# The Recursive Polarized Dual Calculus 

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#### Abstract

This paper introduces the Recursive Polarized Dual Calculus (RPDC), based on Wadler's Dual Calculus. RP-DC features a polarized form of reduction, which enables several simplifications over previous related systems. It also adds inductive types with recursion, from which coinductive types with corecursion can be defined. Typing and reduction relations are defined for RP-DC, and we consider several examples of practical programming. Logical consistency is proved, as well as a canonicity theorem showing that all closed values of a certain family of types are canonical. This shows how RP-DC can be used for practical programming, where canonical final results are required.


Categories and Subject Descriptors D.3.1 [Programming Languages]: Formal Definitions and Theory; F.4.1 [Mathematical Logic]: Proof Theory

Keywords Dual Calculus; classical type theory; mixed induction/coinduction

## 1. Introduction

Starting with the seminal observation of Griffin [10], a number of authors have sought to develop type theories corresponding to classical logic, thus extending the well-known Curry-Howard isomorphism beyond intuitionistic logic. Among the most influential of such Computational Classical Type Theories (CCTTs) are those of Parigot, Curien and Herbelin, and Wadler [7, 16, 18]. This program has obvious theoretical appeal - to lift a connection that has been remarkably fruitful from intuitionistic to classical logic - as well as practical motivations:

1. Some natural forms of reasoning are simply not possible constructively. A beautiful example is given in a recent paper by Bezem, Nakata, and Uustalu [5], which shows, among other results, that various natural reasoning principles about infinite streams are equivalent to the Lesser Principle of Omniscience (an infinite stream of red/blue values is either all blue or contains a red value somewhere), which is not computationally

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realizable. For reasoning about general-recursive programs or computations on infinite streams, classical logic is needed in some cases. Therefore, type-theoretic support for classical reasoning is an important goal.
2. Most programming languages include some form of control operator, like exceptions or call/cc in Scheme, possibly in quite refined forms [8, 9]. Griffin's observation was that the types one naturally assigns to control operators like call/cc correspond to strictly classical validities. A type-theoretic view of classical logic promises to add support for control operators - a powerful idiom of practical programming - to type theory. We have the challenge of explaining how a language embracing the nonconstructivity of classical logic can still be suitable for programming (the paradigmatic informationally constructive activity).
3. The problem of combining induction and coinduction in a terminating type theory has received significant attention recently (e.g., [1, 4]). In some CCTTs, such as Wadler's Dual Calculus (DC) [18], the dualities of classical logic are clearly expressed in the type system. One can hope that the categorical duality between induction and coinduction could be expressed formally in such a system.

This paper proposes the Recursive Polarized Dual Calculus (RPDC), based on DC. RP-DC differs from DC on several design points. First, the core of the type theory is based just on conjunction and negation, with disjunction and implication defined as usual in terms of these, along with their term constructs. The reductions one would expect for the term constructs are derivable. For this, I found it necessary to add a polarity $p \in\{+,-\}$ to the reduction judgment $p t_{1} \bullet t_{2} \rightsquigarrow p^{\prime} t_{1}^{\prime} \bullet t_{2}^{\prime}$. RP-DC also uses a single polarized typing judgment $\Gamma \vdash t: p T$, rather than separate left and right judgments, as in DC. Another design goal is to pave the way for adding dependent types to the calculus, which is currently simply typed. This is done by adopting a different form $\iota x . t$, instead of $\iota_{1} t$ and $\iota_{2} t$, for terms which refute conjunctions.

RP-DC includes recursive types, and a term construct for recursion - additions already considered for DC by Kimura and Tatsuta [11]. But they take both $\mu$-types (inductive) and $\nu$-types (co-inductive) as primitive notions in their system $\mathrm{DC}_{\mu \nu}$. In contrast, RP-DC takes $\mu$-types as primitive, and defines $\nu X . T$ as $\neg(\mu X . \neg[\neg X / X] T)$. This definition is standard in propositional $\mu$-calculus [12]. The reduction rules for the recursor are much simpler in RP-DC than in $\mathrm{DC}_{\mu \nu}$, which rely on a complex meta-level function mono ${ }_{A, B, x . M}^{X \cdot C} N$ [11]. In RP-DC, the recursor uses an accumulator, and so is similar to continuation-passing style (wellknown to be as expressive as more flexible forms of recursion [3]).

This paper also resolves the tension between the constructive nature of programming with control operators, and the nonconstructive
character of classical logic. This is done first by identifying the locus of nonconstructivity in the failure, in general, of a property we can call canonicity. In the absence of control operators, typable closed normal forms are always values of certain canonical forms. Once control operators are added, however, canonicity is lost in general: some types are inhabited by closed normal forms which are not canonical in any obvious sense. The paper identifies a class of types containing the algebraic datatypes, for which a canonicity property does indeed hold. This is proved in Section 10

To summarize the main contributions of RP-DC:

1. Typing and reduction rules for standard type constructs are derivable from a logically minimal set consisting of conjunction and negation, thanks to a polarized form of the reduction relation.
2. Recursion receives a novel formulation that is significantly simpler than in previous work [11], from which corecursion can be defined.
3. Two major metatheoretic results are established: logical consistency, which says that not every type is inhabited; and a canonicity theorem.
The ultimate goal is to design and implement a dependent type theory corresponding to classical logic, with direct support for control operators, a natural dual formulation supporting mixed induction/co-induction, and an identified subset of types where canonicity holds. Such a system would support verification by classical reasoning for pure functional programs with control, using both inductive and coinductive types. No existing type-theoretic verification system provides all these features.

## 2. Syntax of RP-DC

The syntax of types is:

$$
\text { types } T::=X|\mu X . T| T \wedge T^{\prime} \mid \neg T
$$

The type constructs are type variables $X$, inductive types $\mu X . T$, conjunctions $T \wedge T^{\prime}$, and negations $\neg T$. The scope of $\mu$ is as far to the right as possible, and negation binds more tightly than conjunction. The typing rules will restrict the bodies $T$ of inductive types $\mu X . T$ to have only positive occurrences of $X$. In addition, we make the following definitions:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\perp & :=\mu X . X \\
\top & :=\neg \perp \\
T \vee T^{\prime} & :=\neg\left(\neg T \wedge \neg T^{\prime}\right) \\
T \rightarrow T^{\prime} & :=\neg\left(T \wedge \neg T^{\prime}\right) \\
\nu X . T & :=\neg \mu X . \neg[\neg X / X] T
\end{array}
$$

The reader can easily confirm that the definitions of disjunction and implication are classically valid under the usual semantics of classical propositional logic. In the previous systems by Wadler [18] and Kimura and Tatsuta [11], some of these types were taken as primitive. We will see definitions of their term constructs below.
The syntax of terms is:

$$
\text { terms } \begin{aligned}
t::= & x \mid \text { halt } T\left|\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)\right| \iota x . t|\operatorname{not} t| \\
& \delta x . t \cdot t^{\prime}|x[t]| \mathbf{r e c} x[y=t] \cdot t^{\prime} \mid
\end{aligned}
$$

The term halt $T$ represents a continuation for receiving the final result on computation. The term $\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)$ is pairing, for proving conjunctions, while $\iota x . t$ is for refuting conjunctions. The term not $t$ switches polarity from proving to refuting, and vice versa. The term $\delta x \cdot t \cdot t^{\prime}$ cuts a positive term $t$ (that is, one which is typable at positive polarity) against a negative one $t^{\prime}$. The remaining two
constructs are for recursion. The term $t$ in $\operatorname{rec} x[y=t] \cdot t^{\prime}$ is called the accumulator of the rec-term. It will play a role similar to accumulator arguments in standard functional programming. It is initialized to $t$ in $\operatorname{rec} x[y=t] \cdot t^{\prime}$, and then updated to $t^{\prime \prime}$ in recursive calls of the form $x\left[t^{\prime \prime}\right]$, which may occur in $t^{\prime}$. Note that $\delta$ and $\iota$ bind $x$ and rec binds $x$ and $y$. It is not standard to use $\delta$ as the binder in cut terms, but I prefer to reserve $\mu$ and $\nu$ for inductive and coinductive types, respectively. We give not higher parsing precedence than the other operators.

## 3. Typing

The form of typing judgment for RP-DC is $\Gamma \vdash t: p T$, where $p \in\{+,-\}$ is a polarity, and $\Gamma$ is a context, specified by:
contexts $\Gamma \quad::=\quad .|\Gamma, x: p T| \Gamma, x: p X \triangleright T$
Unlike in DC, we work with a single context, to the left of the turnstile, and explicitly keep track of polarities $p$ in assumptions $x: p T$. Positive polarity means the assumption is true, or computationally, producing data; while negative polarity means it is false, or computationally, consuming data. The second form of assumption, $x: p X \triangleright T$, is used for typing recursions (rec-terms). Both of these are said to declare $x$. We will see examples in Section 6 below.

In a judgment $\Gamma \vdash t: p T$, if $p$ is + the judgment is affirming $T$, and if the judgment holds we say $T$ is proved (in context $\Gamma$ ); and if $p$ is -, the judgment is denying $T$, and $T$ is refuted. Also, we will assume that variables bound in terms are implicitly renamed so that no context declares the same variable twice, and so that in any context of the form $\Gamma, x: p X \triangleright T, \Gamma^{\prime}$, context $\Gamma$ does not contain $X$. We write $\bar{p}$ for the opposite polarity from $p$ (i.e., the one which is not $p$ ).

