

The Duality of Abstraction

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In this paper, we develop and study the following perspective – just as higher-order functions give exponentials, higher-order continuations give coexponentials. From this, we design a language that combines exponentials and coexponentials, producing a duality of abstraction.

We formalise this language by giving an extension of a call-by-value simply-typed lambda-calculus with coexponentials. We develop the semantics of this language using the axiomatic structure of continuations, which we use to produce an equational theory, that justifies control effects. We use this to derive the classical control operators and computational interpretation of classical logic, and encode common patterns of control flow using continuations, such as backtracking and exceptions. We further develop duals of first-order arrow languages using coexponentials. Finally, we discuss the implementation of this duality as control operators in programming, and develop their applications.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: duality, continuations, categorical semantics, type theory, effects

1 INTRODUCTION

There are several well-known dualities of computation: (1) values and continuations [Filinski 1989; Parigot 1992], (2) call-by-value and call-by-name [Selinger 2001; Wadler 2003], (3) expressions and contexts [Curien and Herbelin 2000], (4) producers and consumers [Girard 1991], (5) client and server in session types [Honda 1993], (6) strict and lazy evaluation, (7) products and sums, (8) effects (monads) and coeffects (comonads).

This paper presents and develops a different perspective: a duality of abstraction – of currying and cocurrying. Abstraction is at the heart of functional programming – it gives us higher-order functions that we build by lambda-abstraction, and we apply them to arguments using function application. This is well understood using the currying/uncurrying isomorphism:

$$(C \times A) \rightarrow B \cong C \rightarrow (A \Rightarrow B) \quad (1)$$

The forwards direction is currying, which gives lambda abstraction. In an environment C with a free variable of type A , if we can produce a value of type B , we can lambda-abtract and get a function $A \Rightarrow B$ in the environment C . The function type $A \Rightarrow B$ is an exponential object, which comes with a (universal) evaluation function $\text{eval}_{A,B}: (A \Rightarrow B) \times A \rightarrow B$ by uncurrying, allowing us to apply a function to an argument.

Duality is a fashionable trend in programming languages – can we dualise currying? Formally, this is a matter of reversing the arrows, turning the products into sums (coproducts), and turning the function type \Rightarrow into a \Leftarrow type:

$$(A \Leftarrow B) \rightarrow C \cong B \rightarrow (C + A) \quad (2)$$

Continuing the analogy with currying, the dual type $A \Leftarrow B$ (or coexponential object) should come with a (universal) coevaluation function $\text{coeval}_{A,B}: B \rightarrow A + (A \Leftarrow B)$. Programming languages have both products and sums, could we also have both \Rightarrow and \Leftarrow ?

Loch Ness mystery. For good reasons, this mysterious $A \Leftarrow B$ type is not found in programming languages. The categorically minded reader will recognise these two natural isomorphisms as coming from the adjunctions of cartesian closure, and cocartesian coclosure:

$$(-) \times A \dashv (-)^A \quad (-)^A \dashv (-) + A \quad (3)$$

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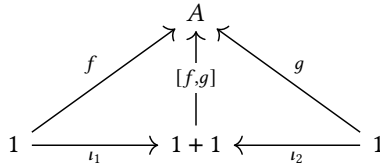
<https://doi.org/10.1145/nnnnnnn.nnnnnnn>

Exponential objects $(-)^A$ give right adjoints to product functors $(-) \times A$, and coexponential objects $(-)^A$ give left adjoints to coproduct functors $A + (-)$. If \mathcal{C} is a cartesian closed category (a model for the simply-typed lambda-calculus), then formally \mathcal{C}^{op} becomes a cocartesian coclosed category. But, combining cartesian closure and cocartesian coclosure in the same category leads to a degeneracy – this is well-known as Joyal’s lemma, and is explained in various forms by several authors (Lambek and Scott 1988, p.67; Girard 2011, § 7.A.4; Crolard 2001, thm 1.14; Abramsky 2012; Eades III and Bellin 2017).

If $(-) \times A$ has a right adjoint, it ought to preserve the initial object, and if $A + (-)$ has a left adjoint, it ought to preserve the terminal object, giving these isomorphisms:

$$0 \times A \cong 0 \quad A + 1 \cong 1 \quad (4)$$

In logic, the first isomorphism is the tautology $\perp \wedge A \leftrightarrow \perp$, and the second isomorphism is $\top \vee A \leftrightarrow \top$, which is well-known in classical logic. However, by Curry-Howard, in a programming language this means that the booleans would have no computational content – $\text{Bool} \cong 1 + 1 \cong 1$, leading to a degenerate language.



Since $1 + 1 \cong 1$, it is a terminal object, making $\iota_1, \iota_2 : 1 \rightarrow 1 + 1$ equal. If $f, g : 1 \rightarrow A$ are any two closed programs, then $f = [f, g] \circ \iota_1 = [f, g] \circ \iota_2 = g$. This makes the language degenerate – all closed programs of the same type are equal! This remark of Girard from *The Blind Spot* [2011, § 7.A.5, page 155] is worth quoting:

Digression: Loch Ness categories. A certain number of “solutions” to the degeneracy (inconsistency at layer -2) circulate. All those I have seen being faulty, I will not indulge in a teratology, especially since some people devote an incredible amount of energy in the production of new erroneous solutions. A few remarks:

- If there is a category-theoretic solution, one is liable to provide a legible category. And not to formulate the adjunction rules – say – of a professed «subtraction» – the typical connective of the category-theoretic *bricoleurs* – supposedly acting like implication, but on the left. Hence, one must provide a *concrete* category, or at least a translation into a system already having a non-degenerate category-theoretic interpretation. What the experts in «subtraction» carefully avoid doing... with good reasons.

This degeneracy is often used to motivate linear logic, weakening the strict universal properties of limits and colimits, or that “we must separate the two worlds” [Eades III and Bellin 2017], leading to mixed linear-non-linear logics. These arguments are also important to the foundations of quantum theory [Abramsky 2012], which require no cloning and duplication, fitting nicely with linear logic. In this work, we refute this conventional wisdom – we *do not* embrace linear logic, yet produce a programming language with a computational interpretation, that has both currying and cocurrying!

Continuations and Classical Logic. Continuations are fundamental to many of the dualities of computation – they are dual to values (as in Parigot [1992]’s $\lambda\mu$), and they are fundamental to the duality of call-by-value and call-by-name (Selinger 2001; Wadler 2003), and the duality of programs and contexts (Curien and Herbelen [2000]’s $\mu\tilde{\mu}$). Continuations give a computational interpretation of

99 classical logic, as discovered by Griffin [1989]. The classical nature of the isomorphism in equation (4)
 100 suggests that we should think about them using continuations. The duality in this paper also exploits
 101 continuations!

102 The ambitious reader might want to stop at this point, and try to implement the \Leftarrow type and
 103 the isomorphism in equation (2), using their favorite control operators. This is the main insight on
 104 which this paper builds. Semantically-minded readers might want to skip ahead to § 4 to see what
 105 the trick is about.

106 **Outline and Contributions.** This work is inspired by Filinski [1989]’s symmetric λ -calculus,
 107 and various dual calculi for values and continuations [Parigot 1992; Curien and Herbelin 2000].
 108 The semantics is inspired by the works of Hofmann [1995], Thielecke [1997], Streicher and Reus
 109 [1998], and Hofmann and Streicher [2002], and in particular Selinger [2001]. Compared to other
 110 dual calculi, we only restrict ourselves to a call-by-value language. The duality is a semantic one –
 111 of cartesian closure and cocartesian coclosure – which produces a syntactic duality of λ and $\tilde{\lambda}$!

- 112 • We present a $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ calculus, which exhibits two dual abstraction mechanisms: λ and $\tilde{\lambda}$. They
 113 bind values and covalues, respectively, and we call them functions and cofunctions, re-
 114 spectively, which exhibit currying and cocurrying. Functions have a function type, and
 115 cofunctions have a sum(!) type – the interaction of usual sums and cofunctions allows
 116 values and covalues to interact. We introduce this language by examples in § 2, and give a
 117 formal presentation in § 3.
- 118 • We develop the semantics of $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ in two different ways, in § 4. First, we use continuations
 119 for covalues, and give a CPS semantics, essentially by pulling it out of a hat. Second, we
 120 perform a micrological study of continuations, understanding their axiomatic categorical
 121 structure, and how it produces exponentials and coexponentials. We interpret our language
 122 using this categorical semantics in § 5, and show that it matches the CPS semantics.
- 123 • Using our denotational semantics, we develop an equational theory for our language, in § 6.
 124 The equational theory is designed in stages, first giving the axiomatic equations for currying
 125 and cocurrying, and then adding equations for control effects, which are validated by our
 126 semantics. We discuss the soundness, completeness, and axiomatics of these equations.
- 127 • Just as λ calculi can be split into first-order fragments, we split $\tilde{\lambda}$ into first-order arrow calculi,
 128 by dualizing functional completeness, in § 7. These languages are understood operationally
 129 using continuations as handlers.
- 130 • Unlike other dual calculi for continuations, ours is a natural deduction calculus. This means
 131 that the $\tilde{\lambda}$ duality readily adapts to a control operators, which we can implement or retrofit
 132 in real-world programming languages. In § 8, we implement them in SML and Haskell, and
 133 discuss our applications.

134 We include a partial formalisation of our languages in Agda, and implementations in SML and
 135 Haskell, as supplementary material. Some details are skipped in the main text, and included in the
 136 supplementary appendix.

137 2 DUALITY BY EXAMPLE

138 We illustrate the duality of abstraction by programming in a hypothetical language, whose syntax
 139 is similar to a typed programming language (like ML or Haskell).

140 **Functions and Cofunctions.** The language has values and covalues, and functions and cofunctions.
 141 Functions `fn` bind values, and cofunctions `cofn` bind covalues. Covalues have `co` types, and `cofn`
 142 binds a covalue, producing a cofunction which has (surprisingly!) a sum type, written as `a + b`.
 143 Coapplication is written as `f @ k`, which supplies a covalue to a sum type.

```

148 fun ex1 (f : int → string) (g : int + string) : int → int + string =
149   fn (x : int) ⇒
150     cofn (k : co int) ⇒
151       if x = 0 then g @ k else f x

```

152 The program `ex1` take two arguments: a function $f : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{string}$, and a sum (or cofunction) $g : \text{int} + \text{string}$, and returns something of type $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} + \text{string}$. The body of the program first introduces a lambda using `fn (x : int)`, that binds a value $x : \text{int}$ creating a function whose domain is an `int`. The body of the program needs to produce something of type $\text{int} + \text{string}$. This is introduced by a colambda `cofn (k : co int)` which binds a covalue $k : \text{co int}$, creating a cofunction. The value x is used in the body by applying the function f , and the covalue k is used in the body by applying the sum g . Here are two sample executions of the program `ex1`:

```

160
161     ex1 Int.toString (INR "0") 0
162   ~> cofn (k : co int) ⇒ if 0 = 0 then (INR "0") @ k else Int.toString 0
163   ~> cofn (k : co int) ⇒ (INR "0") @ k
164   ~> INR "0"

```

```

165     ex1 Int.toString (INL 1) 1
166   ~> cofn (k : co int) ⇒ if 1 = 0 then (INL 1) @ k else Int.toString 1
167   ~> cofn (k : co int) ⇒ Int.toString 1
168   ~> cofn (k : co int) ⇒ "1"
169   ~> INR "1"

```

170 The standard rules for capture-avoiding substitutions apply to both functions and cofunctions, which we perform implicitly. In [equation \(5\)](#), the body of the inner cofunction reduces by following the left branch of the conditional, which produces the cofunction `cofn (k : co int) ⇒ (INR "0") @ k`. This reduces by eta-conversion to the value `INR "0"`. Dually, in [equation \(6\)](#), the body of the inner cofunction reduces by following the right branch of the conditional, which produces the cofunction `cofn (k : co int) ⇒ Int.toString 1`. The body of this cofunction doesn't use the covalue k , causing it to collapse(!), producing `INR "1"`.

