First-Class Effect Reflection for Effect-Guided Programming

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Abstract

This paper introduces a novel type-and-effect calculus, first-class effects, where the computational effect of an expression can be programmatically reflected, passed around as values, and analyzed at run time. A broad range of designs “hard-coded” in existing effect-guided analyses — from thread scheduling, version-consistent software updating, to data zeroing — can be naturally supported through the programming abstractions. The core technical development is a type system with a number of features, including a hybrid type system that integrates static and dynamic effect analyses, a refinement type system to verify application-specific effect management properties, a double-bounded type system that computes both over-approximation of effects and their under-approximation. We introduce and establish a notion of soundness called trace consistency, defined in terms of how the effect and trace correspond. The property sheds foundational insight on “good” first-class effect programming.

1. Introduction

Type-and-effect systems, either purely static\textsuperscript{[36,42,52]}, dynamic\textsuperscript{[4,29,46]} or hybrid\textsuperscript{[2,34]}, have proven to be useful for program construction, reasoning, and verification. In existing approaches, the logic of accessing effects and making decisions over them is defined by the language designer, and supported by the compiler or the runtime system. The end-user programmer is generally a consumer of the “hardcoded” logic for effect management.

Our work is motivated by two fundamental questions. First, are there benefits of empowering programmers with application-specific effect management? Second, is there a principled design for the effect management, so that programmers are endowed with powerful abstractions while in the meantime provided with strong correctness guarantees?

In this paper, we develop first-class effects, a novel type-and-effect system where the effects of program expressions are available as first-class values to programmers. The lifecycle of effect management over program expressions becomes part of the program itself. The resulting calculus, \(\lambda_{fe}\), is endowed with powerful programming abstractions:

- **[Effect Reflection]** Programmers can query the effect of any expression \(e\) through a \(\lambda_{fe}\) primitive, \texttt{query} \(e\). The result is a first-class value we call \texttt{effect closure}, which contains the queried expression \(e\) and \(e\)'s effects, in the form of memory region accesses. For convenience, we call \(e\) the \texttt{passenger} expression of the closure.
- **[Effect Inspection]** The memory access details represented by an effect closure can be analyzed through a \(\lambda_{fe}\) effect pattern matching expression, enabling effect-based dispatch to naturally support effect-guided programming.
- **[Effect Realization]** The dual of effect reflection is effect realization: the \texttt{realize} \(x\) expression evaluates the passenger expression of the effect closure \(x\).

Foundationally, effect reflection and effect realization are the introduction and elimination of first-class effects, in the form of effect closures. As effect closures may cross modularity boundaries, it can be viewed as “effect-carrying code.”

The direct benefit of \(\lambda_{fe}\) is its support in flexible effect-guided programming. For example, thread scheduling in concurrent programs is an active and prolific area of research\textsuperscript{[29,44,46]}. With \(\lambda_{fe}\), programmers can flexibly develop a variety of thread management strategies through principled \(\lambda_{fe}\) programming. We will further demonstrate a broad range of applications beyond thread scheduling in \S\ref{sec:applications} and \S\ref{sec:future}. Overall, a variety of meta-level designs currently “hidden” behind the compiler and language runtime are now in the hands of programmers.

With great power comes great responsibility\textsuperscript{1}. The grand challenge of designing an expressive and flexible programming model lies in principled and precise reasoning. The core technical development of \(\lambda_{fe}\) is a type system with a number of features. First, effect reflection is designed through dynamic typing, resulting in a hybrid type-and-effect system\textsuperscript{[2,34]} that employs run-time information to improve precision. Second, \(\lambda_{fe}\) provides static guarantees to application-specific effect management properties through refinement types, promoting “correct-by-design” effect-guided programming. Third, \(\lambda_{fe}\) computes not only

\textsuperscript{1}Marvel’s Spiderman
the over-approximation of effects, the may-effect, but also their under-approximation, the must-effect. The duality unifies
the common theme of permission [24] vs. obligation [7] in effect reasoning. Fourth, we establish a stronger notion of
soundness called trace consistency, defined in terms of how the effect and the trace (the “post-execution effect”) correspond. To maintain trace consistency, we introduce a notion of polarity to predicates defined over effects, providing a general solution to a long-standing problem in type-
and-effect systems: reasoning about non-monotone effect operators [6,37].

In summary, this paper makes the following contributions:

• It describes novel programming abstractions to support computational effects as first-class values. Expressive features such as effect reflection, predicated effect inspection, and effect realization, are designed to maintain the lifecycle of \( \lambda_{fe} \) in the form of effect closures.

• It develops a sound hybrid type-and-effect system where dynamic typing is enabled as part of effect reflection, and static refinement typing is enabled by predicated effect analysis. The type system is further endowed with double-bounded effects, where may-analysis and must-analysis are performed in effect reasoning.

• It introduces a stronger notion of soundness property, trace consistency, to enable discipline first-class effects programming. Thanks to a polarity-based effect reasoning, \( \lambda_{fe} \) enjoys trace consistency even in challenging scenarios such as supporting non-monotone effect operators.

• It demonstrates the potentially broad range of applications of first-class effects in effect-guided programming, such as effect-aware scheduling, version consistent dynamic software update, data zeroing, cooperative multithreading, program testing, and algorithmic speculation.

2. Motivation and Design Decisions

To motivate, we illustrate how \( \lambda_{fe} \) may help programmers implement a simple ordering strategy for thread scheduling, write-before-read, shown in Figure 1. The scheduler aims at executing the “producer” task (i.e., the one that writes to the region \( r \)) first, given the two input tasks \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \). The two tasks are \( !buf \) and \( buf := 1 \) respectively, created by the Client side of the program (lines 7,9).

In \( \lambda_{fe} \), the \texttt{query} expression can retrieve the effects of the task, on lines 4,8. The resulting effects are analyzed using the \texttt{effcase} pattern matching construct. For example, on line 4 the case is matched if the \texttt{must-effect} of \( x_1 \) writes to region \( r \), noted \( wr_r \), \( <<: c \). Effects in \( \lambda_{fe} \) have both lower and upper bounds, e.g., \( x_1 \) has must-effect \( i \) and may-effect \( u \), whose type is noted as \( \texttt{EC}( \sim) \). The effect is realized on line \( 6 \) leading to the evaluation of the passenger expression. Finally, to guarantee that the write-before-read ordering is correctly implemented, the scheduler uses the refinement type \( \{wr_r, \langle c, \langle \langle p \rangle \rangle \rangle \} \), which reads that if \( c \) writes to \( r \), then \( p \) must also write to \( r \).

2.1 Challenges

This simple program highlights a number of programming challenges in effect-guided programming:

• \textbf{[The Need for Dynamic Effects]} The scheduler and its client could be deployed across modularity boundaries, such as on different machines or OS domains. Even if it is easy to precisely specify the effects of the two tasks \( !buf \) and \( buf := 1 \) on the client side, any practical scheduler should make no assumption on what the effects of \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \) are. The more general case is that the scheduler takes a set of tasks as arguments.

• \textbf{[Effect-Carrying Code Support]} For programs where the effectful expression and its computational effect coexist in one program, principled design in both programming abstraction and typing is required. For example, the runtime representation of first-class effects — such as the \texttt{reader} and \texttt{writer} in the example — matters. The relationship between the expressions manipulating first-class effects — such as \texttt{query} and \texttt{realize} — also requires careful type language design.

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**Figure 1.** A Producer-First Scheduler (The new notations introduced by first-class effects are explained on the right.)
2.2 The Need for Dynamic Effect Support

We address the first challenge through two programming abstractions: the query and the effcase expressions. The query expression plays an interesting role in effect reasoning: it enables dynamic effect reasoning, i.e., a lightweight type derivation at run time. We further propose an optimized operational semantics where full-fledged dynamic typing is unnecessary. This is in contrast to dynamic effect systems [2,4,53] which compute the effects of e by collecting the traces when evaluating e. In this light, \( \lambda_e \) is not an a posteriori effect monitoring system, and the reflected effects are still a sound and conservative approximation of the trace.

Dynamic typing allows runtime information to be used in effect computation, and hence improves the precision of effect reasoning. For example, for the code below, with dynamic typing, \( \lambda_e \) is capable of computing both the must-effect and may-effect of the task w as writing to region z. Instead, the more conservative may-effect “writing both to z and r0” and must-effect \( \emptyset \), are likely to be computed by a purely static effect system.

```latex
\begin{verbatim}
1 let client = \x buf.
2    let w = (query buf := 1) in
3    effcase w:
4       | EC(11 \sim u1) where wr, \ll<: 11 \Rightarrow realz w
5      client (if 1 > 0 then ref, 0 else ref, 0)
\end{verbatim}
```

The predicate associated with the case on line 4 says that the task must write to z. Thanks to the dynamic typing, the case is matched, but a static system, if equipped with the effcase expression, would not match the case.

2.3 Effect-Carrying Code Support

With the dual query/effcase design, effect querying is decoupled from effect analysis and effect-based decision making. This is useful in practice, because querying (dynamic typing) may incur runtime overhead, and the decoupling allows programmers to decide when the query should happen. For example, on line [7] and [9] the programmer says that the client should shoulder the overhead of effect query, not the server. In a similar vein, such a design allows effect of an expression to be queried once and used multiple times.

We represent the first-class effect value as an effect closure, a combination of a passenger expression and its effect. An effect closure can be passed across modular boundary, e.g., line [9]. Ultimately, we use the realize x expression to evaluate the passenger expression of the effect closure x, e.g., line [6]. Another obvious choice is to represent the effect value just as a type. The opportunity such a design misses out on is a common idiom in effect-guided programming: the reason why programmers wish to query and analyze an effect in the first place is to evaluate the expression the aforementioned effect abstractly represents. For example, the reason we perform effect analysis over the passenger expression e is to run e at the opportune moment.

In other words, the query expression in first-class effects can also be viewed as a simple form of reflection whereas the realize is analogous to reification. To the best of our knowledge, this is a novel design in effect reasoning systems.

2.4 Custom Correctness-By-Design

To address the third challenge, we provide static guarantees for custom-defined application-specific predicates over first-class effects through a decidable refinement type system. Our refinement type system design is intimately linked to our programming abstraction of effect analysis: the case analysis of the effcase expression is predicated [20,53]. For example, we are capable of typechecking the program with the refinement type on line [6] thanks to the predicates associated with the effcase cases from lines [4,5].

2.5 Trace-Effect Correspondence

To meet the fourth challenge, we define the notion of trace correctness. The crucial question in \( \lambda_e \) is whether the static guarantees represented in the form of refinement types matters for the program run-time behavior, and if so, what they say about the run-time behavior. In \( \lambda_e \), for any well-typed expression whose refinement type has a predicate defined over effects, the “corresponding” predicate — identical except that every occurrence of the effect is replaced with corresponding memory accesses when said effect is realized — still holds. For example, if the refinement type \{ wr, \ll<: c | \Rightarrow wr, \ll<: p \}, type checks, and the memory traces of evaluating c and p are \( f_c \) and \( f_p \) respectively, then if \( f_c \) contains a write to z, then \( f_p \) must contain a write to z.
We maintain the trace consistency through two interesting features: double-bounded effects and polarity reasoning. To illustrate, consider a simple example:

**Example 2.1.** The following program fails to typecheck in $\lambda_{fe}$, and rightfully so because it does not fulfill the write-before-read ordering. The main reason is that the must-effect should be used in the case analysis instead of the may-effect on line 4, i.e., where $wr_r <<: 1$. The may-effects of the reader is $wr_r$, thus the case on line 4 is matched and the reader is evaluated first.

```plaintext
1 let buf = ref 0 in
2 let scheduler = λ x1, x2.
3   let (p, c) = effcase x1:
4       | EC(l → u) where wr, <<: u ⇒ (x1, x2)
5       | default ⇒ (x2, x1) in
6   (wr, <<: c |→ wr, <<: p) realize p; realize c in
7 let reader = (query if 0 < 1 then buf := 1) in
8 let writer = (query buf := 1) in
9 scheduler reader writer
```

To prevent the misuse of the must- or may-effect, such as the one in the example above, our type system labels each $n$-arity custom predicate with $n$ polarities, one for each argument. To illustrate, consider the operator $<<:$. $\lambda_{fe}$ assigns the RHS of $<<: a + polarity$ to indicate that a must-effect should be used and the RHS a $-$. Examples for other polarities, such as $-i$ and $i$, are shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>polarity</th>
<th>name</th>
<th>example</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>monotone decreasing</td>
<td>LHS of $&lt;&lt;: $</td>
<td>may-effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>monotone increasing</td>
<td>RHS of $&lt;&lt;: $</td>
<td>must-effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>invariant</td>
<td>$== -$</td>
<td>may equals must</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By carefully regulating the interaction between may-must effects and predicate polarity, our type system is capable of maintaining trace consistency. The program above fails to type check because the must-effect should be used $i.e.,$ where $wr_r <<: 1$. Intuitively, the must-effect $l$ is a subset of the trace $f_{x_1}$ and $f_{x_1}$ is a subset of the may-effect $u$. Therefore, if this case is matched, $wr_r$ is a subset of $f_{x_1}$, i.e., $x_1$ will write to $r$.