The typing rules for RP-DC are given in Figure 1 . The Ax rule simply makes use of an assumption from the context, at the assumed polarity. AndPos is for proving a conjunction: one must prove both conjuncts separately. ANDNEG is for refuting a conjunction, by refuting the first conjunct, under an assumption $x$ that the second conjunct holds. This single rule is sufficient, since if in fact we can refute the first conjunct, then we can cut that refutation against the assumption $x$, to derive a contradiction (and hence prove the second conjunct). The Not rule says that to derive a negation $\neg T$ with polarity $p$, one must derive $T$ with the opposite polarity ( $\bar{p}$ ). The Cut rule says that to derive $T$ with polarity $p$, it suffices to assume $T$ with opposite polarity ( $\bar{p}$ ), and then derive a contradiction by separately proving and refuting the same type $T^{\prime}$. The construct halt $T$ is included to signal the final result of a computation. Since a priori we allow computations to produce final results of any type $T$, we allow halt $T$ to be typed negatively - which can be thought of as indicating that halt $T$ is an output port - for any type $T$. Later (Section 10), we will see how to restrict $T$ to ensure canonical final results.

The final three rules are for recursive types. The Mu rule is a standard folding rule for recursive types. The MuBar and RecCall rules work together to type rec-terms. MUBAR and MU use a helper judgment OccursOnly $+X T$ to express that the $\mu$-bound variable $X$ only occurs positively in the body $T$ of $\mu X$.T. This judgment is defined in Figure 2 The idea expressed by MUBAR is that to type $\operatorname{rec} x\left[y=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2}$, we must first assign some type $T^{\prime}$, with some polarity $p$, to the accumulator $t_{1}$. Then we check that the body $t_{2}$ of the recursor has type $T$ negatively, in an extended context. The type $T$ will in general contain the $\mu$-bound type variable $X$, so by saying that $t_{2}$ must have type $T$, we are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{\Gamma_{1}, x: p T, \Gamma_{2} \vdash x: p T} \quad \mathrm{Ax} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_{1}:+T_{1} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_{2}:+T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right):+T_{1} \wedge T_{2}} \quad \text { AndPos } \\
& \frac{\Gamma, x:+T_{1} \vdash t:-T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x . t:-T_{1} \wedge T_{2}} \quad \text { ANDNEG } \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash t: \bar{p} T}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{not} t: p \neg T} \quad \text { Not } \\
& \Gamma, x: \bar{p} T \vdash t_{1}:+T^{\prime} \\
& \frac{\Gamma, x: \bar{p} T \vdash t_{2}:-T^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x . t_{1} \cdot t_{2}: p T} \quad \text { CUT } \\
& \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text { halt } T:-T} \text { Halt } \\
& \text { OccursOnly }+X T \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash t:+[\mu X . T / X] T}{\Gamma \vdash t:+\mu X . T} \quad \mathrm{MU} \\
& \text { OccursOnly }+X T \\
& \Gamma \vdash t_{1}: p T^{\prime} \\
& \Gamma, x: p X \triangleright T^{\prime}, y: p T^{\prime} \vdash t_{2}:-T \\
& \Gamma \vdash \operatorname{rec} x\left[y=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2}:-\mu X . T \quad \text { MUBAR } \\
& \frac{x: p X \triangleright T^{\prime} \in \Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash t: p T^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash x[t]:-X} \quad \text { RECCALL }
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 1. Typing rules for RP-DC

| $\overline{\text { OccursOnly }+X X}$ | OccVar |
| :---: | :--- |
| OccursOnly $p X T_{1}$ |  |
| $\frac{\text { OccursOnly } p X T_{2}}{\text { OccursOnly } p X T_{1} \wedge T_{2}}$ | OccAnd |
| $\frac{\text { OccursOnly } \bar{p} X T}{\text { OccursOnly } p X \neg T}$ | OccNot |
| $\frac{\text { OccursOnly } p X T}{\text { OccursOnly } p X \mu X^{\prime} . T}$ | OccMu |

Figure 2. Definition of OccursOnly
saying that at certain positions in $t_{2}$, we must have terms of this unknown type $X$. The only way to form such terms is using the term construct $x[t]$ for recursive calls. This is where the extended context comes into play. MUBAR extends the context with a variable $y: p T^{\prime}$ referring to the current value of the accumulator, and an assumption $x: p X \triangleright T^{\prime}$. Then in the RecCall rule, we use such an assumption to assign type $X$ negatively to a recursive call $x[t]$, as long as $t$ is again a suitable value for the iterator (i.e., it must have type $T^{\prime}$ with polarity $p$ ). The idea of using type abstraction (here, the unknown type $X$ ) to restrict the form of recursion is due to Mendler (see Chapter 3 of [14]).

## 4. Reduction

The reduction judgment for RP-DC is $c \rightsquigarrow c^{\prime}$, where $c$ and $c^{\prime}$ are configurations of the form $p t_{1} \bullet t_{2}$. The intention is to reduce such a configuration $c$ when $t_{1}$ has type $T$ positively, and $t_{2}$ has type $T$ negatively, for some type $T$. Thus, a configuration can be viewed as a (signed) top-level cut, and we call $T$ the cut-type of the configuration. Note that reduction does not preserve the cut-type in general: when $c \rightsquigarrow c^{\prime}$, the cut-type of $c$ need not be the same $c^{\prime}$.

The intention is that to evaluate a term $t$ of type positive $T$ (that is, a term which has type $T$ with positive polarity), where that term does not contain any halt term, we will reduce the configuration $+t \bullet$ halt $T$. So halt $T$ is the final continuation for receiving a result.

We elect to make reduction deterministic, since full non-deterministic reduction is nonconfluent, due to the well-known peak where $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ are both cuts. We use the polarity $p \in\{+,-\}$ to control the reduction order of the next reduction step starting from $c$. The side of the configuration which the polarity indicates should be reduced to a value is called the active side of the configuration; the other side is the passive side. If $p$ is positive, we will not substitute a subterm of the left part of the configuration unless it is a value. If $p$ is negative, we impose a similar restriction before substituting subterms of the right part of the configuration. Reduction will proceed left to right in the case of pairs $\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)$. We define the structural terms:

$$
\text { structural } s::=\text { halt } T \mid \delta x . t \bullet t^{\prime}
$$

We also use $q$ as a meta-variable for terms which are not structural. The definition of values $v$ and nonvalues $n$ are given below (Section 4.1).
The reduction rules for RP-DC are given in Figure 3 in four groups. The first two rules in the figure (ANAAND and ANANOT) are called analysis rules: they break down compound structures that are cut against each other at the top level. The next five rules (ANDP1, AndP2, AndN, NotP, and NotN) we call marshalling rules. They shift parts of the term from the active side to the passive side, when the passive side is structural. Marshalling rules reveal cuts (i.e., $\delta$-terms) which should be reduced first for the active side to reach a value. The Nonvalue premise in the ANDN rule is defined in Figure 5, and discussed in detail below (Section 4.1). The next four rules are $\delta$-rules, specifying how a configuration involving a cut should be reduced. A value restriction is imposed there: if the passive side of the configuration is a cut, then the active side must be a value. Standard capture-avoiding substitution $[t / x] t^{\prime}$ is used here.
The final rule gives the reduction semantics for the recursor. The rule makes use of both the usual notion of substitution, and a special form $[t / x]_{\text {rec }} t^{\prime}$, defined in Figure 4 The crucial clause of Figure 4 is the last one, which updates the accumulator in a rec-term that is being substituted. We will see detailed examples of how this works below (Section 6).

We call a configuration $p t_{1} \bullet t_{2}$ irreducible iff for all configurations $c$, it is not the case that $p t_{1} \bullet t_{2} \rightsquigarrow c$.

### 4.1 Values and nonvalues

The notion of value $v$ which we require for purposes of canonicity is somewhat more complex than usual. We inductively define a relation Nonvalue $[\theta] t$, where $\theta$ is either a variable $x$ which restricts the application of the RaiseLa rule, or else !, meaning no restriction. The definition is in Figure 5 . The rules in the figure which are recursive always refer to a strict subterm of the term in

$$
\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t^{\prime \prime}
$$

```
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} x \equiv t^{\prime}\)
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} y \equiv y\) if \(x \not \equiv y\)
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right) \equiv\left(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t_{1},\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t_{2}\right)\)
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} \iota y . t \equiv \iota y .\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t\)
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} \operatorname{not} t \equiv \operatorname{not}\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t\)
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} \delta y . t_{1} \cdot t_{2} \equiv \delta y \cdot\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t_{1} \cdot\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t_{2}\)
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} \mathbf{r e c} x^{\prime}\left[y=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2} \equiv \operatorname{rec} x^{\prime}\left[y=\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t_{1}\right] .\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t_{2}\)
\(\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} y[t] \equiv y\left[\left[t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\text {rec }} t\right]\) if \(x \not \equiv y\)
\(\left[\operatorname{rec} x[y=t] \cdot t^{\prime} / x\right]_{\mathrm{rec}} x\left[t^{\prime \prime}\right] \equiv \operatorname{rec} x\left[y=t^{\prime \prime}\right] \cdot t^{\prime}\)
```

Figure 4. Special substitution for rec-terms
$\overline{p\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right) \bullet \iota x . t \rightsquigarrow p t_{1} \bullet \delta x . t_{2} \bullet t} \quad$ ANAAND
$\overline{p \operatorname{not} t \bullet \operatorname{not} t^{\prime} \rightsquigarrow \bar{p} t^{\prime} \bullet t} \quad$ ANANOT


$$
\begin{array}{ll}
p q \bullet \mathbf{r e c} x\left[y=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2} \rightsquigarrow & \text { REC } \\
p q \bullet\left[\operatorname{rec} x\left[y=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2} / x\right]_{\mathbf{r e c}}\left[t_{1} / y\right] t_{2} &
\end{array}
$$

Figure 3. Reduction rules for RP-DC, where $v$ denotes values, $n$ nonvalues, $s$ structural terms, and $q$ non-structural terms.
the conclusion. So it is decidable whether or not Nonvalue $[\theta] t$ holds, for any $t$. So we define the set of nonvalues $n$ as those terms for which Nonvalue [!] $n$ holds, and the set of values $v$ as those for which Nonvalue[!] $v$ does not hold. A positive characterization of values should be possible, but working it out is left for future work. Note that in the CCUT rule, I am writing $o$ as a meta-variable for constructor terms:

$$
\text { constructor terms o }::=\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right)|\iota x . t| \operatorname{not} t
$$

Now let us further consider the motivation for the definition of Nonvalue.