171 This example could've been written without any of this technology, just using standard sums:

```

180 fun ex1 (f : int → string) (g : int + string) : int → int + string =
181   fn (x : int) ⇒
182     if x = 0 then g else INR (f x)

```

183 What is then the point of cofunctions? We will see that, `INL/INR` produce ordinary sums, but cofunctions produce "Faustian" sums, which have control effects!

184 **Exceptional cofunctions.** Consider a simple program which multiplies the elements in a list (from [[Harper et al. 1993](#)]):

```

185
186
187 fun mult (l : list int) : int =
188   let fun loop [] = 1
189         | loop (h :: t) = h * loop t
190   in loop l
191 end

```

197 If `l` contains a `0` anywhere in the list, the program will always return `0`, but performing several
 198 vacuous multiplications along the way.

```
199      mult [1, 2, 0, 3, 4] ~> 1 * (2 * (0 * (3 * (4 * 1))))
200                               ~> 1 * (2 * (0 * (3 * 4)))
201                               ~> 1 * (2 * (0 * 12))
202                               ~> 1 * (2 * 0)
203                               ~> 1 * 0
204                               ~> 0
205
```

206 A naive way to avoid vacuous multiplications is to stop computing as soon as we see a `0`:

```
207      fun mult (l : list int) : int =
208        let fun loop [] = 1
209              | loop (0 :: _) = 0
210              | loop (h :: t) = h * loop t
211          in loop l
212        end
213
```

214 which proceeds as:

```
215      mult [1, 2, 0, 3, 4] ~> 1 * (2 * 0)
216                               ~> 1 * 0
217                               ~> 0
218
```

219 This avoids traversing the list once it notices a `0`, but still vacuously multiplies by `0` as it finishes
 220 the rest of the computation. Ideally, we want to avoid multiplying once we see a `0`, and treat it as
 221 an exceptional value.

222 As type theorists, we know about sum types, and we can use them to model two branches of
 223 computation – a value on the right is a normal value, and a value on the left is an exceptional value.
 224 We do multiplications on the right, but we return a `0` on the left. To understand the behavior of the
 225 program, we additionally print a trace as we're computing.

```
226      fun mult (l : list int) : int + int =
227        let fun loop [] = INR 1
228              | loop (0 :: _) = INL 0
229              | loop (h :: t) = trace ("at " ^ Int.toString h)
230                                  (mapRight (fn x => h * x) (loop t))
231          in loop l
232        end
233
```

234 This computes as:

```
235      mult [1, 2, 0, 3, 4]
236      ~> mapRight (fn x => 1 * x) (mapRight (fn x => 2 * x) (loop [0, 3, 4]))
237      ~> mapRight (fn x => 1 * x) (mapRight (fn x => 2 * x) (INL 0))
238      ~> mapRight (fn x => 1 * x) (INL 0)
239      ~> INL 0
240
```

241 printing the trace: "at 2", then "at 1".

242 This encoding using sums is almost the behavior we want, which avoids vacuous multiplications,
 243 but still traverses up to the top of the list once it hits a `0`, printing the trace. What we really want is
 244

245

to short-circuit the computation, abandoning the computation in the right branch, and jumping to the left branch with a \emptyset . We can do this using cofunctions.

```

246 fun mult (l : list int) : int + int =
247   cofn (k : co int) =>
248     let fun loop [] = 1
249       | loop (0 :: _) = (INL 0) @ k
250       | loop (h :: t) = trace ("at " ^ Int.toString h) (h * loop t)
251     in loop l
252   end
253
254
255

```

`cofn` binds a covalue $k : \text{int co}$, and speculatively executes its body, assuming that its computing the right branch of the sum. The bound covalue k allows one to backtrack and “jump with an (`int`) argument” to the left branch. The `loop` function is the same as before, except when it hits a \emptyset , it coapplies `INL 0` to the bound covalue k , jumping to the left branch and exiting the program. This computes as:

```

261
262
263
264   mult [1, 2, 0, 3, 4]
265  ~> cofn (k : int co) => loop [1, 2, 0, 3, 4]
266  ~> cofn (k : int co) => 1 * loop [2, 0, 3, 4]
267  ~> cofn (k : int co) => 1 * (2 * loop [0, 3, 4])
268  ~> cofn (k : int co) => 1 * (2 * (INL 0) @ k)
269  ~> INL 0

```

and prints no trace!

Algebra of cofunctions. Constant functions, like `fn (x : int) => 0`, when applied to any argument, will always return the value \emptyset . Similarly, we have constant cofunctions, like `cofn (k : co int) => 0`, which are right-biased sums – but unlike functions (lambdas), they aren’t frozen thunks – for example, constant cofunctions collapse and reduce to an ordinary right sum.

```

270 cofn (k : co a) => b    ~>    INR b

```

The identity cofunction, which returns the covalue it binds, produces something of this type – a choice between a value and a covalue:

```

271
272
273
274
275 let val (idc : a + co a) = cofn (k : co a) => k

```

This is a cofunction that doesn’t reduce on its own, not until you observe it by pattern matching! The «subtraction» type $a - b$ is the “proper” dual of the function type $a \rightarrow b$, and is defined as a product of a value and a covalue:

```

276
277
278
279
280 type a - b = a * co b

```

The subtraction type is derived from covales and is not included as a primitive type in our language, for «good reasons». The duality is witnessed by currying and cocurrying – our motivating example,

which can be implemented using our cofunction operations (also see `ftoc` and `ctof`):

```

295
296
297 fun curry (f : (c * a) → b) =           fun cocurry (f : c → a + b) : (c - a) → b =
298   fn x ⇒ fn y ⇒ f (x, y)                fn (c, k) ⇒ (f c) @ k
299 fun uncurry (f : c → (a → b)) =       fun councurry (f : (c - a) → b) : c → a + b =
300   fn (x, y) ⇒ f x y                       fn c ⇒ cofn k ⇒ f (c, k)
301
302

```

Subtraction and sums interplay in the following way:

```

303
304
305 fun coeval (x : a) : b + (a - b) = cofn (k : co b) ⇒ (x, k)
306 fun couneval (f : (b + a) - b) : a = (#1 f) @ (#2 f)
307

```

The type of `coeval` can be seen as a generalised version of LEM. Since cofunctions are just sums, they have the familiar `case` construct for pattern matching. Using `case`, we can do operations on both sides of the sum, for example, we can define a cocomposition of subtractive types:

```

311 fun cocompose (f : a - c) : (b - c) + (a - b) =
312   case coeval (#1 f) of
313     INL b ⇒ INL (b, #2 f)
314     | INR (a, k) ⇒ INR (a, k)
315
316

```

Value-Covalue interaction. We could produce a choice between a value and a covalue out of nothing, on both sides of the sum – but what if we had access to a value and covalue at the same time, i.e., $a - a$? We can `throw` – lifting the value to the left, then coapplying the covalue, producing `b` out of nothing.

```

321 fun throw (p : a - a) : b = (INL (#1 p)) @ k
322
323

```

Dually(!), the sum type $a + a$ can be collapsed to an `a`:

```

325 fun codiag (s : a + a) : a = case s of INL a ⇒ a | INR a ⇒ a
326
327

```

To a continuations aficionado, these operators will look familiar:

```

329 fun callcc (f : co a → a) : a =           fun call/cc (f : (a → b) → a) : a =
330   codiag (cofn (k : co a) ⇒ f k)         codiag (cofn (k : co a) ⇒
331                                           f (fn a ⇒ throw (a, k)))
332
333
334

```

3 SYNTAX

We present a formal calculus called $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ which exhibits abstraction and coabstraction.

3.1 Typing

The syntax and typing of $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ is presented in [figure 1](#). It is a simply-typed lambda calculus with products, functions, and sums, extended with covalue types, coabstraction, and coapplication.

In [figure 1a](#), we have the usual type constructors for unit, products, coproducts, and function types. Additionally, we have a dual type constructor \tilde{A} , which is the type of covales. Expressions

in our language are the usual ones, but additionally we have colambdas and coapplications, which are indicated by a bar over the lambda and application symbols. Lambda and colambda are binding forms – lambdas can bind variables of any type, but colambdas only bind variables of dual types. Similar to application, coapplication coapplies the second argument to the first. Importantly, this is a *call-by-value* language – values are a subset of expressions, and substitution is restricted to values.

Raw terms are meaningless, and the meaningful terms are the well-typed ones deduced by the typing judgement, generated by the typing rules in [figure 1c](#). Unit and products have the usual *rightist* typing rules. Sums have the usual *leftist* typing rules, with two injections, and a case construct. As is standard, functions are *rightist* – they are introduced by lambda abstraction, binding a value $x : A$ in the body $e : B$, producing a term of type $A \Rightarrow B$. Application eliminates a function, which applies a function $A \Rightarrow B$ to an A , producing a B .

Now we add two more rules which look completely symmetric – colambda binds a covalue $x : \tilde{A}$ in the body $e : B$, producing a term of type $A + B$, which we've been calling cofunctions. To eliminate a cofunction, we have coapplication, which applies a cofunction $A + B$ to a term of type \tilde{A} , cancelling out the A and producing a B . This is a *rightist* rule for sums. Sums have *bipartisan* status – the interaction of leftist case and rightist $\tilde{\lambda}$ leads to control effects!

The slogan for the typing rule for functions is “binding a value produces a function”. Dually, the slogan for the typing rule for cofunctions is “binding a covalue produces a choice”. The typing rule for application says “a function consumes a value”, and the typing rule for coapplication says “a cofunction consumes a covalue”. When a function binds a value A , it can use the bound variable $x : A$ in its body in any way that satisfies typing constraints, and similarly, when a cofunction binds a covalue \tilde{A} , it can use the bound variable $x : \tilde{A}$ in its body in any way that satisfies typing constraints.

We can think of colambdas as producing a right-biased choice, bargaining for a covalue for the left side of the choice. The informal idea behind a covalue is that it opens up a “channel” for the left side of the sum, which can be used by the body of the cofunction to “escape” to the left, despite having made a preference for the right side of the sum. This “escape” mechanism is a way for values and coveals to interact, or using our analogy, a way to send a value on the channel the covalue opened up. This is explained by the computational behavior of coapplication.

3.2 Weakening and Substitution

Since we have introduced new binders in our language, we need to show that weakening and substitution are still admissible. Unlike mixed substitution in CPS calculi, we only need call-by-value substitution. We describe the weakening and substitution rules for $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ in [figure 2](#), and define substitution on raw terms in [definition 3.3](#) and [definition 3.2](#). This is standard, and when substituting under a binder, we do a renaming of the bound variable by extending the substitution. Finally, we prove admissibility of weakening and substitution in [theorem 3.1](#).

THEOREM 3.1 (WEAKENING AND SUBSTITUTION).

- If $\Gamma \supseteq \Delta$ and $\Delta \vdash e : A$, then $\Gamma \vdash e : A$.
- If $\Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta$ and $\Delta \vdash e : A$, then $\Gamma \vdash \theta(e) : A$.