**Additional Examples** Scheduling is one of many applications where effect-guided programming may make a positive impact on. Additional examples will be found in §8 and §B.

### 3. $\lambda_{fe}$: a Calculus with First-Class Effects

The abstract syntax of $\lambda_{fe}$ with first-class effects, but without refinement types, is defined in Figure 2. We defer the discussion of refinement type with effect polarities to §3. Our calculus is built on top of an imperative region-based $\lambda$ calculus. Expressions are mostly standard, except the constructs for effect management. As parallel programs serve as an important application domain of first-class effects, we support the parallel composition expression $e | e$. We model branching and boolean values explicitly, because they are useful to highlight features such as double bounded effects. The sequential composition $e | e'$ in the examples is the sugar form of let $x = e$ in $e'$.

**Effect management.** consists of the key abstractions described in §2. Expression query $e$ dynamically computes the effect of expression $e$. The result of a query is an effect closure. Programmers can inspect a closure with effcase $x = e : T where P ⇒ e$. The expression evaluates $e$ to an effect closure, upon which predicated pattern matching is performed. The expression also introduces a variable $x$, and binds it to $e$. Such a variable can be used in the realize expression to refer to which effect closure is to be realized, and may appear in refinement types to specify custom static guarantees over effects. If the expression $e$ is a variable, e.g., effcase $x = x_0 : T where P ⇒ e$, we shorten it to effcase $x_0 : T where P ⇒ e$, as is the case in the examples. This effect analysis expression pattern-matches the closure against the type patterns $T, P$ is a type constraint to further refine pattern matching. It supports connectives of proposition logic, together with the atomic n-ary form $P \sigma$, left abstract, which can be concretized into different forms for different concrete languages. Please find examples of different instantiations of $P$ in §8.

**Effects and Effect Types.** Effects are region accesses and have the form $\pi_{\rho}$, representing an access right $\pi$ to values in region $\rho$. Access rights include allocation init, read rd and write wr.

Compared with existing effect systems, our system supports both must- and may-effects. Function types $\lambda \mapsto \sigma \mapsto \sigma'$ specifies a function from $\top$ to $\top'$ with must-effect $\sigma$ and may-effect $\sigma'$ as the effects of the function body.
Effect closure type has the form EC(\(T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\)). The value it represents produces must-effect \(\sigma\), may-effect \(\sigma'\) upon realization, and the realized expression has type \(T\). When \(T\) is not used (e.g., in Figure 1), we shorten it as EC(\(\sigma \sim \sigma'\)).

**Regions.** The domain of regions is the disjoint union of a set of constants \(x\). The region abstracts memory locations in which it will be allocated at runtime. Our notion of region is standard \([6, 52]\). In \(\lambda_{\text{ref}}\), allocation sites are explicitly labelled with regions. Region inference is feasible \([21, 24]\), an issue orthogonal to our interest.

In \(\lambda_{\text{ref}}\), type \(\alpha\), effect \(\zeta\), and region \(\gamma\) variables are cumulatively referred to as “pattern variables”, and we use a metavariable \(q\) for them. A type variable \(\alpha\) can be used in the effcase expressions to match any type \(T\), given that the constraint \(P\) is satisfied if \(\alpha\) is substituted with \(T\), similar for effect and region variables.

Before we proceed, let us provide some notations and convenience functions used for the rest of the paper. Functions \(\text{dom}\) and \(\text{rng}\) are the conventional domain and range functions. Substitution \(\theta\) maps type variables \(\alpha\) to types \(T\), region variables \(\gamma\) to regions \(\rho\), and effect variables \(\varsigma\) to effects \(\sigma\). Comma is used for sequence concatenation.

4. A Base Type System with Double-Bounded Effects

The key innovations of our type system design are twofold. First, it uses double bounded types to capture must-may effects. Second, it employs refinement types to fulfill hybrid effect reasoning. We present double-bounded effects in this section, and delay refinement types to §5.

4.1 Subtyping

Relation \(T <: T'\) says \(T\) is a subtype of \(T'\) defined in Figure 3. The subtyping relation is reflexive and transitive. Reference ref types follow invariant subtyping, except that the regions in the ref types follow covariant subtyping.

![Figure 3. The Subtyping Relation.](image)

The highlight of the subtyping relation lies in the treatment of the must-may effects. In (sub-FUN), observe that must-effects and may-effects follow opposite directions of subtyping: may-effects are covariant whereas must-effects are contravariants. Intuitively, for a program point that expects a function that must produce effect \(\sigma\), it is always OK to be provided with a function that must produce a “superset effect” of \(\sigma\). On the flip side, for a program point that expects a function that may produce effect \(\sigma\), it is always OK to be provided with a function that may produce a “subset effect” of \(\sigma\). As expected, effect subsumption in our system — the “superset effect” and the “subset effect” — is supported through set containment over \(\sigma\) elements. Effect closure types follow a similar design, as seen in (sub-EC).

4.2 Type Checking

Type environment \(\Gamma\) maps variables to types:

\[
\Gamma ::= \Gamma, x : T
\]

Notation \(\Gamma(x)\) denotes \(T\) if the rightmost occurrence of \(x : T\) for any \(x'\) in \(\Gamma\) is \(x : T\).

Type checking is defined through judgment \(\Gamma \vdash e : \text{T}, \sigma \sim \sigma'\), defined in Figure 4. The judgment says under type environment \(\Gamma\), expression \(e\) has type \(T\), must-effect \(\sigma\) and may-effect \(\sigma'\). Subtyping is represented in the type checking process through (T-SUB), which follows the same pattern to treat must-may effects as in function subtyping and effect closure subtyping.

**Effect Bound Reasoning.** If effect bounds are “loosened” along the data flow path as we discussed, the interesting question is when the bounds are “tightened”. To answer this question, observe that traditional effect systems can indeed be viewed as a (degenerate) double-bounded effect system, where the must-effect is always the empty set.

Our type system on the other hand computes the must-effect along the type checking process. Note that in (T-If), the must-effect of the branching expression is the intersection of the must-effects of the then branch and the else branch, unioned with the must-effect of the conditional expression. For example, given an expression as follows and that \(\text{val}\) is in region \(r\), the must- and may-effects are \(\{rd_r\}\) and \(\{rd_r, wr_r\}\) respectively:

\[
\text{if } x > 0 \text{ then } !\text{val} \text{ else } \text{val} := !\text{val} + 1
\]

The must-effect of the effcase expression is computed in an analogous fashion, as shown in the (T-EFFCASE) rule.

**Typing Effect Operators.** (T-QUERY) shows the expression to introduce an effect closure — the query expression — is typed as an effect closure type, including both the static type of the to-be-dynamically-typed expression, and its double-bounded effects as reasoned by the static system. In other words, even though first-class effects will be com-
Computing at runtime based on information garnered from (the more precise) dynamic typing, our static type system still makes its best effort to type this first-class value, instead of viewing it as an opaque "top" type of the effect closure kind.

The dual of the query expression is the realize expression. Intuitively, this expression "eliminates" the effect closure, and evaluates the passenger expression. (T-REALIZE) is defined to be consistent with this view. It says that the expression should have the type of the passenger expression, and the effects should include those of the expression that will evaluate to the effect closure, and those of the passenger expression.

The (T-EFFCASE) rule shows that the effcase expression predictably follows the pattern matching semantics. The expression to be analyzed must represent an effect closure. To avoid unreachable patterns, the type system ensures every type pattern is indeed satisfiable through substitution and subtyping. In addition, \(\lambda x.e\) requires that the last pattern be a pattern variable, which matches any type, serving as the explicit "default" clause [1].

Standard Expressions. Other typing rules are mostly conventional. Store operations (T-REF), (T-GET) and (T-SET) compute initialization \(\text{init}\), read \(\text{rd}\) and write \(\text{wr}\) effects, respectively. The typing of parallel composition is standard.

5. The Full-Fledged System

The type system in Figure 4 does not provide any static guarantees for expressions guarded by the predicate \(P\) in the effcase expression. For example, in resource-aware scheduling (Figure 1), the programmer may wish to be provided with the static guarantee that the order of buffer access is preserved. We support this refined notion of reasoning through refinement types.

We extend the grammar of our language, in Figure 5, to allow the programmers to associate an expression with a refinement type, denoting that the corresponding expression must satisfy the predicate in the refinement type through static type checking.

A refinement type \(\mathcal{T}\) takes the form of \(\{ T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \mid P \}\), where predicate \(P\) is used to refine the base type \(T\) and effects \(\sigma \leadsto \sigma'\), a common notation in refinement type systems [11, 25, 43]. When \(T, \sigma\) and \(\sigma'\) are not referred to in other parts in the refinement type, we shorten the refinement as \(\{ P \}\), e.g., in the write-before-read example in Figure 1 \((\text{wr}, <<: c |-> \text{wr}, <<- p)\). We extend the subtyping relation with one additional rule, \((\text{subr}-\text{REFINE})\). Here, subtyping of refinement types is defined as the logical implication \(\rightarrow\) of the predicates of the two types.
Polarity environment $\Delta$, which will be used in type checking, maps effect variables $\varsigma$ to polarities $\mathcal{V}$. $\mathcal{V}$ can either be contravariant $\downarrow$, covariant $\uparrow$, invariant $\mathcal{I}$, and bivariant $\downarrow\uparrow$. Intuitively, the $\mathcal{I}$ comes from the must-effect, $\downarrow$ comes from the may-effect. If must- and may-effects are exactly the same, it induces invariant $i$, e.g., the predicate $==$, which requires the effects of its LHS and RHS to be equal in Figure 6. With the join $\sqcup$ going “up”. Intuitively, an $i$ can appear in a position where $\mathcal{I}$ is required, thus $i$ is a “subtype” of $\downarrow\uparrow$.

![Figure 6. Polarity Lattice.](image)

5.1 Polarity Support

For a predicate of arity $n$, we say its position $j$ ($1 \leq j \leq n$) to have contravariant polarity $\downarrow$ when effect subsumption of argument $j$ is aligned with predicate implication, i.e., an application of this predicate with argument $j$ being $\sigma$ always implies a predicate application identical with the former except argument $j$ being $\sigma'$ and $\sigma \subseteq \sigma'$, shown in (MONO-$\downarrow$) in Figure 7 where the $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{P},j)$ (Figure 7) notation gets the $j$th polarity of the predicate $\mathcal{P}$, e.g., $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{P},j)$ will return the polarity of LHS of $\ll$, i.e., $\downarrow\uparrow$ and $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{P},j)$ will return RHS, i.e., $\downarrow\uparrow$. Similarly, we say the position $j$ of a predicate to have covariant polarity $\uparrow$ if an application of this predicate with argument $j$ being $\sigma$ always implies a predicate application identical with the former except argument $j$ being $\sigma'$ and $\sigma' \subseteq \sigma$, as (MONO-$\uparrow$). For non-monotone predicates (e.g., $==$), the polarities $\downarrow\uparrow$ and $\downarrow\uparrow$ fall short.

**Example 5.1.** (Effect Invariant for Non-monotone Effect Predicate) Programmers wish to check that the effects of two expressions are equal, line 4. The non-monotone (for both LHS and RHS) predicate $==$ is satisfied for the call on line 5 but challenging for a system with co- or contravariant polarities alone.

```plaintext
let buf = ref -1 in
let fun = \x:exact, y:exact. effcase x, y:
  \( \text{EC}(l_0 \sim l_0), \text{EC}(l_1 \sim l_1) \)
  where l_0 \sim l_1 \Rightarrow (y == x) \& y in
fun (query !buf) (query !buf);
```

![Figure 7. Polarities for Client Predicates ($\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{P},j)$).](image)

![Figure 8. Predicate Implication $\Rightarrow$.](image)

Note that the equivalent of the may-effects (or must-effect) of both sides does not guarantee the equivalent of the traces (runtime memory accesses), e.g., for the following code, the two parameters (line 8) are the same, but their runtime traces are not the same.

```plaintext
let same = (query if !buf < 0 then buf := 0) in
fun same
```

The exact annotation solves this problem. This annotation requires that the may- and must-effects of the expression are the same, inducing invariant. Since the trace is bounded by the same lower and upper bound effects, it is tight. Given that $x == y$ and that both $x$ and $y$ have tight bounds, their traces must be equal.

The may-effect of the expression on line 7 is $\{\text{rd}_r\}$, the may-effect is $\{\text{rd}_r, \text{wr}_r\}$, and thus its effects are not exact and the function call, on line 8, fails static type checking. The effects of the four queried expressions on lines 5-6 are exact. The calls on those two lines will type check statically.