The marshalling rules are responsible for turning nonvalues in the active part of a configuration into values. On the one hand, we wish to expose redexes in those nonvalues, to reduce them to values. But because canonicity fails in RP-DC in general (see Section 10), we have to be careful to avoid nontermination when performing marshalling. For example, suppose we have a value $v$ which does not contain $y$ free. Then it is critical that we judge $\iota x . \delta y . x \cdot \operatorname{not} v$ to be a value, since otherwise we would get this reduction, where the first step is by ANDN:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -s \bullet \iota x . \delta y . x \cdot \operatorname{not} v \rightsquigarrow \\
& -(\delta z . s \cdot \iota x . z) \bullet \delta y .\left(\delta z . s \cdot \iota x . \delta x^{\prime} . x \cdot z\right) \cdot \operatorname{not} v \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\left(\delta z . s \cdot \iota x . \delta x^{\prime} . x \cdot z\right) \bullet \operatorname{not} v \rightsquigarrow \\
& -s \bullet \iota x . \delta x^{\prime} . x \cdot \operatorname{not} v
\end{aligned}
$$

The final configuration is $\alpha$-equivalent to the first one, so we would diverge. But with the definition of Figure [5] we will not be able to derive Nonvalue [!] $\iota x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot \operatorname{not} v$, because of the restriction in the RaiseLa rule. So we will consider it a value, and hence not perform any marshalling reduction for it.

A few final notes on values. It may seem strange to define the recursor as a value. We will certainly use it to consume inductive data, where it would not matter if we viewed it as a value. But we can also view the recursor as a finitary representation of coinductive data, and there we need to view it as a value to avoid unfolding it infinitely. Also, unlike in DC, we only consider not-term of the form not $v$ to be values, as opposed (in DC) to not $t$. This allows us to give the expected reduction semantics for terms of defined types like disjunctions and implications (see Section 5 below).

## 5. Defined Propositional Types

Let us see how propositional types and their term constructs can be defined in RP-DC, and how the expected typings and reductions hold for them.


Figure 5. Specifying which terms are nonvalues. The metavariable $o$ in CCuT ranges over terms of the form $\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right), \iota x . t$, or not $t$.

### 5.1 Disjunction

Recall that in Section 2 , we defined the type $T_{1} \vee T_{2}$ to be $\neg\left(\neg T_{1} \wedge\right.$ $\neg T_{2}$ ). Term constructs for disjunctions can be defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{i n}_{1} t:=\boldsymbol{n o t} \iota x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot \boldsymbol{n o t} t \\
& \operatorname{in}_{2} t:=\operatorname{not} \iota x \cdot \operatorname{not} t \\
& {\left[t, t^{\prime}\right]:=\boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }}\left(\boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} t_{1}, \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} t_{2}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

We assume that variables are renamed to avoid capture, so in particular, $x$ and $y$ are not free in $t$ in the first two definitions. Those first two term constructs are called injections, and the last is for copairs. They can be typed with the derivations in Figure 6 where $\Gamma^{\prime}$ abbreviates $\Gamma, x:+\neg T_{1}, y:+\neg T_{2}$. The top-most inference in the first two derivations is by an admissible weakening rule.

We have the (derived) analytic reductions of Figure 7 to reduce top-level cuts involving these constructs for disjunction. There are also marshalling reductions, such as the example shown in Figure 8 There, we see a situation where we have a nonvalue $n$ for the body of an injection $\mathrm{in}_{1} n$, where that injection is the active term of a configuration. Reduction will raise $n$ to be the active term of the configuration, thus exposing it to reduction before proceeding with a computation involving the injection. There are similar

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\frac{\Gamma \vdash t:+T_{1}}{\Gamma^{\prime} \vdash t:+T_{1}}}{\frac{\Gamma, x:+\neg T_{1}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{Lot} t:-\neg T_{1}}} \frac{\frac{\Gamma \vdash \iota x \cdot \delta y \cdot x \cdot \operatorname{not} t:-\neg T_{1} \wedge \neg T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{in}_{1} t:+T_{1} \vee T_{2}}}{\frac{\Gamma \vdash t:+T_{2}}{\Gamma \cdot \operatorname{lot} t:-\neg T_{2}}} \\
\frac{\frac{\Gamma, x:+\neg T_{1} \vdash \operatorname{not} t:-\neg T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x \cdot \operatorname{not} t:-\neg T_{1} \wedge \neg T_{2}}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{in}_{2} t:+T_{1} \vee T_{2}} \\
\frac{\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_{1}:-T_{1}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{not} t_{1}:+\neg T_{1}} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_{2}:-T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{not} t_{2}:+\neg T_{2}}}{\frac{\Gamma \vdash\left(\operatorname{not} t_{1}, \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t } t _ { 2 } ) : + \neg T _ { 1 } \wedge \neg T _ { 2 }}\right.}{\Gamma \vdash\left[t_{1}, t_{2}\right]:-T_{1} \vee T_{2}}}
\end{gathered}
$$

Figure 6. Typing derivations for disjunction, where $\Gamma^{\prime}$ abbreviates $\Gamma, x:+\neg T_{1}, y:+\neg T_{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\mathbf{i n}_{1} t \bullet\left[t_{1}, t_{2}\right] \equiv \\
& +\operatorname{not} \iota x . \delta y . x \cdot \operatorname{not} t \bullet \operatorname{not}\left(\boldsymbol{n o t} t_{1}, \operatorname{not} t_{2}\right) \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\left(\operatorname{not} t_{1}, \boldsymbol{n o t} t_{2}\right) \bullet \iota x . \delta y . x \cdot \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\operatorname{not} t_{1} \bullet \delta x . \operatorname{not} t_{2} \cdot \delta y \cdot x \cdot \operatorname{not} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\operatorname{not} t_{2} \bullet \delta y . \operatorname{not} t_{1} \cdot \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\operatorname{not} t_{1} \bullet \operatorname{not} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& +t \bullet t_{1} \\
& +\mathbf{i n}_{2} t \bullet\left[t_{1}, t_{2}\right] \equiv \\
& +\operatorname{not} \iota x \cdot \operatorname{not} t \bullet \operatorname{not}\left(\operatorname{not} t_{1}, \operatorname{not} t_{2}\right) \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\left(\boldsymbol{n o t} t_{1}, \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} t_{2}\right) \bullet \iota x \cdot \boldsymbol{n o t} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\operatorname{not} t_{1} \bullet \delta x . \operatorname{not} t_{2} \cdot \boldsymbol{n o t} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\operatorname{not} t_{2} \bullet \operatorname{not} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& +t \bullet t_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 7. Analytic reductions for derived term constructs for disjunction

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\operatorname{in}_{1} n \bullet s \equiv \\
& +\operatorname{not}^{\prime} x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot \operatorname{not} n \bullet s \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\left(\delta y^{\prime} \cdot \operatorname{not} y^{\prime} \cdot s\right) \bullet \iota x . \delta y . x \cdot \operatorname{not} n \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\left(\delta z .\left(\delta y^{\prime} \cdot \operatorname{not} y^{\prime} \cdot s\right) \cdot \iota x . z\right) \bullet \\
& \delta y .\left(\delta z .\left(\delta y^{\prime} \cdot \operatorname{not} y^{\prime} \cdot s\right) \cdot \iota x . \delta x^{\prime} . x \cdot z\right) \cdot \operatorname{not} n \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\left(\delta z .(\delta y \cdot \operatorname{not} y \cdot s) \cdot \iota x . \delta x^{\prime} \cdot x \cdot z\right) \bullet \operatorname{not} n \rightsquigarrow \\
& +n \bullet\left(\delta z^{\prime} .\left(\delta z .(\delta y \cdot \operatorname{not} y \cdot s) \cdot \iota x . \delta x^{\prime} . x \cdot z\right) \cdot \operatorname{not} z^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 8. Sample marshalling reduction for injections
marshalling reductions for when the injection is $\mathrm{in}_{2} n$, and when it is a co-pair (in a configuration with negative polarity).