Definition 3.2 (Substitution on variables).

$$\theta[x] \triangleq \begin{cases} \zeta & \theta = \langle \rangle \\ e & \theta = \langle \phi, e/x \rangle \\ \phi[x] & \theta = \langle \phi, e/y \rangle, x \neq y \end{cases}$$

| | | |
|-----|---------------|---|
| 393 | TYPES | $A, B ::= \mathbf{1} \mid A \times B \mid A + B \mid A \Rightarrow B \mid \tilde{A}$ |
| 394 | TERMS | $e ::= \star \mid (e_1, e_2) \mid \text{fst}(e) \mid \text{snd}(e) \mid \text{inl}(e) \mid \text{inr}(e) \mid \text{case}(e_1, x. e_2, y. e_3)$ |
| 395 | | $\mid x \mid \lambda(x : A). e \mid e_1 e_2 \mid \tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). e \mid \widetilde{e_1 e_2}$ |
| 396 | VALUES | $v ::= \star \mid (v_1, v_2) \mid \text{inl}(v) \mid \text{inr}(v) \mid x \mid \lambda(x : A). e$ |
| 397 | CONTEXTS | $\Gamma, \Delta, \Psi ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : A$ |
| 398 | SUBSTITUTIONS | $\theta, \phi ::= \langle \rangle \mid \langle \theta, v/x \rangle$ |

(a) Grammar for $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ $x : A \in \Gamma$ x is a variable of type A in context Γ $\Gamma \supseteq \Delta$ Γ is a weakening of Δ $\Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta$ θ is a substitution from Γ to Δ $\Gamma \vdash e : A$ e is an expression of type A in context Γ $\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A$ e_1 and e_2 are equal expressions of type A in context Γ (b) Judgements for $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \star : \mathbf{1}} \text{1I} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : A \times B} \times\text{I} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst}(e) : A} \times\text{E}_1 \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd}(e) : B} \times\text{E}_2$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(e) : A + B} +\text{I}_1 \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(e) : A + B} +\text{I}_2$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A + B \quad \Gamma, x : e_2 \vdash A : C \quad \Gamma, y : e_3 \vdash B : C}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case}(e_1, x. e_2, y. e_3) : C} +\text{E} \quad \frac{x : A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : A} \text{VAR}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda(x : A). e : A \Rightarrow B} \Rightarrow\text{I} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \Rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : A}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : B} \Rightarrow\text{E}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). e : A + B} \widetilde{\Rightarrow}\text{I} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A + B \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tilde{A}}{\Gamma \vdash \widetilde{e_1 e_2} : B} \widetilde{\Rightarrow}\text{E}$$

(c) Typing rules for $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ Fig. 1. Syntax and typing for $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$

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$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{}{x : A \in (\Gamma, x : A)} \in\text{-ID} \qquad \frac{x : A \in \Gamma \quad (x \neq y)}{x : A \in (\Gamma, y : B)} \in\text{-EX} \\
\text{(a) Context Membership Rules} \\
\frac{}{\cdot \supseteq \cdot} \supseteq\text{-ID} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \supseteq \Delta}{\Gamma, x : A \supseteq \Delta, x : A} \supseteq\text{-CONG} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \supseteq \Delta}{\Gamma, x : A \supseteq \Delta} \supseteq\text{-WK} \\
\text{(b) Weakening Rules} \\
\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \langle \rangle : \cdot} \text{SUB-ID} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta \quad \Gamma \vdash v : A}{\Gamma \vdash \langle \theta, v/x \rangle : \Delta, x : A} \text{SUB-VAL} \\
\text{(c) Substitution Rules}
\end{array}$$

Fig. 2. Membership, Weakening and Substitution Rules

Definition 3.3 (Substitution on raw terms).

$$\begin{array}{l}
\theta(\star) \triangleq \star \\
\theta((e_1, e_2)) \triangleq (\theta(e_1), \theta(e_2)) \\
\theta(\text{fst}(e)) \triangleq \text{fst}(\theta(e)) \\
\theta(\text{snd}(e)) \triangleq \text{snd}(\theta(e)) \\
\theta(x) \triangleq \theta[x] \\
\theta(\lambda x. e) \triangleq \lambda y. \langle \theta, y/x \rangle(e) \\
\theta(e_1 e_2) \triangleq \theta(e_1) \theta(e_2) \\
\theta(\text{inl}(e)) \triangleq \text{inl}(\theta(e)) \\
\theta(\text{inr}(e)) \triangleq \text{inr}(\theta(e)) \\
\theta(\text{case}(e, x. e_1, y. e_2)) \triangleq \text{case}(\theta(e), z. \langle \theta, z/x \rangle(e_1), z. \langle \theta, z/y \rangle(e_2)) \\
\theta(\widetilde{\lambda}x. e) \triangleq \widetilde{\lambda}y. \langle \theta, y/x \rangle(e) \\
\theta(\widetilde{e_1 e_2}) \triangleq \widetilde{\theta(e_1) \theta(e_2)}
\end{array}$$

4 SEMANTICS

4.1 Continuation semantics

Those familiar with continuations will recognize that these covalues look like continuations! Indeed, we can interpret this language using continuation semantics, by giving a CPS translation, shown in figure 3, which is familiar in the continuations literature [Streicher and Reus 1998]. It is given by a family of semantic functions indexed by types and contexts: $(|-)_A^Y : \lambda \tilde{\lambda}_A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R$.

The base language is assumed to have functions, products, and sums, and the usual constructs follow the standard call-by-value semantics, fixing a right-to-left evaluation order. On types, the \tilde{A} type is translated as $A \rightarrow R$, and the function type $A \Rightarrow B$ as $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R$, as is standard.

The continuation of a lambda $\lambda x. e : A \Rightarrow B$ is $k : A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R$, which we apply to a function that binds a value $a : A$, a continuation $k_B : B \rightarrow R$, and evaluates the body e in the extended context γ, a , using the continuation k_B . When translating an application $e_1 e_2 : B$, we grab

$$\begin{aligned}
& \llbracket \star \rrbracket_1^Y \triangleq \lambda k. k \star \\
& \llbracket (e_1, e_2) \rrbracket_{A \times B}^Y \triangleq \lambda k. \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_B^Y (\lambda b. \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_A^Y (\lambda a. k (a, b))) \\
& \llbracket \text{fst}(e) \rrbracket_A^Y \triangleq \lambda k. \llbracket e \rrbracket_{A \times B}^Y (\lambda p. k \text{fst}(p)) \\
& \llbracket \text{snd}(e) \rrbracket_B^Y \triangleq \lambda k. \llbracket e \rrbracket_{A \times B}^Y (\lambda p. k \text{snd}(p)) \\
& \llbracket \text{inl}(e) \rrbracket_{A+B}^Y \triangleq \lambda k. \llbracket e \rrbracket_A^Y (\lambda a. k \text{inl}(a)) \\
& \llbracket \text{inr}(e) \rrbracket_{A+B}^Y \triangleq \lambda k. \llbracket e \rrbracket_B^Y (\lambda b. k \text{inr}(b)) \\
& \llbracket \text{case}(e, x. e_1, y. e_2) \rrbracket_C^Y \triangleq \lambda k. \llbracket e \rrbracket_{A+B}^Y (\lambda \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{inl}(a). \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_C^{Y,a} k \\ \text{inr}(b). \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_C^{Y,b} k \end{array} \right.) \\
& \llbracket x \rrbracket_A^Y \triangleq \lambda k. k(\gamma(x)) \\
& \llbracket \lambda x. e \rrbracket_{A \Rightarrow B}^Y \triangleq \lambda k. k(\lambda a. \lambda k_B. \llbracket e \rrbracket_B^{Y,a} k_B) \\
& \llbracket e_1 e_2 \rrbracket_B^Y \triangleq \lambda k_B. \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_A^Y (\lambda a. \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_{A \Rightarrow B}^Y (\lambda f. f a k_B)) \\
& \llbracket \widetilde{\lambda x}. e \rrbracket_{A+B}^Y \triangleq \lambda k. \text{let} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} k_A \triangleq \lambda a. k \text{inl}(a) \\ k_B \triangleq \lambda b. k \text{inr}(b) \end{array} \right. \\
& \quad \text{in} \llbracket e \rrbracket_B^{Y, k_A} (k_B) \\
& \llbracket \widetilde{e_1 e_2} \rrbracket_B^Y \triangleq \lambda k_B. \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_A^Y (\lambda k_A. \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_{A+B}^Y (\lambda \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{inl}(a). k_A a \\ \text{inr}(b). k_B b \end{array} \right.))
\end{aligned}$$

Fig. 3. Continuation semantics for $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$

a continuation k_B , first evaluating the argument e_2 , which requires a continuation $A \rightarrow R$. We pass a continuation that binds the value a : A , then evaluates the function e_1 in the same context, passing a and k_B as arguments.

Dual to functions, the continuation of a colambda $\widetilde{\lambda x}. e : A + B$ is $k : (A + B) \rightarrow R$, which we can (crucially) split into two continuations $k_A : A \rightarrow R$ and $k_B : B \rightarrow R$. We pass the continuation k_A into the environment γ , and evaluate the body e in this extended environment, continuing with k_B . To translate a coapplication $\widetilde{e_1 e_2} : B$, we grab a continuation k_B , then evaluate the argument e_2 , which requires a continuation $(A \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R$. We pass a continuation which binds the covalue (or continuation) $k_A : A \rightarrow R$, then evaluates the body e_1 in the same context. This requires a continuation $(A + B) \rightarrow R$, which we define by cases. When it receives an $\text{inl}(a)$, the computation continues as k_A applied to a – when it receives an $\text{inr}(b)$, the computation continues as k_B applied to b . From this semantics, we see that coabstraction and coapplication act as binding operators for continuations – managing the two continuations for a sum type, justifying the slogan “higher-order continuations”. The currying isomorphism from [equation \(2\)](#) is:

$$\Gamma \times (A \rightarrow R) \rightarrow ((B \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R) \cong \Gamma \rightarrow ((A + B) \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R,$$

the lesson being, if you CPS your program, you can dualise functions!

4.2 Loch Ness semantics

The continuation semantics in the previous section makes it seem as if cofunctions were pulled out of a hat, and does not explain the conceptual reasons or beauty behind the duality in this language. The right way to understand this language is to understand the abstract structure of continuation semantics using category theory. This is necessary to further develop the metatheory of our

language – its equational theory. The ideas here are well-known in the semantics of continuations (from Hofmann, Streicher, Thielecke, Selinger, Fuhrmann). We present a slightly different point of view.

There are different approaches to axiomatizing the categorical semantics of continuations [Levy 2001, § 8.8]:

- axiomatizing the type of continuations $\neg A$ or \tilde{A} directly, following Thielecke [1997], or
- axiomatizing non-returning functions using an exponentiating object Hofmann [1995], Streicher and Reus [1998], and Hofmann and Streicher [2002]

We develop the abstract structure of the first point of view, then instantiate it with the second point of view. Let \mathcal{C} be a (locally small) category with a functor $\neg: \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, that is self-adjoint on the right. This means, for any objects $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$, we have the hom-set isomorphism: $\mathcal{C}(B, \neg A) \cong \mathcal{C}(A, \neg B)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \neg & \\ \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} & \xleftarrow{\quad} & \mathcal{C} \\ & \neg & \end{array}$$

The full image of $\neg: \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, written \mathcal{C}_{\neg} , is the (bijective-on-objects, fully faithful) factorisation of \neg , which upto equivalence of categories, is determined by $\mathcal{C}_{\neg}(A, B) \triangleq \mathcal{C}(\neg A, \neg B)$. The functor $\neg_{\text{bo}}: \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_{\neg}$ is identity on objects, and negates morphisms, and the functor $\neg_{\text{ff}}: \mathcal{C}_{\neg} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ negates objects, and is identity on morphisms. Dually, the full image of $\neg^{\text{op}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}$ is $\mathcal{C}_{\neg}^{\text{op}}$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} & \xrightarrow{\quad \neg \quad} & \mathcal{C} \\ & \searrow \neg_{\text{bo}} & \nearrow \neg_{\text{ff}} \\ & \mathcal{C}_{\neg} & \end{array}$$

With this situation in mind, we observe the following:

PROPOSITION 4.1.

- (1) $\neg: \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ preserves limits, and $\neg^{\text{op}}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}$ preserves colimits.
- (2) \neg_{bo} is a right adjoint, and preserves limits. Dually, $\neg_{\text{bo}}^{\text{op}}$ is a left adjoint, and preserves colimits.
- (3) \mathcal{C}_{\neg} is equivalent to the opposite of the Kleisli category of the \neg -monad on \mathcal{C} , and $\mathcal{C}_{\neg}^{\text{op}}$ is equivalent to the Kleisli category.

PROOF. We have that, $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}(\neg\neg A, B) \cong \mathcal{C}(B, \neg\neg A) \cong \mathcal{C}(\neg A, \neg B) \cong \mathcal{C}_{\neg}(A, B) \cong \mathcal{C}_{\neg}(A, \neg_{\text{bo}}B)$, making \neg_{bo} a right adjoint. And, $\mathcal{C}_{\neg}(A, B) = \mathcal{C}(\neg A, \neg B) \cong \mathcal{C}(B, \neg\neg A) \cong \mathcal{C}_{\neg}^{\text{op}}(A, B)$. \square

This general situation is exploited to understand the structure of the Kleisli category of the continuation monad.