The call on line 5 will satisfy the runtime predicate $==$ and execute the code on line 4 while the call on line 8 will not satisfy the predicate and thus not execute the code on line 8. Similarly, the exact annotation fulfills a similar task in Figure 1. Without exact, the program will not be sound.
Refinement Type Checking: \( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \)

\[
\text{(R-REFINE) } \frac{\Delta \vdash P \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \quad \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \vdash \neg P}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}
\]

\[
\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : EC(T, \sigma \sim \sigma'), \emptyset \sim \emptyset \quad \exists \theta. (\theta EC(T_i, \sigma_i \sim \sigma_j) \llbracket e \rrbracket EC(T, \sigma \sim \sigma')) \text{, for all } i \in \{1 \ldots n\}
\]

\[
\Delta_i = \Delta \cup \text{polar}_i(T_i) \cup \text{polar}_e(\sigma_i \sim \sigma_j)
\]

\[
\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{effcase } x \equiv e : EC(T, \sigma \sim \sigma') \text{ where } P \Rightarrow e : T_i \cap \{1 \ldots n\} \sigma_j'' \sim \cup_{i \in \{1 \ldots n\}} \sigma_j'''
\]

For all other (R-\ast) rules, each is isomorphic to its counterpart (T-\ast) rule, except that every occurrence of judgment \( \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \) in the latter rule should be substituted with \( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \) in the former.

Type Checking Predicate: \( \Delta \vdash P \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\neg \Delta \vdash & P \\
\Delta \vdash & \neg \neg P \\
\Delta \vdash & P \quad \Delta \vdash P' \\
\Delta \vdash & P \quad \Delta \vdash P' \quad \Delta \vdash P \quad \neg \Delta \vdash P' \\
\Delta \vdash & P \quad \Delta \vdash P' \\
\Delta \vdash & P \quad \Delta \vdash P' \\
\end{align*}
\]

\( \forall \sigma_j \in \Sigma, \forall \zeta \in \sigma_j \text{ s.t. } \zeta \in \text{dom}(\Delta), \Delta(\zeta) \llbracket e \rrbracket \llbracket \forall \rho, j \rrbracket \)

\( \Delta \vdash \llbracket P \rrbracket \sigma \)

**Figure 9.** Typing Rules for Checking Refinement Types.

**Figure 10.** Functions for Computing Effect Polarity.

5.2 Refinement Type Checking

Refinement type checking is defined through judgment \( \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \) shown in Figure 9 which extends the rules in Figure 8 with one additional rule (R-REFINE) for refinement typing and one adaptation rule (R-EFFCASE) for typing predicated effect analysis. The rules ensure that the pattern variables are properly used, e.g., a variable \( \zeta \) with \( - \) polarity should not appear in the position where the predicate requires \( + \), such as \( \cup \) on line 4 in Example 2.1 (R-REFINE) requires that the predicate in the refinement type to be entailed from the predicates in the type environment. Function \( \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \) computes the conjunction of all predicates that appear in the refinement types of \( \Gamma \) [13], defined in Figure 10.

The differences between (R-EFFCASE) and (T-EFFCASE) (in 4) are highlighted. We compute, via the polar function defined in Figure 10, the polarity for each new effect variable appears in the pattern matching types. An effect variable \( \zeta \) appearing in the must-effect, will have \( + \) polarity. If \( \zeta \) appears in the may-effect, it will have \( - \) polarity. If the must- and may-effects are the same \( \zeta, \zeta \) has i polarity, otherwise \( \zeta \) has \( * \) polarity. We use the computed polarities to check the proper use of the effect variables in each predicate, which is defined in the bottom of the same figure. For example, an effect variable \( \zeta \) with \( + \) polarity should not appear in the position where the predicate requires \( - \). Most of the checking rules are rather predictable except for the predicate negation. To check the negation, we negate the polarity environment \( - \Delta \). For example, we require the may-effect of the LHS and must-effect of the RHS of the predicate \( \llbracket e \rrbracket \llbracket \forall \rho, j \rrbracket \), and for its negation \( /\llbracket e \rrbracket \llbracket \forall \rho, j \rrbracket \), we require the must-effect of the LHS and may-effect of the RHS. The custom predicates and their polarities specifications are shown in Figure 7. The rules associate \( \times \) with a refinement type that carries the guarded predicate, \( P_1 \) in the typing environment, which will be used to check the (R-REFINE) rule.

Effect closures in \( \Delta \) are immutable. This language feature significantly simplifies the design of refinement types in

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\[ \lambda_{\text{te}}, \] as the interaction between refinement types and mutable features would otherwise be challenging [11].

6. Dynamic Semantics

This section describes \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \)'s dynamic semantics. The highlight is to support runtime effects management and highly precise effects reasoning through dynamic typing.

**Semantics Objects.** \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \)'s configuration consists of a store \( s \), an expression \( e \) to be evaluated, and an effects trace \( f \), defined in Figure [11]. These definitions are conventional. The domain of the store consists of a set of references \( l \). Each reference cell in \( s \) records a value, as well as the region \( r \) and type \( T \) of the reference. The trace records the runtime accesses to regions along the evaluation, with \( \text{init}(x) \), \( \text{rd}(x) \), and \( \text{wr}(x) \), denoting the initialization, read, and write to \( x \), respectively. Traces only serve a role in the soundness proofs, and thus are unnecessary in a \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \) implementation. More specifically, we will show that the trace is the “realized effects” of the effects computed by \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \).

The small-step semantics is defined as transition \( s; e; T \to s'; e'; f' \). Given a store \( s \) and a trace \( f \), the evaluation of an expression \( e \) results in another expression \( e' \), a (possibly updated) store \( s' \), and a trace \( f' \). The notation \( [x \leftarrow v]e \) substitutes \( x \) with \( v \) in expression \( e \). The notation \( \to^* \) represents the reflexive-transitive closure of \( \to \).

We highlight the first-class effects expressions.

**Effect Querying as Dynamic Typing.** The (QRY) rule illustrates the essence of \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \)'s effect querying. An effect query produces an effect closure, which encapsulates the queried expression and its runtime type-and-effect.

Dynamic typing, defined in Figure [11] is used to compute the effects of the queried expression. The dynamic type derivation has the form \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \), which extends static typing with two new rules for reference value and effect closure typing.

At runtime, the free variables of the expressions will be substituted with values, e.g., in (LET) and (APP). Thus, \( e \) in query \( e \) is no longer the same as what it was in the source program. These substituted values carry more precise types, regions, and effects information, bringing to first-class effects a highly precise notion of effects reasoning comparing to a static counterpart. Also the dynamic typing does not evaluate the queried expression to compute effects, i.e., \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \) is not an a posteriori effect monitoring system.

Applying full-fledged dynamic typing could be expensive. In §A we provide an optimization. Observe that the difference between the static and the dynamic typing (Figure [4]) and Figure [11] is the types of the free variables in the type environment \( \Gamma \). Our insight is that we can pre-compute the dynamic effect introducing skolem type-and-effect variables for the types of the free variables, compute the effects \( \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \) for the to-be-queried expression, and store the effects. At runtime, we substitute the skolem variables with their corresponding type-and-effect and derive the runtime effect \( \sigma_0' \sim \sigma_1' \) from \( \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \).

**Effect Realization.** Dual to the effect querying rule is the realization (REAL) rule, which “eliminates” the effect closure \( \langle e, T, \sigma, \sigma' \rangle \) and evaluates the passenger expression \( e \). To show the validity of the effect query in first-class effects, we will prove in Theorem [7.2] that if \( e \) is evaluated, its effects will fall within the lower \( \sigma \) and upper bound \( \sigma' \) effects. When the evaluation terminates, it reduces to a value of type \( T \), specified in the closure.

**Effect-Guided Programming via Predicated Effect Inspection.** The (EFFC) rule analyzes the type-and-effect of the closure. It searches the first matching target types and returns the corresponding branch expression \( e_i \). Such type must be refined by the inner type of the effect closure, with proper “alignment” by substituting the pattern effect variables in the target type with the corresponding effects. It also requires that the substitution satisfies the target programmer-defined effect analyses predicate \( P \).

**Refinement expressions.** The (RFMT) rule models refinement expressions. It retrieves the dynamic effects of the subexpression and checks that they are the same as specified in the refinement type and that the predicate is satisfied. The trace soundness property of our system guarantees that refinement type checking at runtime (see Theorem [7.5]) always succeeds. Therefore, these runtime types checking can be treated as no-op.

**Parallelism.** The (PAR) rule simulates parallelism. Its treatment is standard, it nondeterministically reduces to the sequential compositions \( e; e' \) or let \( x = e' \) in \( e; x \). This treatment lets the result of \( e' \) be the final result. Due to the safety guarantee from §S these two forms will reduce to the same result \( \text{e} \) upon termination.

7. Meta-theory

This section shows the formal properties of \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \). The full proofs could be found in our technical report [11]. We first show the standard soundness property (Theorem [7.1]). Next, we prove that the effect carried in the effect closure is valid (Theorem [7.2], i.e., the passenger expression always has the effect carried by the closure, regardless of how the closure has been passed around or stored. Finally, we present important trace consistency results for \( \lambda_{\text{te}} \) in Theorem [7.5].

**Theorem 7.1 (Type Soundness).** Given an expression \( e \), if \( e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \), then either the evaluation of \( e \) diverges, or there exist some \( s, v, \) and \( f \) such that \( \emptyset; e; \emptyset \to^* s; v; f \).

**Theorem 7.2 (Query-Realize Correspondence).** Given a store \( s \), a trace \( f \), an expression \( e = \text{QRY} \langle e' \rangle \). If \( s; e; f \to s; \text{E}([\langle e', T, \sigma, \sigma' \rangle]; f \to^* s'; \text{E} \langle \text{realize} \langle e', T, \sigma, \sigma' \rangle; f' \rangle \) then \( s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e' : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \), and \( s' \vdash \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e' : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \).

To prove trace consistency, we define trace for expression:
Definitions:
\[
\begin{align*}
tc & := (e, T, \sigma, \sigma') \\
s & := \{l \mapsto_{(r, \tau)} v\} \\
f & := \overline{\pi(\rho)} \\
v & := b \mid \lambda x : T.e \mid \overline{l} \mid t c \\
\mathcal{E} & := \{\mathcal{E} e | v \mathcal{E} | \text{let } x = \mathcal{E} e \text{ in } e | \text{ref } \rho \mathcal{E} | \mathcal{E} | \mathcal{E} := e | v := e | \text{realize } \mathcal{E}\} \\
\text{evaluation context}
\end{align*}
\]

Dynamic Typing: \(s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash_{D} e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\)

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{(ST-LOC)}: \{l \mapsto_{(r, \tau)} v\} \in s \\
&\text{(ST-TYPE)}: s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash_{D} l : \text{Ref}, T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset
\end{align*}
\]

For all other (ST-\*) rules, each is isomorphic to its counterpart (R-\*) rule, except that every occurrence of judgment \(\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\) in the latter rule should be substituted with \(s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash_{D} e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\) in the former.

Evaluation relation: \(s; e; f \rightarrow s'; e'; f'\)

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{(ext)}: s; \mathcal{E}[e]; f \rightarrow s'; \mathcal{E}[e']; f' \quad \text{if } s; e \sim s'; e'; f' \\
&\text{(app)}: s; \lambda x : T.e \mapsto_{D} s; [x]v; e; \emptyset \\
&\text{(let)}: s; \text{let } x = v \text{ in } e \mapsto_{D} s; [x]v; e; \emptyset \\
&\text{(if)}: s; \text{if } b \text{ then } e_0 \text{ else } e_1 \mapsto_{D} s; e; \emptyset \\
&\text{(get)}: s; l : \mapsto_{D} s; \text{rd}(x) \\
&\text{(set)}: s; l := v \mapsto_{D} s; \{l \mapsto_{(r, \tau)} v\}; v; \text{wr}(x) \\
&\text{(ref)}: s; \text{ref } T \mapsto_{D} s; \{l \mapsto_{(r, \tau)} v\}; l; \text{init}(x) \text{ if } l \in \text{freshloc}() \\
&\text{(par)}: s; e_1 \mapsto_{D} s; e_0; \emptyset \\
&\text{(query)}: s; \text{query } e \mapsto_{D} (s; e, T, \sigma, \sigma') \\
&\text{(real)}: s; \text{realize } (s; e, T, \sigma, \sigma') \mapsto_{D} s; e; \emptyset \\
&\text{(eff)}: s; \text{effcase } x = (s; e, T, \sigma, \sigma') : T \text{ where } P \Rightarrow e \mapsto_{D} s; \theta e; \emptyset \\
&\text{(rfrmt)}: s; \{T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma| P\} \Rightarrow e \mapsto_{D} s; e; \emptyset} \\
\end{align*}
\]

**Figure 11.** \(\lambda_{\text{fe}}\) Operational Semantics.

**Definition 7.3 (Trace from Effect Closure).** We say \(f\) is a trace for expression \(e\) under store \(s\), written \(f \prec \prec_{\text{e}}, s\), if \(s; e; f' \rightarrow^{*} s'; v; f', f\).