Finally, we can observe that $\mathrm{in}_{d} v$ and $\left[v_{1}, v_{2}\right]$ are values. In the case of $\mathrm{in}_{1} v$, for example, we have

$$
\operatorname{not} \iota x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot \operatorname{not} v
$$

We can confirm that this term is syntactically a value (assuming $x \notin \mathbf{F V}(v)$ ), by reasoning contrapositively with the rules of Figure 5

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma, x:+T_{1} \vdash t:+T_{2}}{\frac{\Gamma, x:+T_{1} \vdash \operatorname{not} t:-\neg T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x \cdot \operatorname{not} t:-T_{1} \wedge \neg T_{2}}} \frac{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x \cdot t:+T_{1} \rightarrow T_{2}}{\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_{1}:+T_{1} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_{2}:-T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{not} t_{2}:+\neg T_{2}}}{\frac{\Gamma \vdash\left(t_{1}, \operatorname{not} t_{2}\right):+T_{1} \wedge \neg T_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash\left\langle t_{1}, t_{2}\right\rangle:-T_{1} \rightarrow T_{2}}}}
\end{gathered}
$$

Figure 9. Typing derivations for implication

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\lambda x . t \bullet\left\langle t_{1}, t_{2}\right\rangle \equiv \\
& + \text { not } \iota x . \operatorname{not} t \bullet \operatorname{not}\left(t_{1}, \text { not } t_{2}\right) \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\left(t_{1}, \text { not } t_{2}\right) \bullet \iota x . \operatorname{not} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& -t_{1} \bullet \delta x . \operatorname{not} t_{2} \cdot \operatorname{not} t \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\operatorname{not} t_{2} \bullet \operatorname{not}\left[t_{1} / x\right] t \rightsquigarrow \\
& +\left[t_{1} / x\right] t \bullet t_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 10. Analytic reduction for implication

### 5.2 Implication

In Section 2 we defined $T_{1} \rightarrow T_{2}$ to be $\neg\left(T_{1} \wedge \neg T_{2}\right)$. Term constructs for implication can be defined as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\lambda x . t & := \\
\text { not } \iota x . \operatorname{not} t \\
\left\langle t_{1}, t_{2}\right\rangle & := \\
\operatorname{not}\left(t_{1}, \operatorname{not} t_{2}\right)
\end{array}
$$

Figure 9 gives typing derivations for these. Figure 10 gives the analytic reduction sequence. Notice that we obtain call-by-name evaluation starting from a positive configuration. Cutting a positive term of type $T \rightarrow T^{\prime}$ against a term $\left\langle t_{1}, t_{2}\right\rangle$ which has that type negatively can be thought of as supplying both the positive input argument $t_{1}$ and the output continuation $t_{2}$ to the function.
Figure 11 gives an example of a marshalling reduction, where we pull a substitution instance of the nonvalue body of $\lambda x$.n out of that $\lambda$-abstraction to the active position of the configuration. So as in normal-order evaluation for lambda calculus, reduction proceeds in this case into the body of the $\lambda$-abstraction. This is less strange than might first appear: because rec-terms are values, evaluation in the body of a recursive function will typically quickly stop, when it encounters the recursion.

Calling a function is, of course, a basic operation of functional programming, and it is convenient to define the standard notation for applications:

$$
t t^{\prime}:=\delta x \cdot t \cdot\left\langle t^{\prime}, x\right\rangle
$$

To apply a function $t$ of positive type $T \rightarrow T^{\prime}$ to an argument $t^{\prime}$ of positive type $T$, we introduce a variable $x$ of negative type $T^{\prime}$, to hold the output of the function, and then we cut the function against $\left\langle t^{\prime}, x\right\rangle$.

### 5.3 Classical principles

We can easily derive the strictly classical principle $\neg \neg T \rightarrow T$ for any type $T$ :

$$
\text { dne }:=\lambda x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot \operatorname{not} \operatorname{not} y
$$

Here, $x$ has type $+\neg \neg T$, and $y$ has type $-T$. So then not not $y$ has type $-\neg \neg T$, as required for the cut-term.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\lambda x . n \bullet s \equiv \\
& +\boldsymbol{n o t} \iota x . \operatorname{not} n \bullet s \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\delta y . \operatorname{not} y \cdot s \bullet \iota x . \operatorname{not} n \rightsquigarrow \\
& -\delta y^{\prime} .(\delta y . \operatorname{not} y \cdot s) \cdot \iota x . y^{\prime} \bullet \\
& \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }}\left[\delta y^{\prime} \cdot(\delta y \cdot \operatorname{not} y \cdot s) \cdot \iota x . \delta y^{\prime \prime} \cdot x \cdot y^{\prime} / x\right] n \rightsquigarrow \\
& +\left[\delta y^{\prime} .(\delta y . \operatorname{not} y \cdot s) \cdot \iota x . \delta y^{\prime \prime} . x \cdot y^{\prime} / x\right] n \bullet \\
& \delta y^{\prime \prime} .\left(\delta y^{\prime} .(\delta y . \operatorname{not} y \cdot s) \cdot \iota x . y^{\prime}\right) \cdot \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} y^{\prime \prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 11. Sample marshalling reduction for implication

The law of the excluded middle is also easily derivable in RP-DC:

$$
\text { lem }:=\operatorname{not} \iota x \cdot \operatorname{not} x
$$

This term can be assigned type $T \vee \neg T$ for any type $T$, since unfolding the definition of disjunction we see that type is equal to $\neg(\neg T \wedge \neg \neg T)$. Typing lem will assign the type $\neg T$ positively to $x$, and so not $x$ has the desired type $\neg \neg T$ negatively, as required to type a $\iota$-term.

It is well known that if disjunction is defined in terms of negation (as here), the law of excluded middle is intuitionistically valid. But as pointed out by O'Connor, with that definition, the principle which is not intuitionistically valid is the usual principle of disjunction elimination [15]. So to further highlight the classical character of RP-DC, let us see how to derive that principle in RP-DC. The following defines a term construct for disjunction elimination:

$$
\text { case } t \text { of } x . t_{1}, y . t_{2}:=\delta z . t \cdot\left[\delta x . t_{1} \cdot z, \delta y . t_{2} \cdot z\right]
$$

Figure 12 gives the typing derivation for this construct. We are using our derived co-pairing construct to inhabit the disjunctive type $T_{1} \vee T_{2}$ negatively.

### 5.4 False and True

Above we defined $\perp$ to be $\mu X$. $X$. This can be inhabited negatively by the term false defined by

$$
\text { false }:=\operatorname{rec} x[y=\mathbf{d n e}] \cdot x[\text { dne }]
$$

Then $\top$ can be easily inhabited by

$$
\text { true }:=\text { not false }
$$

### 5.5 Control

As is also done for other CCTTs, we can define a mechanism for exceptions this way:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\operatorname{catch} x t_{1} t_{1}^{\prime} t_{2} & :=\delta y \cdot\left(\delta x . t_{1} \cdot t_{1}^{\prime}\right) \cdot t_{2} \\
\text { throw } t x & :=\delta y \cdot t \cdot x
\end{array}
$$

This is very similar to what is done in the $\lambda \mu$-calculus; for example, in [6]. In catch $x t_{1} t_{1}^{\prime} t_{2}$, we declare exception $x$, which can be thrown inside the cut of $t_{1}$ against $t_{1}^{\prime}$. The exception will be handled in $t_{2}$. The term throw $t x$ can be thought of as throwing $t$ on named exception-channel $x$. For a small example of these in action, consider the term

$$
\operatorname{catch} x(\lambda y . y)\left\langle\text { throw } t x, t^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle t_{2}
$$

The idea here is that we want to call the identity function $\lambda y . y$. On normal execution we will send the result to $t^{\prime \prime}$, but if the exception on $x$ is raised (as it will be), it should be handled by $t_{2}$. Unfolding some definitions, this term is equal to

$$
\delta y \cdot\left(\delta x .(\lambda y \cdot y) \cdot\left\langle\delta z . t \cdot x, t^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle\right) \cdot t_{2}
$$

To run this term, let us suppose we are cutting it against halt $T$. See Figure 13 for the reduction, where $t_{2}^{\prime}$ abbreviates [halt $\left.T / y\right] t_{2}$.

$$
\frac{\frac{\Gamma, x:+T_{1} \vdash t_{1}:+T^{\prime}}{\frac{\Gamma_{1} \vdash t_{1}:+T^{\prime}}{\Gamma^{\prime} \vdash \delta x . t_{1} \cdot z:-T_{1}}} \frac{\Gamma_{1} \vdash z:-T^{\prime}}{\Gamma^{\prime} \vdash\left[\delta x . t_{1} \cdot z, \delta y . t_{2} \cdot z\right]:-T_{1} \vee T_{2}}}{\frac{\Gamma, y:+T_{2} \vdash t_{2}:+T^{\prime}}{\frac{\Gamma_{2} \vdash t_{2}:+T^{\prime}}{\Gamma^{\prime} \vdash \delta y . t_{2} \cdot z:-T_{2}}} \overline{\Gamma_{2} \vdash z:-T^{\prime}}}
$$

Figure 12. Typing derivation for the derived disjunction elimination, where $\Gamma^{\prime}$ abbreviates $\Gamma, z:-T^{\prime}, \Gamma_{1}$ abbreviates $\Gamma^{\prime}, x:+T_{1}$, and $\Gamma_{2}$ abbreviates $\Gamma^{\prime}, y:+T_{2}$.

```
\(+\delta y .\left(\delta x .(\lambda y . y) \cdot\left\langle\delta z . t \cdot x, t^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle\right) \cdot t_{2} \bullet\) halt \(T \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+\left(\delta x .(\lambda y . y) \cdot\left\langle\delta z . t \cdot x, t^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle\right) \bullet t_{2}^{\prime} \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+(\lambda y . y) \bullet\left\langle\delta z . t \cdot t_{2}^{\prime}, t^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
\(+\delta z . t \cdot t_{2}^{\prime} \bullet t^{\prime \prime} \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+t \bullet t_{2}^{\prime}\)
```

Figure 13. Reduction illustrating the behavior of defined exceptions

Besides exceptions, we can easily mimic the control operator call/cc: it is a trivial matter to capture the passive part of a configuration by using a cut-term for the active part. It is not so clear, however, that delimited control can be implemented directly in RP-DC. This is because a cut-term like $\delta x . t_{1} \cdot t_{2}$, if used positively, introduces a name $x$ for the entire rest of the computation (the entire passive part of the configuration). Capturing the continutation of a term only up to some delimiting point, in contrast, is not obviously implementable.

