they are not part of the program (see Exercise ??). Note that there are no constructors for labels—we will generate them as parameters during the execution.

```

lab  : type
exec : lab  $\rightarrow$  cmd  $\rightarrow$  type
done : lab  $\rightarrow$  type

```

According to our general strategy, $\text{exec } D C$ and $\text{done } D$ will be part of our linear hypothesis. Without giving a structural operational semantics, we present the rules for execution of commands directly in the type theory.

skip returns immediately.

$$\text{ex_skip} : \forall D:\text{lab. exec } D \text{ skip} \multimap \text{done } D$$

For sequential composition, we prevent execution of the second command until the first has finished.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ex_seq} : \forall D:\text{lab. } \forall C_1:\text{cmd. } \forall C_2:\text{cmd.} \\ \text{exec } D \text{ (seq } C_1 C_2) \\ \multimap (\exists d_1:\text{lab. exec } d_1 C_1 \otimes (\text{done } d_1 \multimap \text{exec } D C_2)) \end{aligned}$$

For parallel composition, both commands can proceed independently. The parallel composition is done, if both commands are finished. This is by no means the only choice of an operational semantics.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ex_par} : \forall D:\text{lab. } \forall C_1:\text{cmd. } \forall C_2:\text{cmd.} \\ \text{exec } D \text{ (par } C_1 C_2) \\ \multimap \exists d_1:\text{lab. } \exists d_2:\text{lab. exec } d_1 C_1 \otimes \text{exec } d_2 C_2 \\ \otimes (\text{done } d_1 \otimes \text{done } d_2 \multimap \text{done } D) \end{aligned}$$

For assignment, we need to consume the assumption $x = v'$ for the variable and assume the new value as $x = v$. We also want to allow assignment to an uninitialized variables, which is noted by an assumption $\text{uninit} \ulcorner \tau \urcorner x$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{uninit} : \forall t:\text{tp. var}(t) \rightarrow \text{type} \\ \text{ex_assign} : \forall D:\text{lab. } \forall T:\text{tp. } \forall X:\text{var}(T). \forall E:\text{exp}(T). \forall V:\text{exp}(T). \\ \text{exec } D \text{ (assign } T X E) \\ \multimap (\text{eval } T E V \multimap \mathbf{0}) \\ \oplus ((\text{uninit } T X \oplus \exists V':\text{exp}(T). \text{value } T X V') \\ \multimap \text{value } T X V \otimes \text{done } D) \end{aligned}$$

The new command creates a new, uninitialized variable.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ex_new} : \forall D:\text{lab. } \forall T:\text{tp. } \forall C:\text{var}(T) \rightarrow \text{cmd.} \\ \text{exec } D \text{ (new } T (\lambda x:\text{var}(T). C(x))) \\ \multimap \exists y:\text{var}(T). \text{uninit } T y \otimes \text{exec } D C(y) \end{aligned}$$

Note type of C , which depends on a variable x . In order to emphasize this point, we have created a variable y with a different name on the right-hand side. The ex_new constant will be applied to a (framework) function $(\lambda z:\text{var}(T). C')$ which is applied to x on the left-hand side and y on the right hand side. We then have

$$C(x) = (\lambda z:\text{var}(T). C') x = [x/z]C'$$

where the second equality is a *definitional equality* which follows by β -conversion. On the right-hand side have instead

$$C(y) = (\lambda z:\text{var}(T). C') y = [y/z]C',$$

again by β -conversion.

So here we take critical advantage of the rule of type conversion in order to construct our encoding.

We leave the straightforward rules for the conditional to Exercise ??.

For loops, we give two alternative formulations. The first take advantage of definitional equality in order to perform substitution, thereby unrolling the loop.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ex_loop} & : \forall D:\text{lab}. \forall C:\text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd} \\ & \quad \text{exec } D \text{ (loop } (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. C(l))) \\ & \quad \rightarrow \text{exec } D \text{ (} C \text{ (loop } (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. C(l)))) \end{aligned}$$

Assume the command has form $\text{loop } l. C'$. Then

$$\ulcorner \text{loop } l. C' \urcorner = \text{loop } (\lambda l:\text{lab}. \ulcorner C' \urcorner).$$

Then the framework variable C will be instantiated with

$$C = \lambda l:\text{cmd}. C'.$$

For the framework expression on the right-hand side we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & (C \text{ (loop } (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. C(l)))) \\ & = (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. C') \text{ (loop } (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. C(l))) \\ & = [(\text{loop } (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. C(l)) / l] C' \\ & = [\ulcorner \text{loop } l. C' \urcorner / l] \ulcorner C' \urcorner \\ & = \ulcorner [\text{loop } l. C' / l] C' \urcorner \end{aligned}$$

Here the last equation follows by *compositionality*: substitution commutes with representation. This is a consequence of the decision to represent object-language variables by meta-language variables and can lead to very concise encodings (just as in this case). It means we do not have to explicitly axiomatize substitution, but we can let the framework take care of it for us. Since formalizing substitution can be a significant effort, this is a major advantage of higher-order abstract syntax over other representation techniques.

We can also avoid explicit substitution, instead adding an linear hypothesis that captures how to jump back to the beginning of a loop more directly.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ex_loop}' & : \forall D:\text{lab}. \forall C:\text{cmd} \rightarrow \text{cmd} \\ & \quad \text{exec } D \text{ (loop } (\lambda l:\text{cmd}. C(l))) \\ & \quad \rightarrow \exists k:\text{cmd}. (\forall d:\text{lab}. \text{exec } d \ k \rightarrow \text{exec } d \ (C(k))) \\ & \quad \quad \otimes \text{exec } D \ (C(k)) \end{aligned}$$

This completes our specification of the operational semantics, which is at a very high level of abstraction. Unfortunately, the concurrency in the specification requires leaving the fragment we have discussed so far and including multiplicative conjunction and existential quantification, at least. As mentioned before, there is a translation back into the uniform fragment that preserves provability. This translation, however, does not preserve a natural notion of equality

on proofs, or a natural semantics in terms of logic program execution. It is a subject of current research to determine how concurrency can be introduced into the linear logical framework LLF in a way that preserves the right notion of equality.

So far, it seems we have not used the η -conversion. Our representation function is a bijection between syntactic categories of the object language and canonical forms of the representation type. Together with β -reduction, we need η -expansion to transform an arbitrary object to its canonical form. Without it we would have “exotic objects” that do not represent any expression in the language we are trying to model.

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