We now define the soundness over traces:

**Definition 7.4 (Trace Consistency).** We say \(e\) is trace-consistent if \(\mathcal{T} = \{T, \sigma \sim \sigma'| P\}\), and \(f \prec \prec_{\text{e}}, s\), then \(\sigma| f| (\sigma'| f)\) holds.

**Theorem 7.5 (\(\lambda_{\text{fe}}\) Trace-Based Consistency).** If \(\vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma',\) then \(e\) is trace-consistent.

8. More Examples

In this section, we motivate \(\lambda_{\text{fe}}\) through a number of applications ranging from custom effect-aware scheduling, to version-consistent dynamic software updating, to data security. We are aimed at demonstrating the benefits of \(\lambda_{\text{fe}}\) in two folds. First, it provides flexible and expressive abstractions to address challenging patterns of effect-guided programming. Second, it helps programmers design programs where effect analysis and manipulation are “correct-by-design,” with refined guarantees specific to individual applications.

The instantiations of the type constraints \(P\) in §3 for the applications in §8 and §9 are shown in Figure 12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>application</th>
<th>predicate(s): (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>priority scheduler, §2</td>
<td>&lt;=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consistent software update, §8.1</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information security, §8.2</td>
<td>&lt;:&lt;;: &lt;=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>algorithm speculation, §9.2</td>
<td>==</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atomicity, §8.3</td>
<td>&lt;=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>testing, §9.3</td>
<td>&lt;=</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 12.** Polarities for Client Predicates.

8.1 Version-Consistent Dynamic Software Update

Dynamic software update (DSU) \(41\) allows software to be updated to a new version for software evolution without halting or restarting the software. DSU patches running software with new code on-the-fly. An important property of DSU is version consistency (VC) \(40\). For VC, programmers specify program points where updates could be applied. Code within two immediate update points is viewed as a transac-
let run1 = λprologue, epilogue, update.
2 case epilogue of
3   | [] - realize update
4     | h:t - effcase prologue, epilogue, update:
5       | EC(x1 ∼ xu), EC(y1 ∼ yu), EC(z1 ∼ zu) where zu ≠ xu V zu ≠ yu
6         => [prologue # update V epilogue # update] realize update; realize epilogue
7     | default => h; run1 (query [realize prologue]; h) t update in
8 let run = transaction, update.
9     run1 (query 0) transaction update
11 let data = ref s 0 in
12 let fun0 = ref λx. x := !x + 1 in
13 let fun1 = ref λx. 1 in
14 let update = query (fun0:= (λx. 1);
15     fun1:= (λx. x:= !x + 1)) in
16 let transaction = query [fun0 data,
17     fun1 data,
18     !data] in
19 run transaction update

Figure 13. Dynamic Software Updating in First-Class Effects to Preserve Consistency [40].

The listing in Figure [13] defines a piece of data and two functions fun0, an empty function, and fun1, which increments the input by 1. Programmers would like to let a list of three blocks of code in transaction, lines [16-18] to be a transaction. The three blocks invoke the functions fun0 and fun1 and finally read the data. Because one of the functions increases data by one, the final result should be !data + 1. An example update, lines [14-15] swaps the bodies of the functions fun0 and fun1. One approach is to delay the update until the end of transaction, i.e., after the last block !data finishes execution. In this case, the transaction executes the old version in the current invocation and will execute the new version in the next invocation.

To increase update availability while ensuring VC, we would like to apply the update when it is available instead of at the end of transaction, e.g., the swapping update happens correctly if it is patched after the second block of code fun1 data. Here we have executed the two functions whose bodies are to be swapped. The transaction executes the old version completely and the final value of data is 1. In contrast, assuming that the updated is patched after fun0 data, where we have executed the old version of fun0 and increased data by 1. We will execute the new version of fun1, which also increases data by 1. The final result is 2, which is unintuitive to programmers.

The second update violates VC, we execute part old code fun0, part new code fun1 and the final result is not correct.

Observe that first-class effects could help reason about whether a patch violates VC at any specific program point. If the effects σ₀ of the patch do not conflict (#) with the effects σ₁ of the code of the transaction before the update, noted as prologue, or effects σₑ of the code after, noted as epilogue, the immediate update (IU) respects VC (details see [40]). In the nutshell, if σ₀ # σₑ, IU is equivalent to applying the update at the beginning of the transaction. On the other hand, if σ₀ # σₑ, IU is equivalent to applying the update at the end of the transaction. This logic of the effects checking is implemented in method run1 on lines [17]. It first checks whether the transaction is done, line [3], i.e., the epilogue is an empty list []. If so, the update could be applied immediately. Otherwise, effect inspection is used to analyze whether the effects of the update conflict with both prologue and epilogue. If there are no conflicts, line [5] update could also be applied at this point. Otherwise, the update needs to be delayed.

For example, the effects of the patch on line [15] is writing to the two functions, wr₁, wrₑ, the effects of the the blocks of the transaction are below, and ✓ and ✗ represent the effects of the block conflict and do not conflict with the swapping update, respectively:

| !fun0 data | rd₁, rdᵤ | ✗ |
| !fun1 data | rd₁, rdᵤ | ✓ |
| !data      | rdᵤ     | ✓ |

The update is problematic after the first block, because σ₀ conflicts with both σ₁ and σₑ, while it is okay after the second block because σ₁ only conflicts with σₑ, but not σₑ.

First-class effects are very well-suited for this application. First, it allows programmers to query the effect of the update, which is important because the update is not available until at runtime. Second, it allows programmers to define their custom conflicting (#) function, such as the ones shown in the custom conflict model section in Figure [16] that can go beyond the standard definition “two effects conflict if they access the same memory region” [40], e.g., conflicts on statistical data does not affect the final results of a program and thus could be ignored [19, 39]. Programmers let the type system know this important fact by writing custom effect analyses in predicated pattern matching, line [5]. Finally, first-class effects allow programmers to define custom VC correctness criteria, e.g., on line [6] it says the update could only be applied if its effects do not conflict with both prologue and epilogue. This refinement type will be statically verified by λₑ’s type system.

8.2 Data Zeroing

Information security is of growing importance in applications which interact with third-party libraries, available only at runtime. Consider an example of a bank account in Figure [14] It stores the password in the variable pw. It has a
method close, which will be invoked when a client closes the account. This method accepts a library x which displays advertisements when the account is closed [12].

let pw = ref 12 in

let close = λx. effcase x:

|EC(1~u) where wr: <=; 1 =>> [wr', <=; x] realize x |
|default => pw := -9 in

---------- Third party libraries ---------

close (query pw := -9); // Safe Library

close (query (if 0 then pw := -9)) // Unsafe

Figure 14. Data Zeroing in First-Class Effects Against Leakage of Sensitive Data.

The library could be malicious (e.g., line 6), thus enforcing the security policy that no sensitive data are leaked by the library is vital in protecting the system [12, 34]. We use the zeroing strategy [55]. At runtime, we programmatically analyze the effects of the library and execute it only if it destroys (overwrites) the password in the must-effect wr, <=; u, to avoid the recovery of the original password.

Double-Bounded Effects The must-may effect distinction in \( \lambda \text{fe} \) is crucial for program correctness. In traditional type-and-effect systems [36, 52], effects are conservative approximations of expressions. This “may-effect” (i.e., overapproximation) may not be expressive enough for a number of applications, including data zeroing. Image the program that would be identical to the one in Figure 14 except that the effcase expression where the case on line 3 is predicated by the may-effect, i.e., \( \text{wr}, \text{<=; u} \). The may-effect view would allow the case to be selected as long as \( u \) may write to region \( r \), such as the problematic client on line 6. Since the may-effect is an overapproximation, the evaluation of the expression may not write to \( r \) at all! As a consequence, the \( pw \) is not overridden and could be leaked in the future! With double-bounded effects, the distinction is explicit, and programmers use the must-effects on line 3 to ensure that the \( pw' \) must be overridden. We explain how \( \lambda \text{fe} \) prevents the misuse of the must- and may-effect in [5, 7].

The general-purpose zeroing policy is useful in detecting malicious library in many systems, but clients may desire other special-purpose policies, such as the password is not directly read by the library, a.k.a confidentiality. In first-class effects, by substituting line 3 with \( \text{EC}(1 \sim u) \) where \( \text{wr}, \text{<=; 1} \land \text{rd}_r / \text{<=; u} \) (\( u \) does not read \( x \), we ensure that the password is not read in the current execution, it is destroyed and thus cannot be read in the future, through the combination of confidentiality and zeroing. Other applicable policies are shown in Figure 15.

Summary The flexibility of \( \lambda \text{fe} \) is on par with other security systems and \( \lambda \text{fe} \) shares the philosophy of improving the flexibility of meta-level designs “hidden” behind effect system [34] by allowing programmers to define custom policy.

how | why
-------- | ---------------
zeroing [55] | destroy/overwrite sensitive data
confidentiality [12] | can not read sensitive data
integrity [12] | can not write sensitive data
multiple accesses [49] | can access a subset of data, but not all
negative authorization [5] | can only read non-sensitive data
weak authorization [5] | overridable policy

Figure 15. Representative Information Security Policies in First-Class Effects.

8.3 Additional Examples on Scheduling

Thread scheduling is prolific area of research, known to have diverse strategies on schedule ordering, conflict detection, and conflict modeling. In §2 we have already shown the write-before-read strategy. With \( \lambda \text{fe} \), programmers can flexibly develop a variety of strategies (see Figure 16 for some examples), such as “if the effects of the tasks commute, then execute them concurrently, otherwise sequentially”.

In §8B we demonstrate more examples on concurrent programming applications, including efficient algorithmic speculation, cooperative multi-threading, and program testing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>category</th>
<th>scheduling strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIFO [33, 54]</td>
<td>LIPO [29]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>random scheduling [27]</td>
<td>inherit from previous decisions [29]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write before read [33]</td>
<td>tasks with less effects first [33]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tasks with more effects first [33]</td>
<td>concurrent read, exclusive write [27, 54]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conflicting tasks in same thread [29, 44]</td>
<td>task fusion [13, 36]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>divide into no conflicting groups of tasks [46]</td>
<td>execute conflicting tasks concurrently [9, 10, 19]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suspend conflicting tasks [56]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 16. An Example \( \lambda \text{fe} \) Client Domain: The Menagerie of Scheduling Strategies

9. Related Work

We are unaware of type-and-effect systems where the (pre-evaluation) effect of an expression is treated as a first-class citizen. The more established route is to treat the post-evaluation effect (in our terms, trace) as a first-class value. In Leory and Pessaux [32], exceptions raised through program execution are available to the programmers. This work has influenced many exception handling systems such as
Java, where Exception objects are also values. Bauer et al. [4] extends the first-class exception idea and allows the programmer to annotate an arbitrary expression as effect and upon the evaluation of that expression, control is transferred to a matching catch-like handling expression as a first-class value. Similar designs also exist in implicit invocation and aspect-oriented systems [57]. In general, the work cited here, albeit bearing similar terms, has a distant relationship with our work.

Bañados et al. [2] extends the idea of gradual typing [50] to develop a gradual effect system and later Toro et al. [53] provides an implementation, which allows programmers customize effect domains. A program element in their system may carry unknown effects, which may become gradually known at runtime. Long et al. [34] develops intensional effect polymorphism (IEP), a system that combines dynamic typing and effect polymorphism. Compared with these systems, effect reflection is a first-class programming abstraction in our system, and effect closures are first-class values. This leads to a number of unique contributions we summarized at the end of §1.

There is a large body of work of purely static or dynamic systems for effect reasoning. Examples of the former include Lucassen [50], Talpin et al. [52], Marino et al. [47], Clarke and Drossopoulou [14], Task Types [28] and DPJ [6]. The latter is exemplified by Soot [50], TWEJava [27], Legion [54], and ATE [33]. Along these lines, Nielson et al. [42] is among the most well known foundational system.

The may/must-effect duality may be unique to our system, but double-bounded types is not new. For example, in Java generics, Type bound declarations super and extends are available for generic type variables [15] [51], the dual bounds in the Java nominal type hierarchy. Unique to our (effect) system is that the type checking process actively computes and tightens the bounds of effects — e.g., the type checking rules of branching and effect analysis — suitable for constructing a precise and intuitive effect programming and reasoning system. The use of must-effects to enhance expressiveness and in combination with the may-effects to enable non-monotone effect operator in our system may be unique, but type system designers should be able to find conceptual analogies in existing systems, such as liveness [23] and obligation [7].