## 6. Examples with Recursion

Let us now consider how to implement standard inductive types in RP-DC, specifically unary natural numbers and lists. A fullfledged type theory based on RP-DC would include some form of polymorphism, but for simplicity we are focused here just on a monomorphic language. So we will just consider monomorphic lists, and rely on parametrized meta-level definitions to describe lists and list operations for different types of data. We make these standard definitions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{L} A:=\mu X . T \vee(A \wedge X) \\
& \mathbb{N}:=\mathbb{L} \top
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathbb{L} A$ is the type for homogeneous lists of elements of type $A$. We are using the well-known fact that one can define unary numbers as lists containing just a single unit value, here true. We can define constructors for lists:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { nil } & :=\mathbf{i n}_{1} \text { true } \\
\text { cons }:=\lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot \mathbf{i n}_{2}(x, y)
\end{array}
$$

These can be typed as $\mathbb{L} A$ and $A \rightarrow \mathbb{L} A \rightarrow \mathbb{L} A$, respectively. Let us also define this notation (familiar from Haskell, for example) for lists of length $n \geq 0$ :

$$
\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right]:=\mathbf{i n}_{2}\left(t_{1}, \ldots \mathbf{i n}_{2}\left(t_{n}, \mathbf{i n}_{1} \text { true }\right)\right)
$$

Note that $\left[v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right]$ is a syntactic value (as it would not be if we defined it using cons and nil). The numerals, which we will use with standard decimal notation below, can be constructed by:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathbf{Z} & := \\
\text { nil } \\
\text { Suc }:= & \lambda x . \text { cons true } x
\end{array}
$$

```
+ append [1, 2] [3] • halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N} \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
\(+\mathbf{i n}_{2}(1,[2]) \bullet\)
    \(\operatorname{rec} f[z=\operatorname{halt} \mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}]\);
    \(\left(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot z, \iota a . f\left[\delta y^{\prime}\right.\right.\). cons \(\left.\left.a y^{\prime} \cdot z\right]\right) \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+\mathbf{i n}_{2}(1,[2]) \bullet\)
    ( \(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot\) halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}\),
    \(\iota a\).rec \(f\left[z=\delta y^{\prime}\right.\).cons \(a y^{\prime} \cdot\) halt \(\left.\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}\right]\).
    \(\left.\left(\delta y^{\prime} \cdot[3] \cdot z, \iota a . f\left[\delta y^{\prime} . \operatorname{cons} a y^{\prime} \cdot z\right]\right)\right) w^{*}\)
\(+(1,[2])\) •
    \(\iota a\).rec \(f\left[z=\delta y^{\prime}\right.\).cons \(a y^{\prime} \cdot\) halt \(\left.\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}\right]\).
    \(\left(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot z, \iota a . f\left[\delta y^{\prime}\right.\right.\). cons \(\left.\left.a y^{\prime} \cdot z\right]\right) \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
\(+\mathbf{i n}_{2}(2\), nil \() \bullet\)
    \(\operatorname{rec} f\left[z=\delta y^{\prime}\right.\).cons \(\left.1 y^{\prime} \cdot \operatorname{halt} \mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}\right]\).
    \(\left(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot z, \iota a . f\left[\delta y^{\prime}\right.\right.\). cons \(\left.\left.a y^{\prime} \cdot z\right]\right) \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
\(+\mathbf{i n}_{2}(2\), nil \()\) -
    \(\left(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot \delta y^{\prime}\right.\). cons \(1 y^{\prime} \cdot\) halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}\),
        \(\iota a\). rec \(f\left[z=\delta y^{\prime}\right.\).cons \(a y^{\prime} \cdot \delta y^{\prime}\).cons \(1 y^{\prime}\) •
            halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}]\).
        \(\left(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot z, \iota a . f\left[\delta y^{\prime}\right.\right.\). cons \(\left.\left.\left.a y^{\prime} \cdot z\right]\right)\right) \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
+ nil•
        \(\operatorname{rec} f\left[z=\delta y^{\prime} . \operatorname{cons} 2 y^{\prime} \cdot \delta y^{\prime} . \operatorname{cons} 1 y^{\prime} \cdot\right.\)
            halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}]\).
        \(\left(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot z, \iota a . f\left[\delta y^{\prime}\right.\right.\). cons \(\left.\left.a y^{\prime} \cdot z\right]\right) \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
+ in \(_{1}\) true•
        ( \(\delta y^{\prime} .[3] \cdot \delta y^{\prime}\).cons \(2 y^{\prime} \cdot \delta y^{\prime}\). cons \(1 y^{\prime} \cdot\)
        halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}, \ldots) \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
\(+[3] \bullet \delta y^{\prime}\). cons \(2 y^{\prime} \cdot \delta y^{\prime}\). cons \(1 y^{\prime} \cdot\)
        halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N} \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
    + cons \(2[3] \bullet \delta y^{\prime}\). cons \(1 y^{\prime} \cdot\) halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N} \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
    \(+[2,3] \bullet \delta y^{\prime}\).cons \(1 y^{\prime} \cdot \operatorname{halt} \mathbb{L} \mathbb{N} \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
    + cons \(1[2,3] \bullet\) halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N} \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
\(+[1,2,3] \bullet\) halt \(\mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}\)
```

Figure 14. Normalizing evaluation of append on input lists [1, 2] and [3]

With natural numbers defined this way, addition is just list append, so we will focus on defining this function for an example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { append }:= \\
& \lambda x . \lambda y . \delta r . x \\
& \quad \text { rec } f[z=r] . \\
& \quad\left(\delta y^{\prime} . y \cdot z, \iota a . f\left[\delta y^{\prime} . \text { cons } a y^{\prime} \cdot z\right]\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

To see how this works, consider the reduction sequence in Figure 14 where we unfold definitions implicitly for conciseness. At each recursive call, we are extending the negative list in the accumulator of the rec-term so that when it is cut against a positive list $L$, it will add the elements from the first input list $([1,2])$ in the correct order to $L$. In the base case, we supply the second input list ([3]) for $L$, and so get the desired final result.

## 7. Corecursion

Now let us see how to operate on coinductively defined data in RPDC. Recall the definition of coinductive types from Section 2

$$
\nu X . T:=\neg \mu X . \neg[\neg X / X] T
$$

First, let us consider this definition from the perspective of positivity. We only wish to allow coinductive types $\nu X . T$ when $X$ occurs positively in $T$. Since our definition of this coinductive type begins $\neg \mu X . \neg$, the type $\neg \mu X . \neg T$ would not satisfy, in general, the requirement on inductive types that the $\mu$-bound variable $X$ must occur only positively in the body (since we are assuming $X$ occurs only positively in $T$, but $T$ occurs negatively in $\neg \mu X . \neg T$ ). It is for this reason that we take $\neg \mu X . \neg[\neg X / X] T$ as the definition of $\nu X . T$, since substituting $\neg X$ for $X$ in $T$ ensures that the positivity constraint on the $\mu$-type is satisfied. As already noted, this is standard in propositional $\mu$-calculus [12].

Based on this definition of $\nu$-types, we can see that the natural term construct for co-recursion is the following, where we write $[\neg f / f] t_{2}$ for the term which is exactly like $t_{2}$ except that wherever $t_{2}$ has $f[t],[\neg f / f] t_{2}$ has not $f[t]$ :

$$
\operatorname{corec} f\left[z=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2}:=\operatorname{not} \operatorname{rec} f\left[z=t_{1}\right] \cdot \operatorname{not}[\neg f / f] t_{2}
$$

The typing derivation for this term is shown in Figure 15 The effect of the substitution of $\neg f$ for $f$ in the body $t_{2}$ is that whenever $t_{2}$ makes a corecursive call $f[t]$, this expands to not $f[t]$. Since a recursive call $f[t]$ has type negative $X$ (according to the RECCALL rule of Figure [1], the corecursive call not $f[t]$ will instead have type positive $\neg \mathbb{X}$.
Let us see an example now of these definitions in action. Streams are a canonical example of a coinductive type:

$$
\mathbb{S} A:=\nu X . A \wedge X
$$

Expanding the definition of $\nu$-types, we see we have:

$$
\mathbb{S} A=\neg \mu X . \neg(A \wedge \neg X)
$$

We can get the head and tail of a stream as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { head }:=\lambda x . \delta y . x \cdot \operatorname{not}\left(\delta x^{\prime} .\left(\operatorname{not} \iota y^{\prime} . \delta z . y^{\prime} \cdot y\right) \cdot x^{\prime}\right) \\
& \text { tail }:=\lambda x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot \operatorname{not}\left(\delta x^{\prime} .\left(\operatorname{not} \iota y^{\prime} . y\right) \cdot x^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The first has positive type $\mathbb{S} A \rightarrow A$, and the second $\mathbb{S} A \rightarrow \mathbb{S} A$. For example, tail takes in $x$ of positive type $\mathbb{S} A$, and immediately does a cut introducing variable $y$ negatively of type $\mathbb{S} A$. We want to unfold the type of $x$ from $\mathbb{S} A$ to $\neg \neg(A \wedge \mathbb{S} A)$, but there are two problems: the Mu typing rule can only be applied for folding, and it must be applied to a term of positive type $\neg(A \wedge \mathbb{S} A)$. We can solve both problems by cutting $x$ against the term which begins with not, and then does a cut introducing $x^{\prime}$ of negative type $\mu X . \neg(A \wedge \neg X)$. We are cutting that $x^{\prime}$ against not $\iota y^{\prime} \cdot y$. The latter term has type $\neg(A \wedge \mathbb{S} A)$ positively, and by the MU typing rule, can also be assigned type $\mu X . \neg(A \wedge \neg X)$, as required.
Let us consider some standard basic examples of computing streams. The following term has positive type $A \rightarrow \mathbb{S} A$ for any type $A$, and given $x$ of type $A$, returns the infinite stream of $x$ 's:

$$
\text { repeat }:=\lambda x \cdot \operatorname{corec} f[z=\operatorname{true}] \cdot(x, f[\text { true }])
$$

