Dijkstra Monads for Free

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Abstract

Dijkstra monads enable a dependent type theory to be enhanced with support for specifying and verifying effectful code via weakest preconditions. Together with their closely related counterparts, Hoare monads, they provide the basis on which verification tools like F*, Hoare Type Theory (HTT), and Ynot are built.

We show that Dijkstra monads can be derived “for free” by applying a continuation-passing style (CPS) translation to the standard monadic definitions of the underlying computational effects. Automatically deriving Dijkstra monads in this way provides a correct-by-construction and efficient way of reasoning about user-defined effects in dependent type theories.

We demonstrate these ideas in EMF*, a new dependently typed calculus, validating it via both formal proof and a prototype implementation within F*. Besides equipping F* with a more uniform and extensible effect system, EMF* enables a novel mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic proofs within F*.

Categories and Subject Descriptors D.3.1 [Programming Languages]: Formal Definitions and Theory—Semantics; F.3.1 [Logics and Meanings of Programs]: Specifying and Verifying and Reasoning about Programs—Mechanical verification

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1. Introduction

In Dijkstra’s (1975) weakest precondition semantics, stateful computations transform postconditions, relating results and final states to preconditions on input states. One can express such semantics via a monad of predicate transformers, a so-called “Dijkstra monad” (Jacobs and Plotkin 2015, Swamy et al. 2013). For instance, in the case of state, the following monad arises:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{WP}_\text{ST} \, a & = \text{post} \, a \rightarrow \text{pre} \quad \text{where post} \, a = (a \rightarrow \text{state}) \rightarrow \text{Type} \\
\text{pre} & = \text{state} \rightarrow \text{Type} \\
\text{return}_\text{WP}_\text{ST} \times \text{post} \, s0 & = \text{post} \, (x, s0) \\
\text{bind}_\text{WP}_\text{ST} \, f \, g \, \text{post} \, s0 & = f \, (\lambda \, (x, s1) \rightarrow g \, \text{post} \, s1) \, s0
\end{align*}
\]

The weakest precondition (WP) of a pure term e is computed to be \(\text{return}_\text{WP}_\text{ST} \, e\), and the WP of the sequential composition \(\lambda \, x \, . \, e1 \, \text{in} \, e2\) is computed to be \(\text{bind}_\text{WP}_\text{ST} \, \text{wp1} \, (\lambda \, x \, . \, \text{wp2})\), where \(\text{wp1}\) and \(\text{wp2}\) are the WPs of \(e1\) and \(e2\) respectively.

Building on previous work by Nanevski et al. (2008), Swamy et al. (2013, 2016) designed and implemented F*’s new typed programming language whose type system can express WPs for higher-order, effectful programs via Dijkstra monads.

While this technique of specifying and verifying programs has been relatively successful, there is still room for improvement. Notably, in the version of F* described by Swamy et al. (2016) specifying Dijkstra monads in F* is a tedious, manual process, requiring delicate meta-theoretic arguments to establish the soundness of a user-provided predicate-transformer semantics with respect to the semantics of effectful programs. These typically require proofs of various correctness and admissibility conditions, including the correspondence to the operational semantics and the monad laws. Furthermore, only a handful of primitives supported effects are provided by the previous version of F*, and extending it with user-defined effects is not possible.

Rather than being given manually, we show that these predicate transformers can be automatically derived by CPS’ing purely functional definitions of monadic effects (with answer type Type). For instance, rather than defining \(\text{WP}_\text{ST}\) one can simply compute it by CPS’ing the familiar ST monad (i.e., state → a + state), deriving

\[
\text{WP}_\text{ST} \, a = ((a \rightarrow \text{state}) \rightarrow \text{Type}) \rightarrow \text{state} \rightarrow \text{Type}
\]

We apply this technique of deriving Dijkstra monads to F*. Our goal is to make F*’s effect system easier to configure and extensible beyond its primitive effects. To do so, we proceed as follows:

A monadic metalanguage We introduce **DM**, a simply typed, pure, monadic metalanguage in which one can, in the spirit of Wadler (1992), define a variety of monadic effects, ranging from state and exceptions, to continuations.

A core dependent type theory with monadic reflection For formally study our improvements to F*, we define a new dependently typed core calculus, \(\text{EMF}^*\) (for Explicitly Monadic F*) that features an extensible effect system. \(\text{EMF}^*\) is loosely based on the Calculus of Constructions (Coquand and Huet 1988) with (among other features): (1) a predicative hierarchy of non-cumulative universes; (2) a weakest-precondition calculus for pure programs; (3) refinement types; and (4) a facility for representing user-defined effects using the monadic reflection and refilication of Pitts (1994), adapted to the dependently typed setting. New effects can be introduced into the language by defining them in terms of the built-in pure constructs, related to each other via monad morphisms; each such effect obtains a suitable weakest precondition calculus derived from the underlying pure WPs. We prove the calculus strongly normalizing...
and the WP calculus sound for total correctness verification, for both pure and effectful programs.