The typecase-style runtime type inspection by Harper and Morrisett [26] and Crary et al. [16] is an expressive approach to perform type analyses at runtime. Our effcase x = e : T where P ⇒ e expression shares the same spirit, except that it works on effect closures. In addition, our pattern matching may be guarded by a predicate, which on the high level can be viewed as an (unrolled/explicit) form of predicate dispatch [20] [38]. In general, supporting expressive pattern matching has a long tradition for data types in functional languages, with many developments in object-oriented languages as well (e.g., [1]). Our work demonstrates how predicated pattern matching interacts with refinement types, dynamic typing, double-bounded effect analysis, and first-class effect support.

Refinement types [13] [22] [25] [43] have received significant attention, with much progress on their expressiveness and decidability. Effect closures in first-class effects are immutable. This language feature significantly simplifies the design of refinement types in $\lambda_{te}$, as the interaction between refinement types and mutable features is known to be challenging [11]. $\lambda_{te}$ demonstrates the opportunity of bridging predicated effect analysis and refinement types.

10. Conclusion

We describe a new foundation for effect programming and reasoning, where effects are available as first-class values to programmers. Our system is powered by the subtle interaction among powerful features such as dynamic typing, double-bounded effects, polarity support in predicates, and refinement types. The high-level design features of first-class effects — together with how they are interconnected in an organic fashion — are summarized in Figure 17.

Acknowledgement

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References


A. Optimization Dynamic Semantics: Efficient Effect Computation through Pre-computation and Substitution

The operational semantics we have introduced in §6 may not be efficient, because it may require dynamic construction of type derivations to compute dynamic type-and-effects. Here, we introduce one optimization.

Note that the expressions that do not have free variables will have exactly the same static effects (i.e., via static typing) and dynamic effects (i.e., via dynamic typing). Observe that the only difference between the two forms of effects for an expression lies in the typing of the free variables. Because of this, we define an optimized effect computation strategy with two steps:

1. At compile time, the static effects of the expression used by the effect reflection of each query expression in the program are computed. Also the type (which contains free type/effect/region variables) of each free variable that appears in the query expressio is recorded.

2. At run time, the static types of the free variables are substituted with the dynamic types computed with their corresponding values. This substitution will be used to substitute the effect computed in the previous step to compute the dynamic effect.

For the first step, Figure 18 defines a transformation from the original expression e to an annotated expression o. The two expressions are identical, except that the query in the “annotated expression” now takes the form of query (x : T ⊴ T, σ ∼ σ') o, which records the free variables of expressions o and their corresponding static types, denoted as Π : T. The same expression also records the statically computed type T, must-effects σ and may-effects σ' for o. The function fn(o) computes the free variables for o.

Considering all the annotated information is readily available while we perform static typing of the query expression — as in (T-QUERY) — the transformation from expression e to annotated expression o under Δ and Γ, denoted as e ⊢ Δ,Γ o, is rather predictable, defined also in Figure 18.

The reduction system ⊢o is defined at the bottom of the same figure and the notation ⊢ o represents the reflexive and transitive closure of ⊢o. Upon the evaluation of the annotated query expression, the types associated with the free variables — now substituted with values — are substituted with the types associated with the corresponding values. The latter is computed by judgment os : Δ; Γ ⊬ o : T, σ ∼ σ', defined as s : Δ; Γ ⊬ e : T, σ ∼ σ' where e ⊢ Δ,Γ o, substituted types of the free variables with the types of the values.

B. More Applicability

B.1 Latent Effect Analysis

With λte, programmers can inspect the structure of effects, allowing latent effect associated with higher-order function to be analyzed or more generally any effects nested in the types. To illustrate, consider the example in Figure 19. Assume that we have already defined three references bf0, bf1, and bf2 in different regions r, u, and w respectively. The function s accepts a function fn as an argument and decides whether it can be applied on the three references in parallel, so called single instruction multiple data (SIMD) application. With the effcase expression, programmers can inspect the latent effects of the instruction to verify the concurrency safety (line 16). In contrast, traditional systems will create a task for each data, and check that the effects of each pair of tasks do not interfere (lines 27), that can lead to O(n²) checks, where n is the size of the data. In a similar vein, such a design eases the effects reasoning of the map, filter, select functions in the MapReduce and ParallelArray framework [17, 31].

B.2 Algorithmic Speculation

We highlight the use of the non-monotone operator == (line 4), in Figure 20, which is not supported or can be hard to reason about in previous system [24]. The operator == is satisfied if the effects of LHS and RHS are equal.

Typically, in algorithmic speculation [48], a master process executes a computation in multiple worker processes and returns with the fastest among them. The runtime will copy the heap from the master to the worker whenever the worker reads the heap and copy the heap from the best worker back to the master upon completion. The workers are organized into topology to reduce copying overhead. With λte, overhead can be further reduced.

If the to-be-speculated computation x is pure and only writes the final result to the returning buf, then the copying overhead can be avoided. The programmer analyzes its effects (line 4) and if both its must- and may-effects are wr, i.e., ec(wr ∼ wr), x can be evaluated in two threads and the result from the faster one is used. As such, expensive copying by executing them in processes is avoided.

B.3 Atomic Cooperative Multi-threading and Testing

Writing concurrent programs is difficult, error prone, and creates code which is hard to debug. Consider an adapted real world bug shown in Figure 21. It is intuitive that in the
Abstract Syntax in Optimized $\lambda_{fe}$:

$${} ::= b | \lambda x : T . o | x | o | \text{let } x = o \text{ in } o | o | \text{ ref } \rho T o | o : o | \text{ realize } o$$

$${} ::= b | \lambda x : T . o | l | o c$$

$${} ::= o, T, \sigma, \sigma'$$

$${} ::= \Gamma \rightarrow (\varepsilon, T) ov$$

$${} ::= b | \lambda x : T . o$$

$${} ::= \mathcal{O} o | ov\mathcal{O}$$

$${} ::= o$$

$${} ::= \mathcal{O} o | ov\mathcal{O}$$

$${} ::= o$$

$${} ::= o$$

Transformation:

$$\text{query } e \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \text{query } (\overline{x : T} \triangleright T, \sigma \sim \sigma') o$$

$$\text{effcase } x = e : T \text{ where } P \Rightarrow e \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \text{effcase } x = o : T \text{ where } P \Rightarrow o$$

$$\text{realize } e \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \text{realize } o$$

$$\lambda x : T . e \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \lambda x : T . o$$

$$x \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} x$$

$$\text{ref } \rho T e \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \text{ref } \rho T o$$

$$!e \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} !o$$

$$e := e' \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} o := o'$$

$$e' \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} o'$$

$$\text{let } x = e \text{ in } e' \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \text{let } x = o \text{ in } o'$$

$$e || e' \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \text{ o }||\text{ o'}$$

$$\text{if } e \text{ then } e_0 \text{ else } e_1 \xrightarrow{\Delta, \Gamma} \text{ if } o \text{ then } o_0 \text{ else } o_1$$

Evaluation relation:

$$\text{Gen(Bool)} = \text{Bool}$$

$$\text{Gen(Ref}\_\rho \_T) = \text{Ref}\_\rho \_T$$

$$\text{Gen}(T \xrightarrow{\sigma \sim \sigma} T') = \text{Gen}(T) \xrightarrow{\zeta' \sim \zeta} \text{Gen}(T')$$

$$\text{where } \zeta, \zeta' \text{ fresh}$$

The root cause of the problem is that programmers usually think sequentially and assume that a small block of code will be executed atomically, which is not provided in the preemptive semantics \[3\][56]. Under the preemptive semantics, an yield expression will be inserted into the program points, wherever references are accessed, e.g., on line 3. The yield expression serves as a breakpoint to pause the current thread, from which control could be transferred to other threads, e.g., the interfere thread.
To increase flexibility, \( \lambda_{fe} \) allows programmers to decide which expression to query and to customize their effect analyses to meet their domain knowledge. The value of domain knowledge can be viewed in the application for safe parallelism. The fork function would like to execute the three tasks \( x_1, x_2, \) and \( x_3 \) in parallel. Let the predefined ternary operator spawn denote running the tasks in parallel if their effects are pairwise disjoint and sequentially otherwise.

For example, for the above call site of an, user may wish to run the two readers concurrently, and after they are done, run writer, but fork will run them sequentially. Such concurrent execution may have huge performance benefits compared with the sequential execution. Paradoxically, the reordering is only correct in certain domain but not the others [46], which certainly requires domain knowledge.

Other effect-aware schedulings are possible and are shown in Figure 16. While, previous work allows programmers to select a small predefined subset of schedulings, in \( \lambda_{fe} \), programmers are endowed the power of implementing any of the schedulings and combining them in any order.

With \( \lambda_{fe} \), programmers can implement don't-care nondeterminism scheduling as in Figure 22.

C. Appendix: Detailed Proofs

This section proves the formal properties of \( \lambda_{fe} \). We first show the standard soundness property (§C.1). Next, we prove that the effect carried in the effect closure is valid (§C.2). Finally, we present important trace consistency results for \( \lambda_{fe} \) in §C.3.
Yield in Testing
let yield = λx. for y : !threads
effect y:
| EC (h → z) where wr, <<: h =⇒ (wr, <<: y) realize y

Yield in Atomicity
let yield = λx. for y : !threads
effect y:
| EC (h → z) where wr, /<<: z =⇒ (wr, /<<: y) realize y

Application code
let buf = ref 0 in
let buggy = λx. if !buf not 0
then yield buf; /* break point */ 10 /!buf in
let threads = ref (cons (query buggy 0) (query interfere 0)) in
buggy || interfere

Figure 21. Programmer-Guided Testing and Atomicity Preservation in First-Class Effects, Inspired by Yi et al. [56], Burckhardt et al. [9], Erickson et al. [19] and Burnim et al.’s Work [10].

\[ ∀ \lambda x_1, x_2, x_3. \]
\[ \text{EffCase May Effects.} \]

Before we proceed, let us first define two terms that will be used for the rest of the section.

**Definition C.1. [Redex Configuration]** We say \( (s; e; f) \) is a redex configuration of program \( e' \), written \( e' \triangleright s; e, f \triangleright \), if \( f \triangleright e' : T, \sigma \triangleright \sigma' \), \( \emptyset; e'; 0 \rightarrow s; E[e]; f. \) When \( e' \) is irrelevant, we shorten it as \( \triangleright s; e, f \triangleright \).

Next, let us define relation \( s \triangleright f : \sigma \triangleright \sigma' \); which says that dynamic trace \( f \) realizes static effect \( \sigma \) and \( \sigma' \) under store \( s \).

**Definition C.2. [Effect-Trace Consistency]** \( s \triangleright f : \sigma \triangleright \sigma' \) holds iff the following two conditions hold: 0, \( \pi(x) \in f \) implies \( \pi(x) \in \sigma' \); and 0, \( \pi(x) \in \sigma \) implies \( \pi(x) \in f \).

That is, the runtime trace falls within the computed must-may effects.

**Definition C.3. [Well-typed Store]** We say a store \( s \) is well-typed, written \( \triangleright s \), iff \( \forall \{ t \rightarrow (x, r) \} \in s . s; \emptyset; 0 \triangleright \) \( v : T', 0 \sim 0 \), where \( T' \sim T \).

C.1 Type Soundness

**Lemma C.4 (Strengthening).** If \( s; \Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T'' \triangleright_{B} e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \), then \( s; \Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T'' \triangleright_{B} e' : T', \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3 \), where \( \forall i \in \{1..n\} \exists i' < T'' \rightarrow T', T' \sim T, \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_2 \) and \( \sigma_2 \subseteq \sigma_1 \).

**Proof.** The proof proceeds by structural induction on the derivation of \( s; \Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T'' \triangleright_{B} e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \) and by cases based on the last step in that derivation. The base cases are (T-BOOL), (ST-LOC), (ST-TYPE). These cases are trivial, they do not have variables.

The remaining cases cover the induction step. The induction hypothesis is that the claim of the lemma holds for all sub-derivations of the derivation being considered.

- **(ST-APP)** Here \( e = e_0 \rightarrow e_1 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T \triangleright_{B} e_0 : T_2 & \rightarrow \sigma_{9} \sim \sigma_{5} \\
\Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T \triangleright_{B} e_1 : T_2, \sigma_6 \sim \sigma_7 \\
\sigma_0 = \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_6 \cup \sigma_8 & = \sigma_5 \cup \sigma_7 \cup \sigma_9
\end{align*}
\]

By the induction hypothesis (IH), \( s; \Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T \triangleright_{B} e_0 : T_3 \rightarrow \sigma_{9} \sim \sigma_{5} \), where \( T_2 \sim T_3, T' \sim T, \sigma_8 \subseteq \sigma_9, \sigma_9 \subseteq \sigma_6, \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_4 \) and \( \sigma_6 \subseteq \sigma_4 \), where \( \sigma_0 = \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_6 \cup \sigma_8 \) and \( \sigma_4 = \sigma_{1} \cup \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_8 \) thus \( \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_6 \) and \( \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_1 \).