PROPOSITION 4.2. If \mathcal{C} is bicartesian, we have

- (1) $\neg 0 \cong 1$ and $\neg(A + B) \cong \neg A \times \neg B$.
- (2) \mathcal{C}_{\neg} is cartesian, with products given by coproducts in \mathcal{C} .
- (3) \neg_{ff} preserves products, and reflects exponentials.

PROPOSITION 4.3. If \mathcal{C} is bicartesian closed with a fixed object R (the object of responses),

- (1) $\neg \triangleq R^{(-)}$ is a self-adjoint on the right negation functor.
- (2) $\neg\neg$ is a strong monad on \mathcal{C} , and has Kleisli exponentials.
- (3) \mathcal{C}_{\neg} is cartesian closed, with exponentials $B \Rightarrow C$ given by $C \times R^B$.
- (4) \neg_{ff} is a cartesian closed functor.
- (5) The Kleisli category of $\neg\neg$ is cocartesian coclosed, and premonoidal.

Here the trick is revealed, we have a cartesian closed category of values, a cocartesian coclosed Kleisli category (of a strong monad) of computations, and we put them together in a call-by-value language using the ideas of Moggi [1989]! There is no mathematical trickery here, and we're simply exploiting well-known mathematical structure and dressing it up. This is a matter of appearances – a common trait of good magic tricks, and programming language design. Following Taylor [2002], values are X , and we think of covalues/continuations as observations R^X , and computations R^{R^X} are meta-observations.

In terms of Selinger [2001, remark 1.1], $\mathcal{C}_{R^{(-)}}$ is a control category (the interpretation of cbn), and the Kleisli category is a co-control category (the interpretation of cbv). Explicitly, we give all the structure below, which we will use to give a categorical and denotational semantics for $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$. Following Taylor [2002], we write R^2X for R^{R^X} .

Definition 4.4.

$$\begin{array}{lcl} K: \mathcal{C} & \rightarrow & \mathcal{C} \\ X & \mapsto & R^2X \\ X \xrightarrow{f} Y & \mapsto & \begin{array}{l} K(f): R^2X \rightarrow R^2Y \\ k' \mapsto \lambda(k: R^Y). k'(k \circ f) \end{array} \end{array}$$

The monad structure is given by:

Definition 4.5.

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \eta_X: X & \rightarrow & K(X) \\ x & \mapsto & \lambda(k: R^X). k(x) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{lcl} \mu_X: K^2(X) & \rightarrow & K(X) \\ k' & \mapsto & \lambda(k: R^X). k'(\lambda(k'': R^2X). k''(k)) \end{array}$$

K is canonically strong with respect to \times , because \mathcal{C} is cartesian closed. The left and right strengths are given by:

Definition 4.6.

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \tau_{X,Y}: X \times KY & \rightarrow & K(X \times Y) \\ (x, k') & \mapsto & K(\lambda(y: Y). (x, y))(k') \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{lcl} \sigma_{X,Y}: KX \times Y & \rightarrow & K(X \times Y) \\ (k', y) & \mapsto & K(\lambda(x: X). (x, y))(k') \end{array}$$

The continuation monad K is not commutative because there are two ways to go from $KX \times KY \rightarrow K(X \times Y)$ and they are not necessarily equal. If K were commutative, then \mathcal{C}_K (the Kleisli category of K) would be star-autonomous (an observation by Hasegawa, see [Melliès and Tabareau 2007]). We write one of the maps (following right-to-left evaluation order) as:

Definition 4.7.

$$\beta_{X,Y} \triangleq K(X) \times K(Y) \xrightarrow{\tau_{KX,Y}} K(KX \times Y) \xrightarrow{K\sigma_{X,Y}} K^2(X \times Y) \xrightarrow{\mu_{X \times Y}} K(X \times Y)$$

Given a Kleisli arrow $f: X \rightarrow KY$, its lift is $f^\dagger: KX \xrightarrow{Kf} K^2Y \xrightarrow{\mu_Y} KY$. The Kleisli composition of $X \xrightarrow{f} KY$ and $Y \xrightarrow{g} KZ$ is $X \xrightarrow{f} KY \xrightarrow{g^\dagger} KZ$. K has Kleisli exponentials since:

$$\mathcal{C}_K(Z \times X, Y) \equiv \mathcal{C}(Z \times X, KY) \equiv \mathcal{C}(Z, X \rightarrow KY) \equiv \mathcal{C}(Z, X \Rightarrow Y).$$

Coproducts in \mathcal{C}_K are given by the underlying coproducts in \mathcal{C} :

$$\mathcal{C}_K(X + Y, Z) \equiv \mathcal{C}(X + Y, KZ) \equiv \mathcal{C}(X, KZ) \times \mathcal{C}(Y, KZ) \equiv \mathcal{C}_K(X, Z) \times \mathcal{C}_K(Y, Z).$$

Finally, we have this hom-set isomorphism in \mathcal{C}_K :

$$\mathcal{C}_K(Z \times R^X, Y) \equiv \mathcal{C}(Z \times R^X, R^Y) \cong \mathcal{C}(Z \times R^X \times R^Y, R) \cong \mathcal{C}(Z \times R^{X+Y}, R) \cong \mathcal{C}(Z, R^{R^{X+Y}}) \equiv \mathcal{C}_K(Z, X+Y).$$

638 Observe that $(-) \times R^X$ is an endofunctor on \mathcal{C}_K , since:

$$639 \quad Y \xrightarrow{f} KZ \mapsto Y \times R^X \xrightarrow{f \times R^X} KZ \times R^X \xrightarrow{\sigma_{Z, R^X}} K(Z \times R^X).$$

641 This means, we have the following adjoint situation in \mathcal{C}_K , where ${}^X Y \triangleq Y \times R^X$:

$$642 \quad {}^X(-) \dashv X + (-).$$

644 To work with exponentials and co-exponentials, we adopt the musical notation of adjoints (flats on
645 the left, sharps on the right) as follows: Currying/uncurrying is the right/left adjoint operation in
646 $(-) \times X \dashv (-)^X$. Co-currying/co-uncurrying is the left/right adjoint operation in ${}^X(-) \dashv X + (-)$.

647 *Definition 4.8.*

- 648 • The exponential of B by A is written as B^A .
- 649 • Given $f: C \times A \rightarrow B$, the currying of f is $f^\sharp: C \rightarrow B^A$.
- 650 • Given $g: C \rightarrow B^A$, the uncurrying of g is $g^\flat: C \times A \rightarrow B$.
- 651 • Evaluation is $\text{ev}_{A,B}: B^A \times A \rightarrow B \triangleq \text{id}_{B^A}^\flat$.
- 652 • The co-exponential of B by A is written as ${}^A B$.
- 653 • Given $f: B \rightarrow A + C$, the co-currying of f is $f^\flat: {}^A B \rightarrow C$.
- 654 • Given $g: {}^A B \rightarrow C$, the co-uncurrying of g is $g^\sharp: B \rightarrow A + C$.
- 655 • Co-evaluation is $\text{coev}_{A,B}: B \rightarrow A + {}^A B \triangleq \text{id}_{A^B}^\sharp$.

658 4.3 The Indiana Control Operators

659 The conceptual understanding of the negation functor and the interplay of sums and products in
660 $\mathcal{C}_R, \mathcal{C}_K$ is crucial to understanding the computational behaviour of control. We don't say much
661 about the axiomatics here, but this is used in § 6.

662 The Kleisli inclusion is an ioo functor, and has a right adjoint, hence preserves coproducts. 0 is
663 an initial object in \mathcal{C}_K , and further $K(0) = R^2 0 \cong R^1 \cong R$. Note that, 0 is not a strict initial object,
664 meaning that, having an arrow $A \rightarrow 0$ does not imply $A \cong 0$. We can have non-trivial arrows to 0 ,
665 and these are indeed continuations of A in \mathcal{C}_K . The R object in \mathcal{C}_K enjoys a special status, producing
666 control operators.

667 The Indiana control operators (Felleisen's \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{C}) are developed in our semantics as follows.
668 These are axiomatically understood using Hofmann [1995]'s equations. (also see [Hyland et al.
669 2007, prop 1, 2]).

$$670 \quad \mathcal{C}_A \triangleq R^{R^A} \xrightarrow{\sim} R^{R^A}$$

$$671 \quad \mathcal{A}_A \triangleq (A \xrightarrow{t_1} A + B \xrightarrow{\eta_{A+B}} K(A + B))^\flat: A \times R^A \rightarrow K(B)$$

$$672 \quad \text{tnd}_A \triangleq (\Gamma \times R^A \xrightarrow{\pi_2} R^A \xrightarrow{\eta_{R^A}} K(R^A))^\sharp: \Gamma \rightarrow K(A + R^A)$$

$$673 \quad \text{call}_{\mathcal{C}_A}(\Gamma \times R^A \xrightarrow{f} K(A)) \triangleq \Gamma \xrightarrow{f^\sharp} K(A + A) \xrightarrow{K\nabla_A} K(A)$$

$$674 \quad \text{call}/\text{cc}_{\mathcal{A},B}(\Gamma \times (R^{R^B \times A}) \xrightarrow{f} K(A)) \triangleq \Gamma \xrightarrow{f^\sharp} K(R^B \times A + A) \xrightarrow{K[\pi_2, 1_A]} K(A)$$

675 The duplicating nature of pattern matching on sums is understood using:

$$676 \quad \begin{array}{ccc} K(A + B) & \xrightarrow{K[f,g]} & KC \\ \wr \Big| & & \Big\| \\ R^{R^A \times R^B} & \xrightarrow{R^{(R^f, R^g)}} & R^2 C \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\llbracket \mathbf{1} \rrbracket \triangleq 1 & \llbracket A \times B \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket A \rrbracket \times \llbracket B \rrbracket & \\
\llbracket \mathbf{0} \rrbracket \triangleq 0 & \llbracket A + B \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket A \rrbracket + \llbracket B \rrbracket & \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket \triangleq 1 \\
\llbracket A \Rightarrow B \rrbracket \triangleq (K[\llbracket B \rrbracket])^{\llbracket A \rrbracket} & \llbracket \tilde{A} \rrbracket \triangleq R^{\llbracket A \rrbracket} & \llbracket \Gamma, x : A \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \times \llbracket A \rrbracket \\
\text{(a) } \llbracket A \rrbracket : \text{Obj} & & \text{(b) } \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket : \text{Obj}
\end{array}$$

Fig. 4. Interpretation of types and contexts

5 INTERPRETATION

We now give an interpretation for $\tilde{\lambda}\tilde{\lambda}$ using the categorical structure we've defined. This is standard call-by-value semantics from Moggi [1989], with the addition of coproducts and coexponentials.

Types and contexts. Types and contexts are interpreted as objects in \mathcal{C} , as shown in figure 4.

Expressions. Expressions are interpreted as Kleisli arrows, that is, morphisms in \mathcal{C}_K , as shown in figure 5. This is standard call-by-value semantics from Moggi [1989], with sums and cofunctions. Sums use the cocartesian structure, and distributivity for case. Cofunctions are interpreted using the coexponential adjunction.

Weakening and Substitution. Membership and weakening are interpreted using projections of contexts, as shown in figure 6. To interpret substitutions, we need a value interpretation. The interpretation of values and substitutions is shown in figure 7. The value interpretation is coherent with the expression interpretation, which we use to prove semantic weakening and substitution, in theorem 5.1.

THEOREM 5.1 (SEMANTIC WEAKENING AND SUBSTITUTION).

- If $\Gamma \vdash v : A$, then $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash v : A \rrbracket = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash v : A \rrbracket_v ; \eta_A$.
- If $\Gamma \supseteq \Delta$ and $\Delta \vdash e : A$, then $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash e : A \rrbracket = \text{Wk}(\Gamma \supseteq \Delta) ; \llbracket \Delta \vdash e : A \rrbracket$.
- If $\Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta$ and $\Delta \vdash e : A$, then $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \theta(e) : A \rrbracket = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta \rrbracket ; \llbracket \Delta \vdash e : A \rrbracket$.