Expanding the definition of corec, repeat is

$$
\lambda x . \operatorname{not} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { r e c }} f[z=\operatorname{true}] \cdot \operatorname{not}(x, \operatorname{not} f[\operatorname{true}])
$$

The accumulator $z$ is not used here, so we just supply a trivial value true for it. To see that this indeed returns an infinite stream of 3s, for example, when called with 3 , we can select an element from the result by cutting that result against a term of type negative $\mathbb{S} \mathbb{N}$. This is shown in Figure 16, where we assume $z$ is a term of negative

```
+ head \((\) tail \((\) repeat 3\()) \bullet z \rightsquigarrow^{*}\)
+ repeat \(3 \bullet\)
    not not \(\iota x\).not not \(\iota y . \delta x^{\prime} . y \cdot z \rightsquigarrow *\)
\(-\operatorname{not} \iota x . \operatorname{not} \operatorname{not} \iota y . \delta x^{\prime} . y \cdot z \bullet\)
    \(\operatorname{rec} f[z=\operatorname{true}] . \operatorname{not}(3, \operatorname{not} f[\) true \(]) \rightsquigarrow\)
\(-\operatorname{not} \iota x \cdot \operatorname{not} \operatorname{not} \iota y . \delta x^{\prime} \cdot y \cdot z \bullet\)
    \(\boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }}(3, \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { r e c }} f[z=\operatorname{true}] . \operatorname{not}(3, \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} f[\operatorname{true}])) \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+(3, \operatorname{not} \operatorname{rec} f[z=\operatorname{true}] \cdot \operatorname{not}(3, \operatorname{not} f[\operatorname{true}])) \bullet\)
    \(\iota x\).not not \(\iota y . \delta x^{\prime} . y \cdot z \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+\operatorname{not} \operatorname{rec} f[z=\operatorname{true}] \cdot \operatorname{not}(3, \operatorname{not} f[\) true \(]) \bullet\)
    not not \(\iota y . \delta x^{\prime} . y \cdot z \rightsquigarrow\)
\(-\operatorname{not} \iota y . \delta x^{\prime} . y \cdot z \bullet\)
    \(\operatorname{rec} f[z=\operatorname{true}] . \operatorname{not}(3, \operatorname{not} f[\operatorname{true}]) \rightsquigarrow\)
\(-\operatorname{not} \iota y . \delta x^{\prime} . y \cdot z \bullet\)
    \(\operatorname{not}(3, \operatorname{not} \operatorname{rec} f[z=\) true \(]\).
            \(\boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }}(3, \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} f[\) true \(])) \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+(3, \operatorname{not} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { r e c }} f[z=\operatorname{true}] \cdot \operatorname{not}(3, \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} f[\operatorname{true}])) \bullet\)
    \(\iota y . \delta x^{\prime} . y \cdot z \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+\operatorname{not} \operatorname{rec} f[z=\boldsymbol{\operatorname { t r u e }}] \cdot \operatorname{not}(3, \operatorname{not} f[\operatorname{true}]) \bullet\)
    \(\delta x^{\prime} .3 \cdot z \rightsquigarrow\)
\(+3 \bullet z\)
```

Figure 16. Selecting the second element (i.e., 3) from repeat 3, where we assume $z:-\mathbb{N}$.
type $\mathbb{N}$. It receives the second element from the stream of 3s, when that element has been selected.

Using an accumulator, it is easy to define a stream consisting of the natural numbers beginning from some point $n$, another standard basic example:

$$
\text { nats }:=\lambda n \cdot \operatorname{corec} f[x=n] \cdot(n, f[\operatorname{Suc} n])
$$

This term has positive type $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{S} \mathbb{N}$. Selecting an element from a stream like that resulting from nats 0 works similarly to the example of Figure 16

For a final example, let us consider mapping a function $f$ over a stream $x$ :

$$
\operatorname{map}:=\lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot \operatorname{corec} h[y=x] \cdot(f(\text { head } y), h[\text { tail } y])
$$

The type of this term is the expected $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow(\mathbb{S} A \rightarrow \mathbb{S} B)$. Here we apply the head and tail functions above to inspect and modify the accumulator $y$, of positive type $\mathbb{S} A$.

## 8. Mixed Recursion/Corecursion

One of the motivations for recent works on type theories with induction and coinduction is to support mixed inductive/coinductive types, along with mixed recursion/corecursion. The current version of Agda, for example, supports mixed inductive/coinductive types only in the limited form $\nu X . \mu Y . T$. The reverse prefix $\mu X . \nu Y$ cannot be defined [1, 2]. Here we give two simple examples showing how RP-DC can support mixed inductive/coinductive types with either prefix.

### 8.1 The prefix $\nu X . \mu Y$

The example is finitely branching trees where every branch is infinitely deep. The type of such trees is:

$$
\mathbb{I}:=\nu X . \mu Y .(X \wedge Y) \vee \top
$$

$\frac{\text { OccursOnly }+X \neg[\neg X / X] T \quad \Gamma \vdash t_{1}: p T^{\prime} \quad \frac{\Gamma, f: p X \triangleright T^{\prime}, z: p T^{\prime} \vdash[\neg f / f] t_{2}:+[\neg X / X] T}{\Gamma, f: p X \triangleright T^{\prime}, z: p T^{\prime} \vdash \operatorname{not}[\neg f / f] t_{2}:-\neg[\neg X / X] T}}{\frac{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{rec} f\left[z=t_{1}\right] \cdot \operatorname{not}[\neg f / f] t_{2}:-\mu X . \neg[\neg X / X] T}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{corec} f\left[z=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2}:+\nu X . T}}$

Figure 15. Typing derivation for corecursion

Expanding the definition of $\nu$-types, we have

$$
\mathbb{I}=\neg \mu X . \neg \mu Y .(\neg X \wedge Y) \vee \top
$$

For an example, let us construct a function of type $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{I}$, which will return an element of type $\mathbb{I}$ where every node in the tree has branching degree $n$, when called with input $n$ of positive type $\mathbb{N}$. The code for this is not long, but will require some explanation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{tr}:= \\
& \left.\left.\quad \begin{array}{l}
\lambda n . \operatorname{corec} f[z=\operatorname{true}] . \\
\delta r . n \cdot \\
\quad \operatorname{rec} g\left[y=\mathbf{i n}_{2} \text { true }\right] . \\
\quad[(\text { true }, g[\text { in } \\
1
\end{array}(\text { cons } f[\text { true }] y)\right]\right), \\
& \left.\quad \delta z^{\prime} . y \cdot r\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

The basic idea is that we have an outer corecursion with an inner recursion, where the inner recursion is analyzing the input $n$ to generate the finite branching at the current node of the tree. Let us see that this term $\operatorname{tr}$ has positive type $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{I}$. First note that we are not using the accumulator for corecursive function $f$, and so we are just supplying true as a dummy value (where we have $z=$ true and $f[$ true $]$ ). To type the term we use these typings for bound variables:

$$
\begin{aligned}
n & : \\
f & +\mathbb{N} \\
r & : \\
g & -\mu \triangleright \top \\
y & :+Y \triangleright \mu Y \wedge Y) \vee \top \\
y & :+\mu Y \cdot(\neg X \wedge Y) \vee \top \\
z^{\prime} & : \quad+\top
\end{aligned}
$$

The key idea is that we are using a positive accumulator of type $\mu Y .(\neg X \wedge Y) \vee \top$ in the inner recursion, to accumulate the list of branches at the current node of the tree. When we reach the base case of the recursion (for when $n$ is 0 ), we return the accumulated branches, by cutting them against the negative variable $r$. This is the term $\delta z^{\prime} . y \cdot r$. The inner recursion has type $\mu Y .(T \wedge Y) \vee \top$ negatively, since we are cutting it against $n$ of positive type $\mathbb{N}$ ( $\alpha$ equivalent to $\mu Y .(T \wedge Y) \vee \top)$. This means that the body of the inner recursion is required to have negative type $(T \wedge Y) \vee \top$. So we take a co-pair for the body of the inner recursion, since co-pairs inhabit disjunctive types negatively.

Suppose we inspect the term $\operatorname{tr} 3$ by evaluating a configuration $+\operatorname{tr} 3 \bullet$ not not $t$, where $t$ has negative type $\mu Y .(\mathbb{I} \wedge Y) \vee T$. The effect of this will be to substitute $t$ for $r$ in the code for $\mathbf{t r}$, then recursively compute (by the inner recursion) the list of three branches of the tree, and finally (in the base case) pass this list to $t$ by cutting it the list against $t$. The reader carefully following this explanation may be puzzled by the described substitution of $t$ for $r$, since the type for $t$ is $-\mathbb{I}$, while the type I listed above for $r$ is $-\mu Y .(\neg X \wedge Y) \vee T$. The solution is that when RECN pushes in the outer corecursion, the type for $r$ will change from $-\mu Y .(\neg X \wedge Y) \vee \top$ to the type $-\mu Y .(\mathbb{I} \wedge Y) \vee \top$ of $t$.

### 8.2 The prefix $\mu X . \nu Y$

The type of possibly infinitely branching trees where all branches are of finite depth has the same definition as the previous example,
except with the prefix reversed:

$$
\mathbb{J}:=\mu X . \nu Y .(X \wedge Y) \vee \top
$$

We view descent down the side of the tree corresponding to $X$ in the definition as entering a (finite-depth) branch, and descent down the side corresponding to $Y$ to be proceeding to the next branch at the current node. Let us construct a function which given $n$ of type $\mathbb{N}$, returns the element of $\mathbb{J}$ where all nodes are infinitely branching, and all branches have depth $n$ :

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\operatorname{trj}:= \\
\quad \lambda n . \delta r . n \cdot \\
\quad \operatorname{rec} f[y=\text { not not in } \\
2
\end{array} \text { true }\right] .
$$

This can be assigned type $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{J}$ with these typings for bound variables:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
n & : & +\mathbb{N} \\
r & : & -J \\
f & : & +X \triangleright \mathbb{Z} \\
g & : & +Y \triangleright T
\end{array}
$$

The outer recursion is using accumulator $y$ of type $\mathbb{J}$ to construct the desired tree. In the base case (where we have $\delta y^{\prime} \cdot y \cdot r$, with the initial value not not $\mathbf{i n}_{2}$ true for $y$ ), the accumulator is just the empty tree. In the step case, we make a recursive call to $f$, updating the accumulator with the infinite list of branches, where each branch goes to a tree given by the current value of the accumulator (this is accomplished with the pair $(y, g[$ true $])$ ). The MU typing rule is used when typing the accumulator values.