- **(ST-ABS)** Here \( e = \lambda x : T_0. e_0 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T \triangleright_{B} e_0 : T_0 \rightarrow \sigma_{9} \sim \sigma_{5} \\
\Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T \triangleright_{B} e_1 : T_4, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_7
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma; x \rightarrow T \triangleright_{B} e_0 : T_3 \rightarrow \sigma_{9} \sim \sigma_{5} \), where \( T_2 \sim T_3, T' \sim T, \sigma_8 \subseteq \sigma_9, \sigma_9 \subseteq \sigma_6, \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_4 \) and \( \sigma_6 \subseteq \sigma_4 \), where \( \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_6 \cup \sigma_8 \) and \( \sigma_4 = \sigma_{1} \cup \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_8 \) thus \( \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_6 \) and \( \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_1 \). Therefore,
s; Γ, x : T' belong to: s; T, 0 \sim 0, where T' = T_0 \vdash \sigma_i' \sim \sigma_j', T'_1 \therefore T' \vdash T'.

• (ST-LET) Here e = let x_0 = e_0 in e_1. The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_1 : T', \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_5 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T', x_0 \rightarrow T'_1 \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_6 \sim \sigma_7 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T'_1 \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \Gamma \vdash \sigma_i', \sigma_j' \sim \sigma_5', where T'_1 \vdash T, \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_i' and \sigma_5 \subseteq \sigma_j'. Also, by IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T', x_0 \rightarrow T'_1 \vdash e_1 : T', \sigma_6' \sim \sigma_7', where T' \vdash T, \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_6' and \sigma_7 \subseteq \sigma_7'. Therefore, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T', \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1', where \sigma_0' = \sigma_4' \cup \sigma_6' and \sigma_1' = \sigma_5' \cup \sigma_7', thus \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' and \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_1.

• (ST-GET) Here e = !e_0. The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}, \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}, \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5, where \tau \subseteq \rho, \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_4' and \sigma_5 \subseteq \sigma_5'. Therefore, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1', where \sigma_0' = \sigma_4' \cup \text{rd}_\rho, and \sigma_1' = \sigma_5' \cup \text{rd}_\rho, thus \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' and \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_1.

• (ST-REF) Here e = ref \rho T_0 e_0. The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}_\rho, \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}_\rho, \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}_\rho, \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5, where \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_4' and \sigma_5 \subseteq \sigma_5'. Therefore, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1', where \sigma_0' = \sigma_4' \cup \text{rd}_{\text{rd}_\rho}, and \sigma_1' = \sigma_5' \cup \text{rd}_{\text{rd}_\rho}, thus \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' and \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_1.

• (ST-SET) Here e = e_0 := e_1. The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}_\rho, \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}_\rho, \tau, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5, where \tau \subseteq \rho, \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_4' and \sigma_5 \subseteq \sigma_5'. Also by IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_1 : T', \sigma_6 \sim \sigma_7, where T' \vdash T, \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_6' and \sigma_7 \subseteq \sigma_7'. Therefore, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1', where \sigma_0' = \sigma_6' \cup \text{rd}_{\text{rd}_\rho}, and \sigma_1' = \sigma_7' \cup \text{rd}_{\text{rd}_\rho}, thus \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' and \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_1.

• (ST-EFFCASE) Here e = effcase x = e'. The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } & \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e' : \text{EC}(\tau, \sigma \sim \sigma') where P \vdash e. The typing derivation step has the following form:
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e' : \text{EC}(\tau, \sigma \sim \sigma'), \emptyset \vdash \emptyset, where T_1 \vdash T, \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_4' and \sigma_5 \subseteq \sigma_5'. Also by IH, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e_1 : T', \sigma_6' \sim \sigma_7, where T' \vdash T, \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_5'' and \sigma_6'' \subseteq \sigma_7''. Therefore, s; Δ; Γ, x \rightarrow T' \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1', where \sigma_0' = \cap_{\{1 \ldots n\}} \sigma_{i''}, and \sigma_1' = \cap_{\{1 \ldots n\}} \sigma_{i''}, thus \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' and \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_1.'
• (ST-QUERY) Here \( e = \text{query} \ e_0 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_0 \sigma_4 \sigma_5 \\
\text{By IH, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T'' \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e_0 : T_1, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5', \text{ where } T_1 : T_2 \vdash_0 \sigma_2' \subseteq \sigma_5'. \text{ Therefore, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T'' \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e_0 : T_1 \vdash_0 \sigma_2' \subseteq \sigma_5', \text{ and } T' : T_1 \vdash_0 \sigma_0' \subseteq \sigma_2'.
\end{align*}
\]

• (ST-REALIZE) Here \( e = \text{realize} \ e_0 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_0 \sigma_4 \sigma_5 \\
\text{By IH, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T'' \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e_0 : T_1, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5', \text{ where } T_1 : T_2 \vdash_0 \sigma_2' \subseteq \sigma_5'. \text{ Therefore, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T'' \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e_0 : T_1 \vdash_0 \sigma_2' \subseteq \sigma_5', \text{ and } T' : T_1 \vdash_0 \sigma_0' \subseteq \sigma_2'.
\end{align*}
\]

• (ST-REFINE) Here \( e = \{T, \sigma \sim \sigma'|P\} \ e' \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_0 \sigma_4 \sigma_5 \\
\text{By IH, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T'' \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e' : T_1 \vdash_0 \sigma_2' \sim \sigma_3, \text{ where } T_1 : T_2 \vdash_0 \sigma_2' \subseteq \sigma_3' \subseteq \sigma_1. \text{ Therefore, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T'' \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e' : T_1 \vdash_0 \sigma_2' \subseteq \sigma_3' \subseteq \sigma_1.
\end{align*}
\]

\textbf{Lemma C.5} (Substitution). If \( s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e : T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \), then \( s; \Delta; \Gamma, T_0 \mapsto v, T_1, \emptyset \mapsto \emptyset, \text{ and } T_1 : T_0 \vdash T_0, \text{ then } s; \Delta; \Gamma, T_0 \mapsto [x \mapsto v], T_1, \emptyset \mapsto \emptyset, \text{ and } T_1 : T_0 \vdash T_0 \\
\textbf{Proof.} The proof proceeds by structural induction on the derivation of \( s; \emptyset; \emptyset \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \) and by cases based on the last step in that derivation. The base cases are (T-Bool), (ST-LOC), (ST-TYPE). These case are trivial: \( e \) is value \( v \) and there is no variable.

The remaining cases cover the induction step. The induction hypothesis is that the claim of the lemma holds for all sub-derivations of the derivation being considered.

• (ST-APP) Here \( e = e_0 \ e_1 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_0 \sigma_4 \sigma_5 \\
\text{By the induction hypothesis (IH), } s; \Delta; \Gamma, T_0 \mapsto e_0 : T_2, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5, \text{ where } T_2 : T_3 \vdash_0 \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5'. \text{ Therefore, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, T_0 \mapsto e_0 : T_2, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5'.
\end{align*}
\]

\textbf{(ST-ABS)} Here \( e = \lambda x_0 : T_2. e_0 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_0 \sigma_4 \sigma_5 \\
\text{By the induction hypothesis (IH), } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x_0 \mapsto T_2 \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e_0 : T_3, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5, \text{ where } T_3 : T_4 \vdash_0 \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5'. \text{ Therefore, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, x_0 \mapsto T_2 \stackrel{b}{\leftrightarrow} e_0 : T_3, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5'.
\end{align*}
\]

• (ST-GET) Here \( e = !e_0 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_0 \sigma_4 \sigma_5 \\
\text{By IH, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, T_0 \mapsto e_0 : T_2, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5, \text{ where } T_2 : T_3 \vdash_0 \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \text{ and } \sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_5. \text{ Also, by IH and Lemma C.4, } \sigma_3' \subseteq \sigma_5'. \text{ Also, by IH and Lemma C.4, } \sigma_0' \subseteq \sigma_4' \text{ and } \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_5' \text{ and } \sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_5.
\end{align*}
\]

• (ST-REF) Here \( e = \text{ref} \rho T_0 e_0 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_0 \sigma_4 \sigma_5 \\
\text{By IH, } s; \Delta; \Gamma, T_0 \mapsto e_0 : T_2, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5, \text{ where } T_2 : T_3 \vdash_0 \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \text{ and } \sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_5. \text{ Also, by IH and Lemma C.4, } \sigma_3' \subseteq \sigma_5'. \text{ Also, by IH and Lemma C.4, } \sigma_0' \subseteq \sigma_4' \text{ and } \sigma_1' \subseteq \sigma_5' \text{ and } \sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_5.
\end{align*}
\]
By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5' \), where \( T_0' <: T_0 \). Therefore, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' \subseteq \sigma_4' \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \). By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' = \sigma_4' \cup \text{init}_\rho \) and \( \sigma_5' = \sigma_5' \cup \text{init}_\rho \). Thus \( T_0' <: T_0, \sigma_4' \subseteq \sigma_4' \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \).

**ST-set** Here \( e = e_0 := e_1 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}, T, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_6 \sim \sigma_7 \\
\sigma_0 = \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_6 \cup \text{wr}_\rho \\
\sigma_1 = \sigma_5 \cup \sigma_7 \cup \text{wr}_\rho
\end{align*}
\]

\( s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \)

By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5' \), where \( \rho' \subseteq \rho, \sigma_4 \subseteq \sigma_4' \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \). Also by IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5' \), where \( T_0' <: T_0, \sigma_4' \subseteq \sigma_5' \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \). Therefore, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5' \), where \( \sigma_0' = \sigma_4' \cap \sigma_6 \) and \( \sigma_1' = \sigma_5' \cap \sigma_7 \); thus \( \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' \) and \( \sigma_1 \subseteq \sigma_1' \).

**ST-para** Here \( e = e_0 || e_1 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_6 \sim \sigma_7 \\
\sigma_0 = \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_6 \cup \text{wr}_\rho \\
\sigma_1 = \sigma_5 \cup \sigma_7 \cup \text{wr}_\rho
\end{align*}
\]

\( s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \)

By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0', \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5' \), where \( T_0' <: T_0 \). Also by IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0', \sigma_4' \subseteq \sigma_4 \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \). By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' \subseteq \sigma_4 \cup \text{init}_\rho \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \cup \text{init}_\rho \). Thus \( \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' \) and \( \sigma_1 \subseteq \sigma_1' \).

**ST-iv** Here \( e = \text{if} \ e_0 \ \text{then} \ e_1 \ \text{else} \ e_2 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e_0 : \text{Bool}, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5 \\
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_6 \sim \sigma_7 \\
\sigma_0 = \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_6 \cup \sigma_8 \\
\sigma_1 = \sigma_5 \cup \sigma_7 \cup \sigma_9
\end{align*}
\]

\( s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \)

By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0', \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5' \), where \( T_0' <: T_0 \). By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0', \sigma_4' \subseteq \sigma_4 \cup \text{init}_\rho \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \cup \text{init}_\rho \). Thus \( \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' \) and \( \sigma_1 \subseteq \sigma_1' \).

**ST-case** Here \( e = \text{case} \ x \rightarrow e' \) : \( \text{EC}(T', \sigma_4 \sim \sigma' P) \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e' : \text{EC}(T', \sigma_4 \sim \sigma' P) \\
s; \Delta; \Gamma, x \mapsto T_0 \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0, \sigma_4' \sim \sigma_5' \), where \( \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' \) and \( \sigma_1 \subseteq \sigma_1' \). By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lceil x \rceil e_0 : T_0', \sigma_4' \subseteq \sigma_4 \cup \text{init}_\rho \) and \( \sigma_5' \subseteq \sigma_5 \cup \text{init}_\rho \). Thus \( \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_0' \) and \( \sigma_1 \subseteq \sigma_1' \).

Our soundness proof is constructed through standard subject reduction and progress:

**Lemma C.6 (Type Preservation)** If \( \triangleright s, s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \) and \( s; e; f \rightarrow s'; e'; f', \text{ then } \triangleright s', s'; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e' : T', \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3 \) and \( T' <: T \).
Proof. The proof is by cases on the reduction step applied. $s;\emptyset\vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$ and by cases based on the last step in that derivation. The base cases are (ST-ABS), (T-Bool), (ST-LOC) and (ST-TYPE). These cases are trivial: $e$ is a value and no transition applies.

• (ST-APP) Here $e = \lambda x : T. e_0 v, e' = [x\langle v \rangle]e_0$ and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash x : T', e_0 : T' \vdash s', \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash v : T', \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}$$

By (ST-ABS), it must be the case that $s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash T' \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$. By Lemma C.5 $s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash [x\langle v \rangle]e_0 : T', \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$ and $T' : T$.

• (ST-LET) Here $e = \text{let } x = v \text{ in } e_0, e' = [x\langle v \rangle]e_0$ and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_0 : T_0, \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash x : T_0 \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma_1}$$

By Lemma C.5 $s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash [x\langle v \rangle]e_0 : T', \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3$ and $T' : T$.