Soundness. Using § 4.2, and by unpacking the definition of the continuation monad, we can show that this is sound with respect to the CPS translation in § 4.1.

THEOREM 5.2. If $\Gamma \vdash e : A$, then $(\llbracket e \rrbracket_A)^Y(k) = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e : A \rrbracket(\gamma, k)$, for any $\gamma \in \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket$ and $k \in \llbracket A \rrbracket \rightarrow R$.

6 EQUATIONAL THEORY

The purpose of giving a categorical semantics is to produce an equational theory for the language – which is to be understood as an axiomatic theory generated by an operational semantics. On top of the axiomatic equational theory, we add control effects, validated by our semantics. The equivalence and congruence rules are standard, and we give the additional conversion rules in figure 8.

The conversion rules are the basic ones for call-by-value – extended with sums and co-exponentials in figure 8. Beta laws for both functions and cofunctions are upto values, because substitution holds for values. Functions satisfy eta laws upto values, because these are Kleisli exponentials. But the coexponential adjunction lives in the computation category, so cofunctions satisfy eta laws for expressions! These equations don't perform any control effects – so far they're only exploiting the two adjunctions to validate binding rules.

The real test for an equational theory of continuations is in the axiomatics of control operators [Hyland et al. 2007]. In our calculus, the role of control operators is played by $\tilde{\lambda}$, case, and their interaction with sums. We design equations for control effects in $\tilde{\lambda}\tilde{\lambda}$ in figure 8. These are inspired

$$\begin{aligned}
& \llbracket \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \star : \mathbf{1}} \rrbracket \triangleq !_{\Gamma} ; \eta_1 \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : A \times B} \rrbracket \triangleq \text{let } \begin{cases} f \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \rrbracket \\ g \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_2 : B \rrbracket \end{cases} \\
& \quad \text{in } \langle f, g \rangle ; \beta_{A,B} \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst}(e) : A} \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \rrbracket ; K\pi_1 \quad \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd}(e) : B} \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_2 : B \rrbracket ; K\pi_2 \\
& \llbracket \frac{x : A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : A} \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket x : A \in \Gamma \rrbracket ; \eta_A \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda(x : A). e : A \Rightarrow B} \rrbracket \triangleq \text{let } f \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma, x : A \vdash e : B \rrbracket \\
& \quad \text{in } f^{\#} ; \eta_{A \rightarrow KB} \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \Rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : A}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : B} \rrbracket \triangleq \text{let } \begin{cases} f \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \Rightarrow B \rrbracket \\ g \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_2 : A \rrbracket \end{cases} \\
& \quad \text{in } \langle f, g \rangle ; \beta_{A \rightarrow KB, A} ; K\text{ev}_{A, KB} ; \mu_B \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(e) : A + B} \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e : A \rrbracket ; Ki_1 \quad \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(e) : A + B} \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e : B \rrbracket ; Ki_2 \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A + B \quad \Gamma, x : e_2 \vdash A : C \quad \Gamma, y : e_3 \vdash B : C}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case}(e_1, x. e_2, y. e_3) : C} \rrbracket \triangleq \text{let } \begin{cases} f \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_1 : A + B \rrbracket \\ g_1 \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma, x : A \vdash e_2 : C \rrbracket \\ g_2 \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma, y : B \vdash e_3 : C \rrbracket \end{cases} \\
& \quad \text{in } \langle \text{id}_{\Gamma}, f \rangle ; \sigma_{\Gamma, A} ; K\delta_{\Gamma, A, B} ; K[g_1, g_2] ; \mu_C \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). e : A + B} \rrbracket \triangleq \text{let } f \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash e : B \rrbracket \\
& \quad \text{in } f^{\#} \\
& \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : A + B \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tilde{A}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \tilde{e}_2 : B} \rrbracket \triangleq \text{let } \begin{cases} f \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_1 : A + B \rrbracket \\ g \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tilde{A} \rrbracket \end{cases} \\
& \quad \text{in } \langle f, g \rangle ; \tau_{K(A+B), R^A} ; K\text{id}_{K(A+B)}^b ; \mu_B
\end{aligned}$$

Fig. 5. Interpretation of expressions, $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash e : A \rrbracket : \text{Hom}(\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, K\llbracket A \rrbracket)$

by Hofmann [1995] and Hofmann and Streicher [2002]’s equations, and Selinger [2001] equations for $\text{cbv } \lambda\mu$. We use evaluation contexts instead of commuting conversions, with appropriate freeness assumptions $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E} \langle \cdot \rangle \mid e \ \mathcal{E} \mid \mathcal{E} \ v \mid e \ \tilde{\mathcal{E}} \mid \tilde{e} \ \mathcal{E} \mid \text{fst}(\mathcal{E}) \mid \text{snd}(\mathcal{E}) \mid (e, \mathcal{E}) \mid (\mathcal{E}, v)$. We remark that these operators have better types (than $\text{callcc}/\text{abort}$) – better types give better equations!

$\tilde{\lambda}$ -CONST is the constant rule – when the covalue is not used, it’s a right-biased sum (cf. Selinger’s let_{name}). The next two rules are the interaction of normal sums and cofunctions. $\tilde{\lambda}$ -inr-PASS is like transparent passthrough, or that inr produces normal return – if the covalue was created by $\tilde{\lambda}$ but then used with inr , it might as well have never been created. $\tilde{\lambda}$ -inl-JUMP is the interesting control effect, it is a non-local “jump with argument” (see [Thielecke 1999; Levy 2003]), where we throw to

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$$\begin{array}{l}
\llbracket \frac{}{\cdot \supseteq \cdot} \rrbracket \triangleq id_1 \\
\llbracket \frac{}{x : A \in (\Gamma, x : A)} \rrbracket \triangleq \pi_2 \\
\llbracket \frac{x : A \in \Gamma \quad (x \neq y)}{x : A \in (\Gamma, y : B)} \rrbracket \triangleq \pi_1 ; \llbracket x : A \in \Gamma \rrbracket \\
\llbracket \frac{}{x : A \in \Gamma} \rrbracket : \text{Hom}(\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, \llbracket A \rrbracket) \\
\llbracket \frac{}{\cdot \supseteq \cdot} \rrbracket \triangleq id_1 \\
\llbracket \frac{\Gamma \supseteq \Delta}{\Gamma, x : A \supseteq \Delta} \rrbracket \triangleq \pi_1 ; \llbracket \Gamma \supseteq \Delta \rrbracket \\
\llbracket \frac{\Gamma \supseteq \Delta}{\Gamma, x : A \supseteq \Delta, x : A} \rrbracket \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \supseteq \Delta \rrbracket \times id_A \\
\text{Wk}(\Gamma \supseteq \Delta) \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \supseteq \Delta \rrbracket : \text{Hom}(\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket)
\end{array}$$

Fig. 6. Interpretation of Membership and Weakening

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\llbracket \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \star : \mathbf{1}} \rrbracket_v \triangleq !_\Gamma \\
\llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash v_1 : A \quad \Gamma \vdash v_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash (v_1, v_2) : A \times B} \rrbracket_v \triangleq \langle \llbracket \Gamma \vdash v_1 : A \rrbracket_v, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash v_2 : B \rrbracket_v \rangle \\
\llbracket \frac{x : A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : A} \rrbracket_v \triangleq \llbracket x : A \in \Gamma \rrbracket \\
\llbracket \frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda(x : A). e : A \Rightarrow B} \rrbracket_v \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma, x : A \vdash e : B \rrbracket^\# \\
\llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(e) : A + B} \rrbracket_v \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash v : A \rrbracket_v ; i_1 \quad \llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(e) : A + B} \rrbracket_v \triangleq \llbracket \Gamma \vdash v : B \rrbracket_v ; i_2 \\
\llbracket \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \langle \rangle : \cdot} \rrbracket \triangleq !_\Gamma \\
\llbracket \frac{\Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta \quad \Gamma \vdash v : A}{\Gamma \vdash \langle \theta, v/x \rangle : \Delta, x : A} \rrbracket \triangleq \langle \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta \rrbracket, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash v : A \rrbracket_v \rangle \\
\llbracket \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \theta : \Delta} \rrbracket : \text{Hom}(\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket)
\end{array}$$

Fig. 7. Interpretation of values and substitution

the left. This behaves like Felleisen's \mathcal{A} (Hofmann's \mathcal{A} – ABS equation), *backtracking* to where the speculative choice was created, resuming with the value of the argument. The evaluation context gets discarded – to an observer this speculative computation never ran.

The next control effect is the interaction of case and cofunctions. $\tilde{\lambda}$ makes a speculative choice, and case is trying to observe this choice. $\tilde{\lambda}$ evaluates its body to a value – then speculatively offers the right side of the choice to the observer. The interesting behaviour happens when the observer uses the bound covalue to do another effect! Finally, CASE- ζ shows the duplication of evaluation contexts on both branches of case. These equations are proven sound with respect to the semantics developed.

THEOREM 6.1 (SOUNDNESS OF EQUATIONAL THEORY). *If $\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A$, then $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_1 : A \rrbracket = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e_2 : A \rrbracket$.*

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$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash v : \mathbf{1}}{\Gamma \vdash v \approx \star : \mathbf{1}} \mathbf{1}\eta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash v_1 : A \quad \Gamma \vdash v_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst}((v_1, v_2)) \approx v_1 : A} \times_1\beta \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash v_1 : A \quad \Gamma \vdash v_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd}((v_1, v_2)) \approx v_2 : B} \times_2\beta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash v : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{fst}(v), \text{snd}(v)) \approx v : A \times B} \times\eta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash v : A \quad \Gamma, x : A \vdash e_1 : C \quad \Gamma, y : B \vdash e_2 : C}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case}(\text{inl}(v), x. e_1, y. e_2) \approx [v/x]e_1 : C} +\text{inl}\beta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash v : B \quad \Gamma, x : A \vdash e_1 : C \quad \Gamma, y : B \vdash e_2 : C}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case}(\text{inr}(v), x. e_1, y. e_2) \approx [v/y]e_2 : C} +\text{inr}\beta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A + B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case}(e, x. \text{inl}(x), y. \text{inr}(y)) \approx e : A + B} +\eta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash e : B \quad \Gamma \vdash v : A}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda(x : A). e) v \approx [v/x]e : B} \Rightarrow\beta \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash v : A \Rightarrow B}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda(x : A). v x) \approx v : A \Rightarrow B} \Rightarrow\eta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash e : B \quad \Gamma \vdash v : \tilde{A}}{\Gamma \vdash (\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). e) v \approx [v/x]e : B} \tilde{\lambda}\beta \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A + B}{\Gamma \vdash (\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). \tilde{e} \tilde{x}) \approx e : A + B} \tilde{\lambda}\eta
\end{array}$$

(a) Conversion rules for the equational theory of $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$

Fig. 8. Equational theory of $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$

PROOF. These are checked using universal properties, and value and substitution lemmas. For control effects, we develop some axiomatic structure of control operators and exploit them. \square

From this, it also follows that the equational theory is sound with respect to the continuation semantics.

COROLLARY 6.2. *If $\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A$, then for any γ and k , $(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket_A^\gamma(k) = \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket_A^\gamma(k))$.*

To understand these equations better, we give them a workout. The well-known operational semantics of TND [Wadler 2003] can be checked by running these two programs, that try to observe $\tilde{\lambda}x. x$ with case.