## 9. Logical Consistency

A type theory is logically consistent iff there is some type which is not inhabited in the empty context. We can establish logical consistency by viewing the type theory as a logic (via the CurryHoward isomorphism), and showing that there is some formula which is not provable in the logic. This is very easy to do in the case of RP-DC, since the corresponding logic is quite weak, just a fragment of propositional $\mu$-calculus [12]. Because we intend halt $T$ to be used only at the top-level in an initial configuration (to receive a final result), we consider only terms which do not contain halt-subterms:

Theorem 1 (Logical Consistency of RP-DC). The type $T \wedge \neg T$ is not inhabited by any halt-free term in the empty context, for any type $T$.

Proof. A very easy way to prove this is first to define a simple boolean semantics of formulas. We define an interpretation $\llbracket T \rrbracket \rho$ of type $T$ as a boolean value (we use true and false for these here, at the risk of some confusion with the term constructs we defined for types $\top$ and $\perp$ ). The interpretation is with respect to an assignment
$\rho$ mapping all the type variables $X$ in $T$ to boolean values.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\llbracket X \rrbracket \rho & =\rho(X) \\
\llbracket T_{1} \wedge T_{2} \rrbracket \rho & =\llbracket T_{1} \rrbracket \rho \wedge \llbracket T_{2} \rrbracket \rho \\
\llbracket \neg T \rrbracket \rho & =\neg \llbracket T \rrbracket \rho \\
\llbracket \mu X . T \rrbracket \rho & =\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { false, if } \neg \llbracket T \rrbracket(\rho[X \mapsto \text { false }]) \\
\text { true, otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
\end{array}
$$

The idea in the clause for $\mu$-types is to take $\llbracket \mu X . T \rrbracket \rho$ to be a least fixed point in the boolean domain, where false is considered smaller than true. So if $\llbracket T \rrbracket(\rho[X \mapsto$ false $])$ is false, we have found a fixed point and return that as the value for $\llbracket \mu X . T \rrbracket \rho$. Otherwise, $\llbracket T \rrbracket(\rho[X \mapsto$ false $])$ is true, and so monotonicity will ensure that true is the fixed point - although we do not need to prove monotonicity here, since it will be addressed when we prove soundness of the MU rule below.

Next, let us define a lifting operation $\ulcorner-\urcorner$ to map contexts and sequents to types (making use of the defined types for truth and implication). Let us write $p T$ as notation for $T$ if $p=+$ and $\neg T$ if $p=-$.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\ulcorner.\urcorner & =\ulcorner \\
\ulcorner\Gamma, x: p T\urcorner & =\ulcorner\Gamma\urcorner \wedge p T \\
\ulcorner\Gamma, x: p X \triangleright T\urcorner & =\ulcorner\Gamma\urcorner \wedge \neg X \\
\ulcorner\Gamma \vdash t: p T\urcorner & =\ulcorner\Gamma\urcorner \rightarrow p T
\end{array}
$$

We will now prove soundness of RP-DC typing with respect to this semantics, for terms that do not contain halt $T$ : whenever $\Gamma \vdash t: p T$ is derivable and $t$ does not contain any subterm of the form halt $T^{\prime}$, then $\llbracket\ulcorner\Gamma \vdash t: p T\urcorner \rrbracket \rho$ is true, for all assignments $\rho$ to the free type variables of $\ulcorner\Gamma \vdash t: p T\urcorner$. This is sufficient for proving that $T \wedge \neg T$ is uninhabited by halt-free terms, since we can easily note that $\llbracket T \wedge \neg T \rrbracket \rho$ is false for any assignment $\rho$, and so soundness implies we cannot possibly derive $. \vdash t:+T \wedge \neg T$ if the Halt typing rule is not used. We prove soundness by induction on the structure of the derivation of $\Gamma \vdash t: p T$. All cases are very easy, so let us just consider one:

## Case:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { OccursOnly }+X T \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash t:+[\mu X . T / X] T}{\Gamma \vdash t:+\mu X . T} \quad \mathrm{MU}
\end{aligned}
$$

By the induction hypothesis and basic boolean reasoning, it suffices to assume that $\llbracket[\mu X . T / X] T \rrbracket \rho$ is true, and prove that $\llbracket \mu X . T \rrbracket \rho$ is also true. For this, it suffices to prove that for any $T^{\prime}$, either the value of $\llbracket T^{\prime} \rrbracket \rho[X \mapsto$ true $]$ is the same as $\llbracket T^{\prime} \rrbracket \rho[X \mapsto$ false $]$; or else the value of $\llbracket T^{\prime} \rrbracket(\rho[X \mapsto b])$ is $b$ if $X$ occurs only positively in $T^{\prime}$, and $\bar{b}$ (the negation of $b$ ) if it occurs only negatively. We omit this easy argument. Also, we can easily show the standard lemma that

$$
\llbracket\left[T^{\prime} / X\right] T \rrbracket \rho=\llbracket T \rrbracket\left(\rho\left[X \mapsto \llbracket T^{\prime} \rrbracket \rho\right]\right)
$$

Putting these pieces together: we know that

$$
\llbracket[\mu X . T / X] T \rrbracket \rho=\llbracket T \rrbracket(\rho[X \mapsto \llbracket \mu X . T \rrbracket \rho])
$$

It could be that the interpretation of $T$ does not depend on the interpretation of $X$, and then we have that $\llbracket T \rrbracket(\rho[X \mapsto$ false $])$ is true, and so by the semantics for $\mu$-types, so is $\llbracket \mu X$.T】 $\rho$. Otherwise, since $X$ occurs only positively in $T$ by the first premise of the inference, if $\llbracket \mu X . T \rrbracket \rho$ is false, then so is

$$
\llbracket[\mu X . T / X] T \rrbracket \rho
$$

but we are assuming this is true.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Canon } t_{1}:+T_{1} \\
& \text { Canon } t_{2}:+T_{2} \quad \text { CANANDP } \\
& \frac{\text { Canon } t:-T_{1}}{\operatorname{Canon} \iota x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot t:-T_{1} \wedge T_{2}} \quad \text { CANANDN1 } \\
& \frac{\text { Canon } t:-T_{2}}{\text { Canon } \iota x . t:-T_{1} \wedge T_{2}} \quad \text { CANANDN2 } \\
& \text { OccursOnly }+X T \\
& \frac{\text { Canon } t:+[\mu X . T / X] T}{\text { Canon } t:+\mu X . T} \quad \text { CanMu } \\
& \frac{. \vdash \operatorname{rec} x[y=t] \cdot t^{\prime}:-\perp}{\operatorname{Canon} \operatorname{rec} x[y=t] \cdot t^{\prime}:-\perp} \quad \text { CanFaLse } \\
& \overline{\text { Canon halt } T:-T} \text { CanHalt }
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 17. Canonical inhabitation

## 10. Canonicity

Classical reasoning is supposed to be nonconstructive, and hence noncomputational. Despite the fact that we have a reduction semantics for RP-DC, one might reasonably be concerned that it could fail to be suitable for programming. But languages with control operators are used heavily for practical programming. So what makes a computational classical type theory (CCTT) nonconstructive?
The answer is the failure, in general, of canonicity. For programming languages, we usually expect that closed normal forms of type $T$ will be canonical: they will be built by constructors from canonical subdata. For example, if we have a closed normal form of type $\mathbb{N} \vee \mathbb{L} \mathbb{N}$, we expect that it is either the left injection of a canonical natural number, or the right injection of a canonical list of natural numbers. In CCTTs, canonicity fails for types like $T \vee \neg T$. In Section 5.3 we saw that a closed normal form of this type is not $\iota x \operatorname{not} x$. This is not the encoding of a left injection of a value of type $T$ or the right injection of a value of type $\neg T$. Recall from Section 5.1 that the encodings of these are the following, where $x$ and $y$ are assumed not to be free in $t$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{i n}_{1} t:=\boldsymbol{n o t} \iota x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot \boldsymbol{\operatorname { n o t }} t \\
& \mathbf{i n}_{2} t:=\boldsymbol{n o t} \iota x \cdot \operatorname{not} t
\end{aligned}
$$

The term not $\iota x . \operatorname{not} x$ does not match the right hand side of the second defining equation, because such a match would take $x$ for $t$ - but $t$ is required not to contain $x$ free.

As we would expect from the practical application of programming languages with control operators, this failure of canonicity in general does not render a CCTT like RP-DC unusable for programming. For there are types where the closed normal forms are indeed of the expected canonical shape. Figure 17 defines one notion (others are surely possible) of what it means for a term to be canonical of particular positive and negative types. The CANFALSE rule gives us a base case for the inductive definition.