• (ST-GET) Here $e = \text{let } x = v \text{ in } e_0, e' = v$ and $s' = s$, where $\{ l \vdash (x, T) \} \in s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash l : \text{Ref. } T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash v : T', \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma_1}$$

By $\triangleright s$ and the Definition C.3 $s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash v : T', \emptyset \sim \emptyset$, where $T' : T$.

• (ST-REF) Here $e = \text{ref } T v, e' = l$, and $s' = s$, $\{ l \vdash (x, T) \} \in s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash l : \text{Ref. } T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash v : T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma_1}$$

Because the type of $v$ is $T$, which is the same as the fresh store cell, thus $\triangleright s'$. By (ST-LOC), $s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash l : \text{Ref. } T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset$.

• (ST-SET) Here $e = l := v, e' = v$, and $s' = s$, $\{ l \vdash (x, T) \} \in s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash l : \text{Ref. } T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash v : T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma_1}$$

Because the type of $v$ is $T$, which is the same as the fresh store cell, thus $\triangleright s'$. The types of $e$ and $e'$ are the same.

• (ST-IF) Here $e = \text{if } b \text{ then } e_0 \text{ else } e_1, e' = \text{b ? } e_0 : e_1$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash b : \text{Bool}, \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3}$$

The types of $e$ and $e'$ are the same.

• (ST-PAR) Here $e = e_0 || e_1, e' = (e_0 ; e_1)$ or (let $x = e_1 \text{ in } e_0 ; x$), and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \cup \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_3}$$

Obviously, $e_0 ; e_1$ has type $T$. Also, let $x = e_1 \text{ in } e_0 ; x$ has type $T$. Therefore, $e'$ has type $T$.

• (ST-EFECASE) In this case, $e = \text{if } e \text{ then } e' \text{ else } e''$, where $P \Rightarrow e, e' = e_1 \wedge T < \emptyset \wedge \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma'' \sim \sigma''$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \cup \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_0}$$

As we can see, $e_0$ and $e$ have the same type $T$.

• (ST-QUERY) Here, $e = \text{query } e_0, e' = \langle e_0, T, \sigma', \sigma'' \rangle$.

• (ST-REFINE) Here $e = \text{ref } T v, e' = [x\langle v \rangle]e_0$ and $s' = s$. By Lemma C.12 $s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$. Therefore, $e$ and $e'$ have the same type $T$.

• (ST-REPLACE) Here $e = \{ T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \} e_0, e' = e_0$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$$

$$\frac{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma' \wedge \emptyset}{s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}$$

As we can see $e_0$ and $e'$ have the same type $T$. □

Lemma C.7 (Progress). If $s;\emptyset;\emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$ then either $e$ is a value, or $s; e; f \vdash s'; e', f'$ for some $s', e', f'$. □
Proof. The proof is by cases on the reduction step applied. 
$s; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$ and by cases based on the last step in that derivation. The base cases are (ST-ABS), (T-BOOL), (ST-LOC) and (ST-TYPE). These case are trivial: $e$ is a value and no transition applies.

- (ST-APP) Here $e = \lambda x : T. e_0\ v$. By (APP), $e' = [x \mapsto v]e_0$.
- (ST-LET) Here $e = \text{let } x = v \text{ in } e_0$. By (LET), $e' = [x \mapsto v]e_0$.
- (ST-GET) Here $e = \mathbf{!!}$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash l : \text{Ref}, T, \sigma \sim \emptyset$$

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e : \text{rd}_x \sim \text{rd}_x$$

By (ST-LOC), $\{l \mapsto_{(r, t)} v\} \in s$. Thus, by (GET), $e' = v$.

- (ST-REF) Here $e = \text{ref } x : T \ v$. By (REF), $e' = l$, and $s' = s$, $\{l \mapsto_{(r, t)} v\}$, where $l = \text{freshloc}()$.

- (ST-SET) Here $e = l : = v$. By (SET), $e' = v$, and $s' = s$, $\{l \mapsto_{(r, t)} v\}$.

- (ST-IF) Here $e = \text{if } b \text{ then } e_0 \text{ else } e_1$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash b : \text{Bool}, \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$$

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3$$

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \cap \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_3$$

By (IF), $e' = b ? e_0 : e_1$.

- (ST-PAR) Here $e = e_0 || e_1$. By (PAR), $e' = (e_0; e_1)$ or (let $x = e_1$ in $e_0; x$).

- (ST-EFFCASE) In this case, $e = \text{effcase } x = (e_0, T, \sigma, \sigma') : \text{ec}(T, \sigma \sim \sigma')$ where $P \Rightarrow e$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma'_i'' \sim \sigma''_i'' \text{ for all } i \in \{1...n\}$$

$$s; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \cap_{i \in \{1...n\}} \sigma''_i \sim \cup_{i \in \{1...n\}} \sigma''_i$$

By (EFFC), $e' = \theta e_i$, where $T \ni \theta T_i \land \theta P_i$.

- (ST-QUERY) Here, $e = \text{query } e_0$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$$

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e : \text{ec}(T, \sigma \sim \sigma'), \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

By (QRY), $e' = (e_0, T, \sigma, \sigma')$.

- (ST-REALIZE) Here, $e = \text{realize } (e_0, T, \sigma, \sigma')$. By (REAL), $e' = e_0$.

- (ST-REFINE) Here $e = \{T, \sigma \sim \sigma'|P\} e_0$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$$

$$s; \emptyset ; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$$

By (RFMT), $e' = e_0$.

Theorem C.8 (Type Soundness). Given an expression $e$, if $e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$, then either the evaluation of $e$ diverges, or there exist some $s, v$, and $f$ such that $\emptyset ; e ; \emptyset \Rightarrow^* s; v; f$.

Proof. Straightforward induction on the number of steps applied, Lemma C.7 and Lemma C.6.

C.2 Query-Realize Correspondence

In this section, we establish the validity of effect closures, i.e., the passenger expression always has the effect carried by the closure, regardless of how the closure has been passed around or stored. The key insight for the proof is the nature of dynamic typing: given an expression $e$, its type and effect depend upon the environment $\Gamma$ and the types of the store $s$, but not the values in $s$. Ground expressions do not have free variables [45], whose typings are independent of $\Gamma$. At runtime, the types in $s$ does not change, and all the redex expressions are ground expressions, thus the dynamic typing of an expression is valid throughout the program.

Definition C.9. [Consistent Stores] We say a store $s' \sim s$ is consistent with another store $s$, written $s' \triangleright s$, if $s' \triangleright s$ and $s' \ni v \ni s \ni \{l \mapsto_{(r, t)} v\}$ for all $l : = v$. By (SET), $s' \triangleright s$.

Lemma C.10 (Stores Consistency). If $\ni s' \triangleright s$, then $s'; e ; f \Rightarrow s'; e'; f'$, then $s' \triangleright s$.

Proof. The proof proceeds by considering cases based on the current redex of $e$. The cases for (APP), (LET), (GET), (IF), (PAR), (QRY), (REAL), (EFFC) and (RFMT) are obvious because $s$ and $s'$ are the same.

- (SET) Here $e = l : = v$. By (SET), $s' = s$, $\{l \mapsto_{(r, t)} v\}$, if $\{l \mapsto_{(r, t)} v\} \ni s$.

- (REF) Here $e = \text{ref } x : T \ v$. By (REF), $s' = s$, $\{l \mapsto_{(r, t)} v\}$.

Lemma C.11 (Consistency Stores Typing Preservation). If $s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$, and $s' \triangleright s$, then $s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \emptyset ; e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$.

Proof. The proof proceeds by structural induction on the derivation of $s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$ and by cases based on the last step in that derivation. The base cases are (T-BOOL) and (ST-VAR), which are trivial, their typings do not depend on the store.

The remaining cases cover the induction step. The induction hypothesis is that the claim of the lemma holds for all sub-derivations of the derivation being considered.

- (ST-APP) Here $e = e_0 \ e_1$. The typing derivation step has the following form:
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_2 \quad \text{by \text{Ref}}_\rho, T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_2, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3 \\
\sigma = \sigma_2 \cup \sigma_4 \cup \sigma_6 \\
\sigma' = \sigma_3 \cup \sigma_5 \cup \sigma_7 \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_2, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1\). Also by IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_2, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3\). Thus \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\).

- **(ST-ABS)** Here \(e = \lambda x : T_0. e_0\). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_1, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T_0 \rightarrow T_1, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_1, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1\). Therefore, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\).

- **(ST-LET)** Here \(e = \text{let} \ x_0 = e_0 \text{ in } e_1\). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_1, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_2, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3 \\
\sigma = \sigma_0 \cup \sigma_2 \\
\sigma' = \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_3 \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_1, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1\). Also by IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_2, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3\). Therefore, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\).

- **(ST-GET)** Here \(e = ! e_0\). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}_\rho, T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \\
\sigma = \sigma_0 \cup \text{rd}_\rho \\
\sigma' = \sigma_1 \cup \text{rd}_\rho \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : \text{Ref}_\rho, T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1\). Therefore, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\).

- **(ST-REF)** Here \(e = \text{ref } \rho \ T_0 e_0\). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \\
\sigma = \sigma_0 \cup \text{init}_\rho \\
\sigma' = \sigma_1 \cup \text{init}_\rho \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1\). Therefore, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'\).

- **(ST-QUERY)** Here \(e = \text{query } e_0\). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \\
\text{T = } \text{EC}(T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1) \\
\text{s; } \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \emptyset \sim \emptyset
\end{align*}
\]

By IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1\). Also by IH, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma, x \rightarrow \text{EC}(T_1, \sigma_1 \sim \sigma'_1) \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_2' \sim \sigma_3\). Therefore, \(s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma_0' \sim \sigma_1'\).
By IH, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T_0, \sigma_0 \leadsto \sigma_1 \). Therefore, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \).

- *(ST-REALIZE)* Here \( e = \text{realize} e_0 \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : \text{EC}(T, \sigma_0 \leadsto \sigma_1), \sigma_2 \leadsto \sigma_3}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma'}
\]

By IH, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : \text{EC}(T, \sigma_0 \leadsto \sigma_1), \sigma_2 \leadsto \sigma_3 \). Therefore, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \).

- *(ST-REFINE)* Here \( e = \{t, \sigma \leadsto \sigma'|P\} e' \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e' : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma'}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma''}
\]

By IH, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e' : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \). Therefore, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma'' \).

- *(ST-TYPE)* Here \( e = (e', T, \sigma, \sigma') \). The typing derivation step has the following form:

\[
\frac{\{l \mapsto l\} \in s}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash l : \text{Ref}, T, \emptyset \leadsto \emptyset}
\]

Because \( s' \triangleright s \), by Definition C.9 \( \{l \mapsto l\} \in s' \). Therefore, by *(ST-LOC)*, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash l : \text{Ref}, T, \emptyset \leadsto \emptyset \).

- *(ST-APP)* Here \( e = \lambda x : T. e_0 \). The typing derivation has the following form:

\[
\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e' : \text{EC}(T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma'), \emptyset \leadsto \emptyset}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T', \sigma \leadsto \sigma'}
\]

Obviously, \( s'; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash (e', T, \sigma, \sigma') : \text{EC}(T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma'), \emptyset \leadsto \emptyset \).

**Proof.** By Lemma C.10 and by straightforward induction on the number of steps applied, we can prove that \( s' \triangleright s \). Because \( s; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \), by Lemma C.11 we have \( s'; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \). We can establish the uniformity of effect closure typing.

**Lemma C.13** *(Uniform Effect Closure Typing).* Given a store \( s \), a trace \( f \), an expression \( e = \text{EC}\{e', T, \sigma, \sigma'\} \), such that \( \triangleright s, e, f \), then \( s; \emptyset \vdash e' : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \).

**Proof.** The proof is by induction on the number of reduction steps applied and Lemma C.12. A corollary of this lemma is that the effect carried in the closure is valid throughout the entire lifespan from its introduction (effect query) to elimination (effect realization):

**Corollary C.14** *(Query-Realize Correspondence).* Given a store \( s \), a trace \( f \), an expression \( e = \text{EC}\{e', T, \sigma, \sigma'\} \), such that \( \triangleright s, e, f \). If

\[
\frac{s; e : f \rightarrow s; \text{EC}\{e', T, \sigma, \sigma'\}; f}{s; e' : \text{EC}\{e', T, \sigma, \sigma'\}; f'}
\]

then \( s; \emptyset \vdash e' : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma', \) and \( s'; \emptyset \vdash e' : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \).

**C.3 Trace Consistency**

First, let us state a simple property of our trace, in that it is monotonically increasing over the reduction sequence:

**Lemma C.15** *(Monotone Traces).* If \( s; e : f \rightarrow s' ; e'; f' \) then \( f' = f, f'' \) for some \( f'' \).

**Proof.** By the definition of the semantics and *(cxt)*. Next we show that the must-effect is always a subset of the may-effect.