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\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash (\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). e) \approx \text{inr}_A(e) : A + B} \tilde{\lambda}\text{-CONST} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : B \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{E}\langle\langle e \rangle\rangle : C \quad \Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash \mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{inr}_A(e) \rangle\rangle x \rangle : C}{\Gamma \vdash (\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). \mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{inr}_A(e) \rangle\rangle x \rangle) \approx \text{inr}_A(\mathcal{E}\langle\langle e \rangle\rangle) : A + C} \tilde{\lambda}\text{-inr-PASS} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \quad \Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash \mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{inl}_C(e) \rangle\rangle x \rangle : B}{\Gamma \vdash (\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). \mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{inl}_C(e) \rangle\rangle x \rangle) \approx \text{inl}_B(e) : A + B} \tilde{\lambda}\text{-inl-JUMP} \\
\frac{\Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash v : B \quad \Gamma, y : A \vdash e_1 : C \quad \Gamma, z : \tilde{A} \vdash e_2 : C}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case}(\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). v), y, e_1, z, e_2) \approx \text{case}(\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). [v/z]e_2), x, e_1, z, z) : C} \text{CASE-}\tilde{\lambda}\text{-}\beta \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{case}(e, x, e_1, y, e_2) \rangle\rangle : C \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{case}(e, x, \mathcal{E}\langle\langle e_1 \rangle\rangle, y, \mathcal{E}\langle\langle e_2 \rangle\rangle) : C}{\Gamma \vdash \mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{case}(e, x, e_1, y, e_2) \rangle\rangle \approx \text{case}(e, x, \mathcal{E}\langle\langle e_1 \rangle\rangle, y, \mathcal{E}\langle\langle e_2 \rangle\rangle) : C} \text{CASE-}\zeta
\end{array}$$

Fig. 8. Control effects in $\tilde{\lambda}\tilde{\lambda}$

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\text{case}(\tilde{\lambda}x. x, a, 0, k, 1) & \text{case}(\tilde{\lambda}x. x, a, 0, k, \widetilde{\text{inl}(1) k}) \\
\rightsquigarrow \text{case}(\tilde{\lambda}x. 1, a, 0, y, y) & \rightsquigarrow \text{case}(\tilde{\lambda}x. \widetilde{\text{inl}(1) x}, a, 0, y, y) \\
\rightsquigarrow \text{case}(\text{inr}(1), a, 0, y, y) & \rightsquigarrow \text{case}(\text{inl}(1), a, 0, y, y) \\
\rightsquigarrow 1 & \rightsquigarrow 0
\end{array}$$

We can define $\mathcal{C}_A : \tilde{\tilde{A}} \rightarrow A$ and its inverse from TND (double negation elimination and introduction).

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\text{fun } C \text{ (kka : co (co a)) =} & \text{fun } C^{\wedge} \text{ (a : a) =} \\
\text{case (cofn } x \Rightarrow x) \text{ of} & \text{case (cofn } x \Rightarrow x) \text{ of} \\
\text{INL } a \Rightarrow a & \text{INL } ka \Rightarrow (\text{INL } a) @ ka \\
| \text{INR } ka \Rightarrow (\text{INL } ka) @ kka & | \text{INR } kka \Rightarrow ka
\end{array}$$

We can further verify that these equations validate Hofmann and Streicher [1997]’s axiomatics of cbv control operators. Since we don’t have $\mathbf{0}$, some of these equations have to be adjusted from Hofmann’s versions.

PROPOSITION 6.3. *The equational theory validates these equations:*

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\mathcal{C}_A(\hat{\mathcal{C}}(e)) = e & \mathcal{C}\text{-APP} \\
\text{callcc}_A(\lambda(k : \tilde{A}). \mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{inl}(e) k \rangle\rangle) = e & \text{callcc-APP} \\
\text{call/cc}_{A,B}(\lambda(k : A \rightarrow B). \mathcal{E}\langle\langle k e \rangle\rangle) = e & \text{call/cc-ABS} \\
\text{call/cc}_{A,B}(e) = \text{call/cc}_{A,C}(\lambda(k : A \rightarrow C). e(\lambda(x : A). \mathcal{E}\langle\langle kx \rangle\rangle)) & \text{call/cc-APP} \\
\mathcal{E}\langle\langle \text{call/cc}_{A,B} \rangle\rangle = \text{call/cc}_{C,B}(\lambda(k : C \rightarrow B). \mathcal{E}\langle\langle e(\lambda(x : A). k(\mathcal{E}\langle\langle x \rangle\rangle)) \rangle\rangle) & \text{call/cc-NAT}
\end{array}$$

Not including the $\mathbf{0}$ type is a stylistic choice, not a semantic one, since it is interpreted by R , and $\tilde{\tilde{A}}$ becomes equivalent to $A \Rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ after adding equations for \mathcal{A} . We prefer to abort using sums, by inl

and coapplication, which is semantically equivalent. Another approach is to add a judgement for non-returning programs, like in Zeilberger [2009]’s cbv CPS calculus, or Levy [2003]’s JwA.

7 DUALITY OF ARROWS

The λ -calculus (or higher-order functions) can be decomposed into first-order κ/ζ calculi [Hasegawa 1995] with value/variable arrows. Building on the theme of duality – we show the decomposition of $\tilde{\lambda}$ (or higher-order cofunctions) into first-order $\tilde{\kappa}/\tilde{\zeta}$ calculi with covariable/covalue (co)arrows.

The essential idea behind this is Lambek [1974]’s functional completeness – a consequence of cartesian closure. We perform a conceptual reconstruction of Hasegawa’s ideas using abstract properties of (co)monads and adjunctions, allowing us to dualise each step.

7.1 Dualizing Functional Completeness

From an observation, originally due to Hermida [1993]:

PROPOSITION 7.1 (HERMIDA [1993, PROP. 5.2.1]). *Given a comonad $G: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ and its Kleisli resolution $F_G \dashv U_G: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_G$,*

the following are equivalent:

- (1) *G has a right adjoint $G \dashv T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$.*
- (2) *U_G has a right adjoint $U_G \dashv R: \mathcal{C}_G \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$.*

Under either of the above equivalent hypotheses, $T (= R \circ U_G)$ is the functor part of a monad, and the corresponding Kleisli category \mathcal{C}_T is isomorphic to \mathcal{C}_G .

Dually, if a monad $T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ has Kleisli resolution $U_T \dashv F_T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_T$, the following are equivalent:

- (1) *T has a left adjoint $G \dashv T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$.*
- (2) *U_T has a left adjoint $L \dashv U_T: \mathcal{C}_T \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$.*

Then, $G (= L \circ F_T)$ is the functor part of a comonad, and the corresponding Kleisli category \mathcal{C}_G is isomorphic to \mathcal{C}_T .

PROOF. Starting from (1), the functor R is given by T on objects, and for $Ga \xrightarrow{f} b$, acts on morphisms as $Ta \xrightarrow{T\eta_a} TGTa \xrightarrow{T\delta_{Ta}} TGGTa \xrightarrow{TG\epsilon_a} TGa \xrightarrow{Tf} Tb$. This makes $T = R \circ U_G$ a monad. Hermida gives a direct calculation of the monad structure. \square

The informal idea is that in the λ -calculus, $C \times (-)$ is a reader/coreader/environment comonad, with a free value $1 \rightsquigarrow C$, and its right adjoint $C \Rightarrow (-)$ is a reader monad, with a free value $1 \rightsquigarrow C$ injected into its environment. Dually, $C + (-)$ is an exception monad, with a free covalue $C \rightsquigarrow 0$ in its environment, that is, an escape hatch to jump to C . In $\tilde{\lambda}$ (with cocartesian coclosure), this has a left adjoint comonad ${}^c(-)$, which merits the name: exception/coexception/handler comonad. It has a free covalue $C \rightsquigarrow 0$ injected into its environment, or, a handler for C .

PROPOSITION 7.2. *In a cartesian closed category with $c \times (-) \dashv (-)^c: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$:*

- (1) *$c \times (-): \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a comonad.*
- (2) *$(-)^c: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a monad.*
- (3) *Their Kleisli categories are equivalent: $\mathcal{C}(c \times a, b) \cong \mathcal{C}(a, b^c)$.*
- (4) *Their Kleisli categories are cartesian closed.*

In a cocartesian coclosed category with ${}^c(-) \dashv c + (-): \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$:

- (1) *$c + (-): \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a monad.*
- (2) *${}^c(-): \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a comonad.*
- (3) *Their Kleisli categories are equivalent: $\mathcal{C}({}^c a, b) \cong \mathcal{C}(a, c + b)$.*

(4) Their Kleisli categories are cocartesian coclosed.

The Kleisli category $\mathcal{C}_{c \times (-)}$, written $\mathcal{C}[c]$, has a generic element (value) $e_c : 1 \rightarrow c$, given by $c \times 1 \xrightarrow{\sim} c$. This is Hasegawa's "fullness condition": $\mathcal{C}[c](1, -) \cong \mathcal{C}(c, -)$. Dually, the Kleisli category $\mathcal{C}_{c+(-)}$, written $\mathcal{C}[\tilde{c}]$, has a generic element (covalue) $e_{\tilde{c}} : c \rightarrow 0$, given by $c \xrightarrow{\sim} c + 0$. From this, we derive functional completeness and its dual:

PROPOSITION 7.3 (FUNCTIONAL COMPLETENESS). *Let \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{D} be cartesian closed categories and $F : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ a ccc functor. Let $c \in \mathcal{C}$, and $t : F(1) \cong 1 \rightarrow F(c)$ be an element in \mathcal{D} . There is a unique (upto isomorphism) extension of F to a ccc functor $\tilde{F} : \mathcal{C}[c] \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$, such that $\tilde{F} \circ U_{c \times (-)} \cong F$, and $F(e_c) = t$.*

Dually, let \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{D} be cocartesian coclosed categories and $F : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ a cocc functor. Let $c \in \mathcal{C}$, and $t : F(c) \rightarrow F(0) \cong 0$ be an element in \mathcal{D} . There is a unique (upto isomorphism) extension of F to a cocc functor $\tilde{F} : \mathcal{C}[\tilde{c}] \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$, such that $\tilde{F} \circ U_{c+(-)} \cong F$, and $F(e_{\tilde{c}}) = t$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{C} & \xrightarrow{U_{c \times (-)}} & \mathcal{C}[c] \\ & \searrow F & \downarrow \tilde{F} \\ & & \mathcal{D} \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{C} & \xrightarrow{F_{c+(-)}} & \mathcal{C}[\tilde{c}] \\ & \searrow F & \downarrow \tilde{F} \\ & & \mathcal{D} \end{array}$$

PROOF. \tilde{F} is given by F on objects, and on morphisms calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} F(a) &\xrightarrow{\sim} 1 \times F(a) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(1) \times F(a) \xrightarrow{t \times F(a)} F(c) \times F(a) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(c \times a) \xrightarrow{F(f)} F(b) \\ F(a) &\xrightarrow{F(f)} F(c + b) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(c) + F(b) \xrightarrow{t + F(b)} F(0) + F(b) \xrightarrow{\sim} 0 + F(b) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(b) \end{aligned}$$

□

The Kleisli resolutions of these monads/comonads produce Hasegawa's left/right adjoints to inclusion functors, giving κ/ζ abstraction, and their duals $\tilde{\kappa}/\tilde{\zeta}$ abstraction.

$$\begin{array}{ll} F_{c \times (-)} + U_{c \times (-)} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}[c] & F_{(-)^c} + U_{(-)^c} : \mathcal{C}[c] \rightarrow \mathcal{C} \\ F_{c+(-)} + U_{c+(-)} : \mathcal{C}[\tilde{c}] \rightarrow \mathcal{C} & F_{e(-)} + U_{e(-)} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}[\tilde{c}] \end{array}$$

7.2 κ/ζ and $\tilde{\kappa}/\tilde{\zeta}$ calculi

From this analysis, we extract a presentation of the dual $\tilde{\kappa}/\tilde{\zeta}$ calculi, with substitution and equations, given in figures 9 and 10. We see the $-$ type in action, for the handler comonad.

Just as κ and ζ can be understood as first-order languages for understanding functions, $\tilde{\kappa}$ and $\tilde{\zeta}$ can be understood as first-order languages for understanding exceptions and handlers. By interpreting in our running cocc category \mathcal{C}_K , a covalue $c : C \rightsquigarrow 0$ is a $C \rightarrow R^2 0 \cong C \rightarrow R$ – a continuation, and these first-order operations bind and apply covales on arrows, changing control flow. The type $A - C$ is interpreted as A with a handler for C attached, and $C + B$ is a B program that could throw an A . The operators themselves don't have control effects.