Let us define positive canonical types $S$ and negative canonical types $R$ as follows, where we additionally require that $S$ is not just $X$ in the case of $\mu X . S$ :

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { positive canonical } S & ::=X\left|S \wedge S^{\prime}\right| \neg R \mid \\
\text { negative canonical } R & ::=R \wedge . S \\
\quad R \wedge R^{\prime}|\neg S| \perp
\end{array}
$$

We do not intend to observe coinductive values directly, so we do not include $\nu$-types in the definition of $R$. The following can then be proved by induction on the type in question (noting that $\perp$, which is defined to be $\mu X . X$, is not positive canonical):
Lemma 2. No positive canonical type $S$ is also negative canonical, and similarly no negative canonical type $R$ is also positive canonical.

We can also easily prove:
Lemma 3. If Canon $t: p T$ then $t$ is closed.
Using these lemmas, we obtain the following main result:
Theorem 4 (Canonicity). Suppose that $t$ is a value; that is, Nonvalue[!] $t$ is not derivable. Suppose also that the only haltsubterms it contains are of the form halt $S^{\prime}$. Finally, suppose that every declaration in $\Gamma$ is either of the form $x:-S_{1}$ or $x:+R_{1}$. Then if $\Gamma \vdash t:+S$, we have Canon $t:+S$, and if $\Gamma \vdash t:-R$, we have Canon $t:-R$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on the structure of the assumed typing derivation.

Case:

$$
\overline{\Gamma_{1}, x:+S, \Gamma_{2} \vdash x:+S}
$$

This case is impossible because of the assumption about the form of declarations in $\Gamma$, using Lemma 2 to conclude that none of our assumptions $x:+R$ (allowed in $\Gamma$ ) is also an assumption of the form $x:+S$. Similar reasoning shows the following case is also impossible:

$$
\overline{\Gamma_{1}, x:-R, \Gamma_{2} \vdash x:-R}
$$

Case:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:-S \vdash t_{1}:+T^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x:-S \vdash t_{2}:-T^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x . t_{1} \cdot t_{2}:+S}
$$

Because $t$ is a value, it must be of one of the forms $\delta x . t^{\prime} \cdot y$, $\delta x . y \cdot t^{\prime}$, or $\delta x . t^{\prime} \cdot$ halt $S^{\prime}$, with $x \in \mathbf{F V}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ and $t^{\prime}$ a value (since otherwise the NCUT rule applies). Let us break these cases out in turn.

## Subcase:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:-S \vdash t_{1}:+T^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x:-S \vdash y:-T^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x \cdot t_{1} \cdot y:+S}
$$

Because of the assumption about the form of declarations in $\Gamma$, from the second premise, we can conclude that $T^{\prime}$ is of the form $S^{\prime}$, for some positive canonical type $S^{\prime}$. So the inference we are considering is really of the form:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:-S \vdash t_{1}:+S^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x:-S \vdash y:-S^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x . t_{1} \cdot y:+S}
$$

Now we may apply our induction hypothesis to conclude Canon $t_{1}$ : $+S^{\prime}$. By Lemma 3 this implies that $t_{1}$ is closed, contradicting $x \in \mathbf{F V}\left(t_{1}\right)$.

Subcase:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:-S \vdash y:+T^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x:-S \vdash t_{1}:-T^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x . y \cdot t_{1}:+S}
$$

Similar reasoning as in the previous subcase applies, to show that our inference is really of the form:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:-S \vdash y:+R^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x:-S \vdash t_{1}:-R^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x . y \cdot t_{1}:+S}
$$

So we may apply our IH to the second premise, to contradict $x \in \mathbf{F V}\left(t_{1}\right)$.

Subcase:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:-S \vdash t_{1}:+S^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x:-S \vdash \text { halt } S^{\prime}:-S^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x . t_{1} \cdot \operatorname{halt} S^{\prime}:+S}
$$

This is similar to the first subcase, and we again apply our IH to the first premise, to contradict $x \in \mathbf{F V}\left(t_{1}\right)$.

Case:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:+R \vdash t_{1}:+T^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x:+R \vdash t_{2}:-T^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \delta x . t_{1} \cdot t_{2}:-R}
$$

This case proceeds similarly to the previous one: because $t$ is a value, it must be of one of the forms $\delta x \cdot t^{\prime} \cdot y, \delta x . y \cdot t^{\prime}$, or $\delta x . t^{\prime} \cdot$ halt $S^{\prime}$, with $x \in \mathbf{F V}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ and $t^{\prime}$ a value. All the subcases proceed just as above, with the only difference being that we have added an assumption $x:+R$ to the context, instead of one of the form $x:-S$. But our restriction on the form of the context is satisfied either way.

Case:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:+R_{1} \vdash t_{1}:-R_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x \cdot t_{1}:-R_{1} \wedge R_{2}}
$$

There are several subcases we must consider, based on our assumption that $t$ is a value. Reasoning contrapositively with the rules of Figure 5 it could be that $t$ is of the form $\iota x \cdot \delta y \cdot y^{\prime} \cdot t_{1}^{\prime}$, where either $y=x$ or else $y \neq x$ and $y \in \mathbf{F V}\left(t_{1}^{\prime}\right)$, and $t_{1}^{\prime}$ is a value; or else it is of the form $\iota x . t$ where $t$ is a value that is not of the form $\delta y \cdot x \cdot t_{1}^{\prime}$. Let us consider these subcases in turn:

Subcase:

$$
\frac{\frac{\Gamma^{\prime} \vdash x:+R_{1} \quad \Gamma^{\prime} \vdash t_{1}^{\prime}:-R_{1}}{\Gamma, x:+R_{1} \vdash \delta y \cdot x \cdot t_{1}^{\prime}:-R_{2}}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x . \delta y \cdot x \cdot t_{1}^{\prime}:-R_{1} \wedge R_{2}}
$$

Here, I am abbreviating $\Gamma, x:+R_{1}, y:+R_{2}$ as $\Gamma^{\prime}$. We may apply our IH to the second premise to conclude that Canon $t_{1}:-R_{1}$, which is now enough to apply the CANANDN1 rule to conclude Canon $\iota x . \delta y . x \cdot t_{1}^{\prime}:-R_{1} \wedge R_{2}$.

Subcase:

$$
\frac{\frac{\Gamma^{\prime} \vdash y^{\prime}:+R^{\prime} \quad \Gamma^{\prime} \vdash t_{1}^{\prime}:-R^{\prime}}{\Gamma, x:+R_{1} \vdash \delta y \cdot y^{\prime} \cdot t_{1}:-R_{2}}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x . \delta y \cdot y^{\prime} \cdot t_{1}^{\prime}:-R_{1} \wedge R_{2}}
$$

Again abbreviate $\Gamma, x:+R_{1}, y:+R_{2}$ as $\Gamma^{\prime}$. We may apply our IH to the second premise to conclude Canon $t_{1}^{\prime}:-R^{\prime}$, which contradicts the assumption that $x \in \mathbf{F V}\left(t_{1}^{\prime}\right)$.

Subcase:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:+R_{1} \vdash t_{1}:-R_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x \cdot t_{1}:-R_{1} \wedge R_{2}}
$$

This is the subcase where $t_{1}$ is not of one of the forms of the previous two subcases. Because of the fact that all the rules of Figure 5 which could still apply have! for $\theta$ in their premises (and allow any $\theta$ in their conclusion), we can easily prove that $t_{1}$
is a value. So we may apply our IH and then the ANDN2 rule to conclude Canon $\iota x . t_{1}:-R_{1} \wedge R_{2}$. The case for positive conjunctions is easy, so we omit it.

Case:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t:-R}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{not} t:+\neg R}
$$

We may apply the IH and then CANNot. The case for $\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{not} t$ : $-\neg S$ is similar.

Case:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_{1}: p T^{\prime} \quad \Gamma, x: p X \triangleright T^{\prime}, y: p T^{\prime} \vdash t_{2}:-X}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{rec} x\left[y=t_{1}\right] \cdot t_{2}:-\perp}
$$

We may apply the CANFALSE rule to obtain the desired conclusion.
Case:

$$
\frac{\text { OccursOnly }+X S \quad \Gamma \vdash t:+[\mu X . S / X] S}{\Gamma \vdash t:+\mu X . S}
$$

We need only observe that $[\mu X . S / X] S$ is still positive canonical, assuming $X$ occurs only positively in $S$. So we may apply our IH and then the CanMu rule to obtain the desired result.

This theorem shows that final answers of positive canonical type $S$ are indeed canonical values. So RP-DC can be used for practical programming, because for such types $S$, we can obtain an answer of the expected practical form. And note that this result includes types $S$ corresponding to the general sums of products form for standard algebraic datatypes, because $S \vee S^{\prime}$ is $\neg\left(\neg S \wedge \neg S^{\prime}\right)$, which is indeed positive canonical. So any RP-DC program which computes a final answer of type $S$ is guaranteed to produce a canonical output.

## 11. Conclusion and Future Work

This paper has introduced the Recursive Polarized Dual Calculus (RP-DC), a development of Wadler's Dual Calculus with inductive types and recursion. Thanks to a polarized reduction relation, standard propositional types may be defined from the minimal set of conjunction and negation, with the expected reductions and typings. We saw several practical examples of programming with recursion, corecursion, and mixed recursion/corecursion. Finally, two significant metatheorems were established: logical consistency (Theorem 11, and canonicity (Theorem 4). Future work includes development of more metatheoretic results, in particular, the standard results of type preservation and normalization. Type preservation is likely straightforward, but I expect normalization to be much more involved. Fortunately, a wonderful tool for this has recently been developed by Krivine: classical realizability [13]. Other future work includes implementation, and extension to dependent types. For the latter, our term construct $\iota$ x.t should pave the way for dependent typing with a rule like the following, where $x: T \wedge T^{\prime}$ binds $x$ in $T^{\prime}$ :

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x:+T \vdash t:-T^{\prime}}{\Gamma \vdash \iota x . t:-x: T \wedge T^{\prime}}
$$

It would also be interesting to explore new functional-programming idioms for computing with negative data.
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