**Lemma C.16** *(Normality of Double-Bounded Effects).* If \( t : \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \), \( e \triangleright e' \) and \( s; \emptyset \vdash e' : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \), then \( e \subseteq e' \).

**Proof.** The proof proceeds by structural induction on the derivation of \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \) and by cases based on the last step in that derivation.

The base cases include *(ST-ABS)*, *(T-BOOL)*, *(ST-VAR)*, *(ST-QUERY)*, *(ST-LOC)* and *(ST-TYPE)*. These cases are trivial: both effects are empty \( \emptyset \).

- *(ST-APP)* Here \( e = \lambda x : T. e_0 \). The typing derivation has the following form:

\[
\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T', \sigma \leadsto \sigma'}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T', \sigma \leadsto \sigma'}
\]

By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \), where \( \sigma \subseteq \sigma' \).

- *(ST-LET)* Here \( e = \text{let } x = v \text{ in } e_0 \). The typing derivation has the following form:

\[
\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T', \sigma \leadsto \sigma'}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T', \sigma \leadsto \sigma'}
\]

By IH, \( s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T, \sigma \leadsto \sigma' \), where \( \sigma \subseteq \sigma' \).

- *(ST-GET)* Here \( e = !l \). The typing derivation has the following form:

\[
\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash l : \text{Ref}, T, \emptyset \leadsto \emptyset}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash !l : \text{Ref}, T, \emptyset \leadsto \emptyset}
\]
Obviously, both effects are $rd_x$.

- (ST-REF) Here $e = \text{ref } x : T \; v$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash l : \text{ref } x : \top \; \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s; \Delta; l : \text{ref } x \vdash \emptyset \sim \emptyset}$$

Obviously, both effects are $\text{init}_x$.

- (ST-SET) Here $e = \text{let } x = v$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash l : \text{ref } x : \top \; \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{init}_x \sim \text{init}_x}$$

- (ST-IF) Here $e = \text{if } b \text{ then } e_0 \text{ else } e_1$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash b : \text{Bool } \; \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \quad s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \cup \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_3}$$

By IH, $\sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2 \subseteq \sigma_3$. Therefore $\sigma_0 \cap \sigma_2 \subseteq \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_3$.

- (ST-PAR) Here $e = e_0 || e_1$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1 \quad s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \cup \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_3}$$

By IH, $\sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_1$ and $\sigma_2 \subseteq \sigma_3$. Therefore $\sigma_0 \cup \sigma_2 \subseteq \sigma_1 \cup \sigma_3$.

- (ST-EFCASE) In this case, $e = \text{if } c \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash c : \top \; \emptyset \sim \emptyset}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma''_1 \sim \sigma'''_1 \quad s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T, \sigma''_2 \sim \sigma'''_2 \quad \forall i \in \{1 \ldots n\} \sigma''_i \cup \sigma'''_i}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : T, \sigma'' \cup \sigma''' \sim \sigma'''}$$

By IH, $\sigma'' \subseteq \sigma'''$ for all $i \in \{1 \ldots n\}$. Therefore $\forall i \in \{1 \ldots n\} \sigma''_i \subseteq \sigma'''_i$.

- (ST-QUERY) Here, $e = \text{query } e_0$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{ec}(T, \sigma \sim \sigma'), \emptyset \sim \emptyset}$$

Obviously, both effects are empty $\emptyset$.

- (ST-REALIZE) Here, $e = \text{realize } (e_0, T, \sigma, \sigma')$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}{s; \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{ec}(T, \sigma \sim \sigma'), \sigma \sim \sigma'}$$

By IH, $\sigma \subseteq \sigma'$.

- (ST-REFINE) Here $e = \{T, \sigma \sim \sigma'|P\} \; e_0$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$\frac{s; \emptyset \; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}{s; \emptyset \; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}$$

By IH, $\sigma \subseteq \sigma'$. □

The essence of refinement type for potential unsafe expression lies in the fact that through runtime effect reflection (dynamic typing), every instance of evaluation of the $\Sigma e$ expression in the reduction sequence must be “safe,” where “safety” is defined through the $\Sigma e$ refinement type given by programmers. To be more concrete:

**Definition C.17 (Effect Soundness of Refinement Type).** We say $e$ is effect-sound iff for any redex configuration such that $\Sigma \geq <s, \Sigma e, f >, \Sigma = \{T', \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1|P\}, s; \emptyset \; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$, it must hold that $T' <; T', \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma, \sigma' \subseteq \sigma_1$, and $P$.

Effect-based soundness is a corollary of type soundness:

**Corollary C.18 (\(\Lambda e\) Effect-based Soundness).** If $\vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$, then $e$ is effect-sound.

The above property only ensures that the dynamic effects, computed by the dynamic typing, are sound. Our ultimate goal is to enforce, at runtime, the trace through the evaluation of $e$, respects the refinement type $\Sigma$.

To achieve this goal, we define $\text{trace for expression}$:

**Definition C.19 (Trace from Effect Closure).** We say $f$ is a trace for expression $e$ under store $s$, written $f \propto \Sigma e$, iff $s; e; f' \rightarrow^* s'; v; f'$.

**Lemma C.20 (Effect Preservation).** If $\triangleright s; s; \emptyset \; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$ and $s; e; f \rightarrow s'; e'; f'$, then $\triangleright s'; s'; \emptyset \; \emptyset \vdash e' : T', \sigma_2 \sim \sigma_3$, $T' <; T, \sigma_0 - f' \subseteq \sigma_2$ and $\sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_1$.

**Proof.** We have proven that $\triangleright s$ and that $T' <; T$ in Lemma C.6 and it suffices to prove $\sigma_0 - f' \subseteq \sigma_2$ and $\sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_1$. The proof is by cases on the reduction step applied. $s; \emptyset \; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma_0 \sim \sigma_1$ and by cases based on the last step in that derivation. The base cases are (ST-ABS), (T-BOOL), (ST-LOC) and (ST-TYPE). These cases are trivial: $e$ is a value and no transition applies.
• (ST-APP) Here $e = \lambda x : T. e_0 \, v, e' = [x\backslash v]e_0, f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset \vdash \lambda x : T. e_0 : T' \, \sigma \to \sigma', s; \emptyset \vdash v : T', s; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset : \emptyset \to \emptyset$$

By (ST-ABS), it must be the case that $s; \emptyset; x \mapsto T'_0 \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \to \sigma'$. By Lemma C.3, $s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash [x\backslash v]e_0 : T', \sigma_0 \to \sigma_1, T' <: T, \sigma \subseteq \sigma_0$ and $\sigma_1 \subseteq \sigma'$.  

• (ST-LET) Here $e = \textit{let } x = v \textit{ in } e_0, e' = [x\backslash v]e_0, f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash T_0, s; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_0 \to \sigma_1$$

By Lemma C.3, $s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash [x\backslash v]e_0 : T', \sigma_2 \to \sigma_3, T' <: T, \sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_2$ and $\sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_1$.  

• (ST-GET) Here $e = \bot, e' = v, f' = \text{rd}(x)$, and $s' = s$, where $\{ l \mapsto_{(e,v)} v \} \in s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash l : \text{Ref}, s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash \text{rd}_x \sim \text{rd}_x$$

By $\triangleright$ and the Definition C.3, $s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash l : T', s; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset : \emptyset \to \emptyset$, where $T' <: T$. Here $\sigma_0 = \text{rd}_x, \sigma_1 = \text{rd}_x, \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = \emptyset$ and $\sigma_0 - f' = \emptyset$, thus $\sigma_0 - f'' \subseteq \sigma_2$.  

• (ST-REF) Here $e = \text{ref } x \, v, e' = l, f' = \text{init}(x)$, and $s' = s, \{ l \mapsto_{(e,x)} v \}$, where $l = \text{freshloc}()$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \text{Ref}, \sigma \to \sigma', s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash \text{init}_x$$

By (ST-LOC), $s'; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash l : \text{Ref}, \sigma \to \sigma$. Here $\sigma_0 = \text{init}_x, \sigma_1 = \text{init}_x, \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = \emptyset$ and $\sigma_0 - f' = \emptyset$, thus $\sigma_0 - f'' \subseteq \sigma_2$.  

• (ST-SET) Here $e = l := v, e' = v, f' = \text{wr}(x)$, and $s' = s, \{ l \mapsto_{(e,x)} v \}$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \text{Ref}, s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash \text{wr}_x \sim \text{wr}_x$$

Here $\sigma_0 = \text{wr}_x, \sigma_1 = \text{wr}_x, \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = \emptyset$ and $\sigma_0 - f' = \emptyset$, thus $\sigma_0 - f'' \subseteq \sigma_2$.  

• (ST-IF) Here $e = \text{if } b \text{ then } e_0 \text{ else } e_1, e' = b ? e_0 : e_1, f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash b : \text{Bool}, s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5$$

Here, $\sigma_0 = \sigma_4 \cap \sigma_5$ and $\sigma_1 = \sigma_5 \cup \sigma_7$. If $e' = e_0, \sigma_2 = \sigma_4$ and $\sigma_3 = \sigma_5$. Obviously, $\sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_2$ and $\sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_1$. If $e' = e_1, \sigma_2 = \sigma_6$ and $\sigma_3 = \sigma_7$. Obviously, $\sigma_0 \subseteq \sigma_2$ and $\sigma_3 \subseteq \sigma_1$.  

• (ST-PAR) Here $e = e_0||e_1, e' = (e_0; e_1)$ or (let $x = e_1$ in $e_0 ; x$), $f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T_0, e; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash e_1 : T_0, e; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash T_0, \sigma_4 \sim \sigma_5$$

Obviously, $e_0; e_1$ has the same type and effects as $e_0||e_1$. Same as let $x = e_1$ in $e_0 ; x$.  

• (ST-EFFCASE) In this case, $e = \text{effcase } x = (e_0, T, \sigma, \sigma') : \text{ec}(T, \sigma \to \sigma')$ where $P \Rightarrow e', e' = \theta e_1 \wedge T <: \theta T_1 \wedge \theta P_1,$ $f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e_1 : T, \sigma_0'' \sim \sigma_0''', \text{for all } i \in \{1 \ldots n\}$$

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e_1 : T, \cap_{i \in \{1 \ldots n\}} \sigma_0'' \sim \cup_{i \in \{1 \ldots n\}} \sigma_0'''$$

Obviously, $\cap_{i \in \{1 \ldots n\}} \sigma_0'' \subseteq \sigma_0'''$ and $\sigma_0''' \subseteq \cup_{i \in \{1 \ldots n\}} \sigma_0'''$.  

• (ST-QUERY) Here, $e = \text{query } e_0, e' = \langle e_0, T, \sigma, \sigma' \rangle$, $s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma', f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma', s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash \text{ec}(T, \sigma \sim \sigma'), \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

Obviously, the effects of $e$ and $e'$ are empty $\emptyset$.  

• (ST-REALIZE) Here, $e = \text{realize } e_0, \sigma, \sigma', e' = e_0, f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

$$s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma', s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash \emptyset \vdash \text{ec}(T, \sigma \sim \sigma'), \emptyset \sim \emptyset$$

Obviously, $\sigma_0 = \sigma_2 = \sigma$ and $\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 = \sigma'$. 

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• (ST-refine) Here $e = \{T, \sigma \sim \sigma' | P \}$ $e_0, e' = e_0, f' = \emptyset$, and $s' = s$. The typing derivation has the following form:

\[
\frac{s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e_0 : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}{s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'}
\]

Obviously, $\sigma_0 = \sigma_2 = \sigma$ and $\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 = \sigma'$.

**Definition C.21.** [Sound Client Concretization] We say a $\lambda_{fe}$ client constraint $P$ is sound if $s \vdash f : \sigma \sim \sigma'$, then $[\sigma \setminus f][\sigma' \setminus f]P$.

We now define the consistency over traces:

**Definition C.22 (Trace Consistent).** We say $e$ is trace-consistent if for any $\Gamma < s, \Sigma, e, f' >$, $\Sigma = \{T, \sigma \sim \sigma' | P\}$, and $f \propto <e, \emptyset>$, then $[\sigma \setminus f][\sigma' \setminus f]P$ holds.

To prove trace-based consistency, the crucial property we establish is:

**Lemma C.23 (Effect-Trace Consistency Preservation).** If $s; \emptyset; \emptyset \vdash e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$ and $s; e; f \rightarrow^* s'; v; f', f' \vdash s' \vdash f' : \sigma \sim \sigma'$.

**Proof.** The proof is by induction on the number of reduction steps applied and Lemma C.20. □

Finally, we can prove the intuitive notion of soundness of first-class effects:

**Theorem C.24 (\(\lambda_{fe}\) Trace-Based Consistency).** If $e : T, \sigma \sim \sigma'$, then $e$ is trace-consistent.

**Proof.** The proof is by Lemma C.23 by Definition C.21 and by Definition C.22. □