As an example, suppose we have a sequential program:

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \xrightarrow{h} D \xrightarrow{e} E$$

We decide to inspect the program at C , so we insert a code pointer (or breakpoint):

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{\tilde{\zeta} z^Z . g} Z + C \xrightarrow{h^Z} Z + D \xrightarrow{\overline{\text{pass}}_D(z)} D \xrightarrow{e} E$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
1030 \quad [x : \mathbf{1} \rightsquigarrow C] \\
1031 \quad \vdots \\
1032 \quad f : A \rightsquigarrow B \\
1033 \quad \hline
1034 \quad \kappa x^C.f : (C \times A) \rightsquigarrow B \quad \times L \\
1035 \\
1036 \quad c : \mathbf{1} \rightsquigarrow C \\
1037 \quad \hline
1038 \quad \text{lift}_A(c) : A \rightsquigarrow (C \times A) \quad \times R \\
1039 \\
1040 \\
1041 \quad c : \mathbf{1} \rightsquigarrow C \\
1042 \quad \hline
1043 \quad \text{pass}_B(c) : (C \Rightarrow B) \rightsquigarrow B \quad \Rightarrow L \\
1044 \\
1045 \quad [x : \mathbf{1} \rightsquigarrow C] \\
1046 \quad \vdots \\
1047 \quad f : A \rightsquigarrow B \\
1048 \quad \hline
1049 \quad \zeta x^C.f : A \rightsquigarrow (C \Rightarrow B) \quad \Rightarrow R \\
1050 \\
1051 \\
1052 \\
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1077 \\
1078
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
[x : \mathbf{1} \rightsquigarrow C] \\
\vdots \\
f : A \rightsquigarrow B \quad c : \mathbf{1} \rightsquigarrow C \\
\hline
(\kappa x^C.f) \circ \text{lift}_A(c) \equiv f[c/x] : A \rightsquigarrow B \quad \kappa^+ \\
h : (C \times A) \rightsquigarrow B \\
\hline
\kappa x^C.(h \circ \text{lift}_A(x)) \equiv h : (C \times A) \rightsquigarrow B \quad \kappa^- \\
(a) \kappa \text{ calculus} \\
h : A \rightsquigarrow (C \Rightarrow B) \\
\hline
\zeta x^C.(\text{pass}_B(x) \circ h) \equiv h : A \rightsquigarrow (C \Rightarrow B) \quad \zeta^- \\
[x : \mathbf{1} \rightsquigarrow C] \\
\vdots \\
f : A \rightsquigarrow B \\
\hline
\text{pass}_B(c) \circ (\zeta x^C.f) \equiv f[c/x] : A \rightsquigarrow B \quad \zeta^+ \\
(b) \zeta \text{ calculus}
\end{array}$$

Fig. 9. κ and ζ calculi

$$\begin{array}{c}
1054 \quad [x : C \rightsquigarrow \mathbf{0}] \\
1055 \quad \vdots \\
1056 \quad f : A \rightsquigarrow B \\
1057 \quad \hline
1058 \quad \tilde{\kappa} x^C.f : (A - C) \rightsquigarrow B \quad -L \\
1059 \\
1060 \quad c : C \rightsquigarrow \mathbf{0} \\
1061 \quad \hline
1062 \quad \widetilde{\text{lift}}_A(c) : A \rightsquigarrow (A - C) \quad -R \\
1063 \\
1064 \\
1065 \quad c : C \rightsquigarrow \mathbf{0} \\
1066 \quad \hline
1067 \quad \widetilde{\text{pass}}_B(c) : (C + B) \rightsquigarrow B \quad +L \\
1068 \\
1069 \quad [x : C \rightsquigarrow \mathbf{0}] \\
1070 \quad \vdots \\
1071 \quad f : A \rightsquigarrow B \\
1072 \quad \hline
1073 \quad \tilde{\zeta} x^C.f : A \rightsquigarrow (C + B) \quad +R \\
1074 \\
1075 \\
1076 \\
1077 \\
1078
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
[x : C \rightsquigarrow \mathbf{0}] \\
\vdots \\
f : A \rightsquigarrow B \\
\hline
\tilde{\kappa} x^C.f \circ \widetilde{\text{lift}}_A(c) \equiv f[c/x] : A \rightsquigarrow B \quad \tilde{\kappa}^+ \\
h : (A - C) \rightsquigarrow B \\
\hline
\tilde{\kappa} x^C.(h \circ \widetilde{\text{lift}}_A(x)) \equiv h : (A - C) \rightsquigarrow B \quad \kappa^- \\
(a) \tilde{\kappa} \text{ calculus} \\
h : A \rightsquigarrow (C + B) \\
\hline
\tilde{\zeta} x^C.(\widetilde{\text{pass}}_B(x) \circ h) \equiv h : A \rightsquigarrow (C + B) \quad \tilde{\zeta}^- \\
[x : C \rightsquigarrow \mathbf{0}] \\
\vdots \\
f : A \rightsquigarrow B \\
\hline
\widetilde{\text{pass}}_B(c) \circ (\tilde{\zeta} x^C.f) \equiv f[c/x] : A \rightsquigarrow B \quad \tilde{\zeta}^+ \\
(b) \tilde{\zeta} \text{ calculus}
\end{array}$$

Fig. 10. $\tilde{\kappa}$ and $\tilde{\zeta}$ calculi

1079 The program h^Z could then use the Z path to do something interesting – inspect the program’s state
 1080 at that point, modify it, or return a Z value, skipping e and escaping. This suggests a mechanism
 1081 for debugging or checkpoints.

1082 8 IMPLEMENTING $\tilde{\lambda}$

1083 Conor McBride once said:

1084 **Moggi** [1989] taught the dog how to bark, **Wadler** [1993] made us bark ourselves.

1085 Unlike other dual calculi, ours readily adapts to control operators because of its natural deduction
 1086 style presentation, that can be implemented in or retrofit into a real-world programming language.
 1087 We can implement $\tilde{\lambda}$ using native continuations (like in SML), or we can implement it using a
 1088 continuation monad (like in Haskell). We describe both implementations, and their applications
 1089 are in the supplementary material.
 1090
 1091

1092 **SML.** In SML, we implement them using the native continuation type with control operators
 1093 `callcc/throw`, and sum types. This encoding shows how `colam/coapp` are like `callcc/throw`, but with
 1094 fancier types.
 1095

```

1096 signature COEXP =
1097 sig
1098   type 'a cont
1099   val colam : ('a cont → 'b) → ('a, 'b) either
1100   val coapp : ('a, 'b) either → 'a cont → 'b
1101 end
1102 structure Coexp: COEXP =
1103 struct
1104   type 'a cont = 'a cont
1105   fun colam (f : 'a cont → 'b) : ('a, 'b) either =
1106     callcc (fn (k : ('a, 'b) either cont) ⇒
1107       let val a = callcc (fn (ka : 'a cont) ⇒ throw k (INR (f ka)))
1108         in throw k (INL a)
1109       end)
1110   fun coapp (e : ('a, 'b) either) (k : 'a cont) : 'b =
1111     case e of
1112       INL a ⇒ throw k a
1113     | INR b ⇒ b
1114 end
  
```

1115 We then recover `callcc/throw` from `colam/coapp`.

```

1116
1117 fun codiag (e : ('a, 'a) either) : 'a =
1118   case e of
1119     INL a ⇒ a
1120   | INR a ⇒ a
1121 fun callcc (f : 'a cont → 'a) : 'a = codiag (colam f)
1122 fun throw (a : 'a) (k : 'a cont) : 'b = coapp (INL a) k
  
```

1123 **Haskell.** In Haskell, we implement using the continuation monad `Cont r`.
 1124
 1125
 1126
 1127

```

1128 colam :: ((a → r) → Cont r b) → Cont r (a + b)
1129 colam f = cont $ \k →
1130   let k1 = k . Left
1131       k2 = k . Right
1132   in runCont (f k1) k2
1133
1134 coapp :: Cont r (a + b) → (a → r) → Cont r b
1135 coapp e1 k1 = cont $ \k2 →
1136   runCont e1 $ \case
1137     Left a → k1 a
1138     Right b → k2 b
1139
1140
1141
1142
1143

```

Backtracking. These co-exponential combinators are useful for programming with two continuations (double-barrelled cps), which is a common style for backtracking, with a success and a failure continuation.

```

1144 swap :: a + b → b + a
1145 swap = either Right Left
1146
1147 assumeRight :: ((a → r) → Cont r b) → Cont r (a + b)
1148 assumeRight = colam
1149
1150 resolveRight :: Cont r (a + b) → (a → r) → Cont r b
1151 resolveRight = coapp
1152
1153 assumeLeft :: ((b → r) → Cont r a) → Cont r (a + b)
1154 assumeLeft = fmap swap . colam
1155
1156 resolveLeft :: Cont r (a + b) → (b → r) → Cont r a
1157 resolveLeft = coapp . fmap swap
1158
1159

```

Using this DSL for backtracking, we program a SAT solver, and backtracking tree search.

Effect handlers. Effect handlers are a natural example for managing stacks of continuations – the handler algebra $fr \rightarrow r$, and the generator $a \rightarrow r$, where f is the signature. Of course, this requires the result type to be manipulated in the type of the handler algebra. With this fancier type, effect handlers can be encoded by using a CPS-encoded Free monad, and using the co-exponential combinators to manipulate the stack of handlers.

These applications are worked out in the supplementary material.

9 DISCUSSION

The theme of this work is the duality of currying and cocurrying, which is used to produce a duality of abstraction – for values and covalues. This is a useful perspective showing that values and continuations are dual to each other and have the same ontological status. Continuations producing left adjoints to sums provides insights into the behavior of sums and control flow.

Axiomatics of control effects. We conflated value sums and computational sums – but this language can also be presented in fine-grained call-by-value, and then axiomatized using Freyd categories. This is a framework for studying equations for control effects, which we will pursue in

future work, and also understand the status of completeness with respect to CPS semantics. The state of the art is in the work of [Führmann and Thielecke \[2004\]](#), and their reflection/structure theorems.

This calculus presented shows how covalues/continuations are *capabilities* – they provide an escape catch to perform control effects. This is a good fit for the purity comonads of [Choudhury and Krishnaswami \[2020\]](#). Dropping capability variables from the context would block control effects, recovering pure sums from backtracking sums! This needs to be worked out in the denotational semantics.

Dual calculi. The modern view of dualities of computation is in polarised adjunction calculi and their models [[Curien, Fiore, et al. 2016](#)]. The duality exploited here shows up in their cartesian polarised structure theorems (Ex.27). Freyd categories with closed, coclosed structure can be related to Fiore’s biclosed action models, which we will explore further.

In general, dual calculi for values and covalues take both cbv and cbn points of view, but ours restricts to the cbv case and exhibits a different duality. This can be understood by looking at the cbv variants of $\lambda\mu$ and $\mu\tilde{\mu}$. [Selinger \[2001\]](#) presents a cbv version of $\lambda\mu$ with μ binding two variables, which uses the coexponential interpretation. Other presentations of $\lambda\mu$ in cbv, such as the one by [Ong and Stewart \[1997\]](#), does not exhibit this structure. The cbv translation of $\mu\tilde{\mu}$ in [[Curien and Herbelin 2000](#)] uses the subtraction type, but they do not develop an equational theory.

There are too many presentations of CPS calculi in the literature to compare against. The crucial difference is that we stick to a natural deduction style presentation – the closest cousins are Levy’s JwA and Zeilberger’s cbv cps calculus (which use non-returning judgements), or Harper’s callcc in SML. Compared to these, we exploit coexponentials to exhibit a duality. [Ariola et al. \[2009\]](#) present a sequent calculus language for subtraction, but we have not added subtraction as a primitive. Instead we show it in our dual arrow calculi.

Logical aspects. This is a calculus for classical logic – provability in Gentzen’s LK (without \perp) is equivalent to typability in $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$. Similarly, provability in [Crolard \[2001\]](#)’s subtractive logic + TND is equivalent to typability in $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$.

This work was inspired by the semantic understanding of dualities in session types and classical linear logic, in particular, while trying to understand the axiomatics of $(-)^*$ in star-autonomous categories. The $(-)^*$ operator is an involution, but $R^{(-)}$ of continuations is not. But, they both exhibit a function/cofunction duality – star-autonomous categories have \multimap and \multimap . This is developed in the work of [Melliès \[2017\]](#) on dialogue categories, studying the axiomatics of negation motivated by game semantics, which inspired our analysis. The composable continuations monad [[Atkey 2009](#)] has a similar adjunction, but it is not a monad: $C \times S^A \cong C \rightarrow R^{S^{A+B}}$.

Lawvere’s boundary operator. The type $\partial A = A - A$ is Lawvere’s boundary operator of co-Heyting algebras. Using the subtraction type, this admits a computational interpretation – producing differential structure, for example, it admits a Leibniz rule: $\partial A \times B = \partial A \times B + A \times \partial B$.

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A SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SECTION 1 (INTRODUCTION)

For logicians: the duality is in the symmetry of these two logical equivalences:

$$\frac{\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B} \rightarrow I \quad \Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash B} \rightarrow E \quad \frac{\frac{\Gamma, \neg A \vdash \neg \neg B}{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg(A \vee B)} \quad \Gamma \vdash \neg A}{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg B}$$

The second derivation holds in intuitionistic logic, which crucially depends on the encoding of $\neg A$ as $A \rightarrow \perp$.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash A \vee B}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B), A \vdash A \vee B} \quad \frac{\frac{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg(A \vee B)}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B), A \vdash \neg(A \vee B)} \quad \frac{\frac{\Gamma, B \vdash A \vee B}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B), B \vdash A \vee B} \quad \frac{\frac{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg(A \vee B)}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B), B \vdash \neg(A \vee B)}}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B), A \vdash \perp} \quad \frac{\frac{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B), B \vdash \perp}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg B}}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg A}$$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\Gamma, \neg A \vdash \neg \neg B}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg \neg B} \quad \frac{\frac{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg A}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg B}}{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \perp} \quad \frac{\Gamma, \neg(A \vee B) \vdash \neg B}{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg(A \vee B)}$$

In type theory and category theory, these are the two isomorphisms:

$$C \times A \rightarrow B \cong C \rightarrow B^A \quad C \times R^A \rightarrow R^{R^B} \cong C \rightarrow R^{R^{A+B}}$$

or in terms of adjunctions:

$$(-) \times A \dashv (-)^A \quad (-) \times R^A \dashv A + (-)$$

where the first adjunction lives in a cartesian closed category of values, and the second adjunction lives in a cocartesian coclosed category of computations: the Kleisli category of the double negation, or double dualization, or continuation monad.

B SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SECTION 2 (DUALITY BY EXAMPLE)

Using case, we can define the familiar `callcc` control operator:

```

1357 fun callcc (f : co a → a) : a =
1358   let (s : a + a) = cofn (k : co a) ⇒ f k
1359   in case s of
1360     INL a ⇒ a
1361     | INR a ⇒ a

```

This definition highlights the duplicating nature of `callcc` – if it weren't a sum type, we wouldn't have `case`. So far, we have seen values and covalues, and they live in harmony, by the use of functions and cofunctions, and they don't interact. To make them interact we need a `throw` operation, which we can define using coapplication:

```

1367 fun throw (x : a) (k : co a) : b = (INL x) @ k

```

To a continuations aficionado, these operators are familiar, except we have a primitive type `co a` for covalues (which are, not surprisingly, continuations), and we can program with them recovering the computational interpretation of classical logic. Tertium Non Datur (or the Law of the Excluded

1373 Middle) is the identity cofunction, as we have already seen, saying that any type can produce a
 1374 value or a covalue out of nothing, with no third possibility. Exploiting `tnd` and `case`, we can perform
 1375 double negation introduction:

```
1376 fun tnd () : a + co a = cofn (k : co a) => k
1377 fun dni (x : a) : co (co a) =
1378   case tnd () of
1379     INL ka => throw x ka
1380   | INR kka => kka
```

1382 Crucially, note that we are working with a primitive notion of negation, the `co a` type, instead of
 1383 negation as a function $a \rightarrow \emptyset$. The self-adjointness of negation is fundamental, and is captured by
 1384 the following term:

```
1385 fun adj (f : co a -> b) : co b -> a =
1386   let val (s : a + b) = cofn (k : co a) => f k in
1387   let val (t : b + a) = case s of INL a => INR a | INR b => INL b in
1388     fn (kb : co b) => t @ kb
1389   end
1390 end
```

1393 Using this, we can define double negation elimination, and the contravariance of negation:

```
1394 fun dne (kka : co (co a)) : 'a =
1395   adj (fn ka => ka) kka
1396 fun contramap (f : a -> b) : co b -> co a =
1397   adj (fn kka => f (dne kka))
```

1400 The classical encoding of functions as material implication is obtained as follows:

```
1401 fun lam (f : a -> b) : co a + b =
1402   cofn kka => f (dne kka)
1403 fun app (e : co a + b) : a -> b =
1404   fn a => e @ dni a
```

1406 de Morgan's laws are obtained as follows:

```
1407 fun deMorgan1 (k : co (a + b)) : (co a * co b) =
1408   (contramap INL k, contramap INR k)
1409 fun deMorgan2 ((ka , kb) : co a * co b) : co (a + b) =
1410   contramap (fn e => e @ ka) kb
1411 fun deMorgan3 (kp : co (a * b)) : co a + co b =
1412   adj (fn ks => let val (kka, kkb) = deMorgan1 ks in (dne kka, dne kkb) end) kp
1413 fun deMorgan4 (ks : co a + co b) : co (a * b) =
1414   case tnd () of
1415     INL (a, b) => (case ks of INL ka => throw a ka | INR kb => throw b kb)
1416   | INR kp => kp
```

1422 The subtraction type is the dual of the function type. We show this by defining functions `ftoc` and
 1423 `ctof` (named after the operators in [Führmann and Thielecke 2004, § 3]).
 1424

```

1425 fun ftoc (f : a → b) : co (a - b) =          fun ctof (k : co (a - b)) : 'a → 'b =
1426   case lam f of                               fn a ⇒ case deMorgan3 k of
1427     INL ka ⇒ deMorgan4 (INL ka)              INL ka ⇒ throw a ka
1428   | INR b ⇒ deMorgan4 (INR (dni b))         | INR kkb ⇒ dne kkb
1429
1430
```

1431 Finally, Peirce's law, which is the type of the general `callCC` can be derived as follows:
 1432

```

1433 fun peirce (f : ('a → 'b) → 'a) : 'a =
1434   case lam f of
1435     INL kg ⇒ #1 (adj ctof kg)
1436   | INR a ⇒ a
1437
```

1438 This highlights how the covalue for `b` is dropped.

1439 C SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SECTION 4 (SEMANTICS)

1440 C.1 Other Co-exponentials

1442 As an aside, we give some other examples of co-exponentials.

1443 A Heyting algebra is a bounded lattice with an implication operator \rightarrow , such that, $c \wedge a \leq b$
 1444 iff $c \leq a \rightarrow b$, making $a \rightarrow b$ the relative pseudo-complement of a with respect to b . This can
 1445 equivalently be described as a poset (thin category) with finite products (meets), finite coproducts
 1446 (joins), which is cartesian closed. Since product functors are left adjoints, they preserve coproducts,
 1447 hence meets distribute over joins, making them a distribute lattice.

1448 The dual of a Heyting algebra is a co-Heyting algebra: it has finite meets and joins, and a co-
 1449 implication operator \setminus , such that $a \leq b \vee c$ iff $a \setminus b \leq c$. This can equivalently be described as a
 1450 poset with finite products (meets), finite coproducts (joins), which is co-cartesian co-closed. Any
 1451 Heyting algebra can be turned into a co-Heyting algebra by inverting the poset ordering. If a lattice
 1452 carries both Heyting and co-Heyting structures, it is a bi-Heyting algebra.

1453 Consider the vertical natural numbers $\mathbb{N} \cup \{\omega\}$, with $\{0 \leq 1 \leq 2 \leq \dots \leq \omega\}$. This is an example
 1454 of a bi-Heyting algebra.

- 1455 (1) $m \wedge n \triangleq \min(m, n)$, bounded by ω .
- 1456 (2) $m \vee n \triangleq \max(m, n)$, bounded by 0 .
- 1457 (3) $m \rightarrow n \triangleq \max \{ p \mid \min(p, m) \leq n \}$.
- 1458 (4) $m \setminus n \triangleq \min \{ p \mid m \leq \max(n, p) \}$.

1459 Every Boolean algebra gives a bi-Heyting algebra, where $a \rightarrow b \triangleq \neg a \vee b$ and $a \setminus b \triangleq a \wedge \neg b$.
 1460 As an example, consider the powerset lattice $\mathfrak{P}(C)$ of any set C , ordered by \subseteq .

- 1461 (1) $X \wedge Y \triangleq X \cap Y$, bounded by C .
- 1462 (2) $X \vee Y \triangleq X \cup Y$, bounded by \emptyset .
- 1463 (3) $X \rightarrow Y \triangleq X^c \cup Y$.
- 1464 (4) $X \setminus Y \triangleq X \cap Y^c$.

1466 More generally, the subobject classifier of any presheaf category $\text{PSh}(C)$ for any small category
 1467 C is a bi-Heyting algebra (Johnstone). For any topological space, the lattice of open subsets is a
 1468 Heyting algebra and the lattice of closed subsets is a co-Heyting algebra. Also see Brouwerian
 1469 algebras, semi-Boolean algebras (Rauszer).
 1470

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\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A}{\Gamma \vdash e \approx e : A} \text{REFL} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A}{\Gamma \vdash e_2 \approx e_1 : A} \text{SYM} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 \approx e_3 : A}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_3 : A} \text{TRANS} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst}(e_1) \approx \text{fst}(e_2) : A} \text{fst()-CONG} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd}(e_1) \approx \text{snd}(e_2) : B} \text{snd()-CONG} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 \approx e_4 : B}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_3) \approx (e_2, e_4) : A \times B} \text{PAIR-CONG} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e_1 \approx \lambda x. e_2 : A \Rightarrow B} \lambda\text{-CONG} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A \Rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 \approx e_4 : A}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_3 \approx e_2 e_4 : B} \text{APP-CONG} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(e_1) \approx \text{inl}(e_2) : A + B} \text{inl-CONG} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(e_1) \approx \text{inr}(e_2) : A + B} \text{inr-CONG} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A + B \quad \Gamma, x : A \vdash e_3 \approx e_4 : C \quad \Gamma, y : B \vdash e_5 \approx e_6 : C}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case}(e_1, x. e_3, y. e_5) \approx \text{case}(e_2, x. e_4, y. e_6) : C} \text{CASE-CONG} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma, x : \tilde{A} \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : B}{\Gamma \vdash \tilde{\lambda}x. e_1 \approx \tilde{\lambda}x. e_2 : A \Rightarrow B} \tilde{\lambda}\text{-CONG} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \approx e_2 : A \Rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 \approx e_4 : B}{\Gamma \vdash \widetilde{e_1 e_3} \approx \widetilde{e_2 e_4} : A} \text{COAPP-CONG}
\end{array}$$

(a) Equivalence and congruence rules for the equational theory of $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : B}{\Gamma \vdash (\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). \widetilde{\text{inr}(e) x}) \approx \text{inr}(e) : A + B} \tilde{\lambda}\text{-inr-}\eta \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A}{\Gamma \vdash (\tilde{\lambda}(x : \tilde{A}). \widetilde{\text{inl}(e) x}) \approx \text{inl}(e) : A + B} \tilde{\lambda}\text{-inl-}\eta
\end{array}$$

Fig. 12. Backtracking in $\lambda\tilde{\lambda}$ (derivable)

However, all these examples are posets, and there is no computational content if we choose to use this as a denotational semantics. Instead we have a given a construction of a co-cartesian co-closed category, starting from a bi-cartesian closed category, using the continuation, or double dualization monad (Kock). Since we do not have the cartesian closure and co-cartesian co-closure on the same category, we do not encounter the problem of degeneracy. This means we still retain computational content, as we will see in later sections, by giving an equational theory.

D SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SECTION 6 (EQUATIONAL THEORY)

From the $\tilde{\lambda}\eta$ rule, we can derive the two backtracking rules in figure 12.