A CPS translation  We give a type-directed CPS translation from DM to EMF∗. This can be used to extend EMF∗ with a new effect. One starts by defining a monadic effect (say ST) in DM. Next, via the translation, one obtains the Dijkstra variant of that effect (WP-ST) as a monotone, conjunctive predicate EMF∗ transformer monad. Finally, a second translation from DM produces expression-level terms representing monadic computations in EMF∗. A logical relations proof shows that monadic computations are correctly specified by their predicate transformers. We give examples of these translations for monadic effects, such as state, exceptions, information-flow control, continuations, and some combinations thereof.

Intrinsic and extrinsic proofs in EMF∗ Effectful programs in EMF∗ can be proven correct using one or both of two different reasoning styles. First, using the WP calculus, programs can be proven intrinsically, by decorating their definitions with specifications that must be proven to be at least as strong as their WPgs. We refer to this as the intrinsic style, already familiar to users of F∗, and other tools like HTT (Nanevski et al. 2008), Dafny (Lema 2010), and Why3 (Filliâtre and Paskevich 2013).

Second, through monadic reification, EMF∗ allows terminating effectful programs to be revealed as their underlying pure implementations. Once reified, one can reason about them via the computational behavior of their definitions. As such, one may define effectful programs with relatively uninformative types, and prove properties about them as needed, via reification. This extrinsic style of proving is familiar to users of systems like Coq or Isabelle, where monads this style extends smoothly to terminating effectful programs. As in Coq an Isabelle, this extrinsic style only works for terminating code; in this paper we do not consider divergent computations and only discuss divergence as future work (1).

Primitive effects in a call-by-value semantics  We see EMF∗ as a meta-language in which to analyze and describe the semantics of terms in an object language, EMFST, a call-by-value programming language with primitive state. In the spirit of Moggi (1989), we show that EMF∗ programs that treat their ST effect abstractly soundly model EMFST reductions—technically, we prove a simulation between EMFST and EMF∗. As such, our work is a strict improvement on the prior support for primitive effects in F∗: despite programming and proving programs in a pure setting, stateful programs can still be compiled to run efficiently in the primitive effectful EMFST, while programs with other user-defined effects (e.g., information-flow control) can, unlike before, be executed via their pure encodings.

A prototype implementation for F∗  We have adapted F∗ to benefit from the theory developed in this paper, using a subset of F∗ itself as an implementation of DM, and viewing EMFST as a model of its existing extraction mechanism to OCaml. Programmers can now configure F∗’s effect system using simple monadic definitions, use F∗ to prove these definitions correct, and then use our CPS transformation to derive the Dijkstra monads required to configure F∗’s existing type-checker. To benefit from the new extrinsic proving capabilities, we also extended F∗ with two new typing rules, and changed its normalizer, to handle monadic reflection and reification.

Several examples show how our work allows F∗ to be easily extended beyond the primitive effects already supported, without compromising its efficient primitive effect compilation strategy; and how the new extrinsic proof style places reasoning about terminating effectful programs in F∗ on an equal footing with its support for reasoning about pure programs.

1.1 Summary of Contributions

The central contribution of our work is designing three closely related lambda calculi, studying their metatheory and the connections between them, and applying them to provide a formal and practical foundation for a user-extensible effect system for F∗. Specifically,

(1) EMF∗: A new dependent type theory with user-extensible, monadic effects; monadic reflection and reification; WPs; and refinement types. We prove that EMF∗ is strongly normalizing and that its WPs are sound for total correctness (3).

(2) DM: A simply typed language to define the expression-level monads that we use to extend EMF∗ with effects. We define a CPS transformation of DM terms to derive Dijkstra monads from expression-level monads, as well as an elaboration of DM terms to EMF∗. Moreover, elaborated terms are proven to be in relation with their WPs (4). This is the first formal characterization of the relation between WPs and CPS at arbitrary order.

(3) EMFST: A call-by-value language with primitive state, whose reductions are simulated by well-typed EMF∗ terms (5).

(4) An implementation of these ideas within F∗ (6.3.4) and several examples of free Dijkstra monads for user-defined effects (6). We highlight, in particular, the new ability to reason extrinsically about effectful terms.

The auxiliary materials (https://www.fstar-lang.org/papers/dmfree) contain appendices with complete definitions and proofs for the formal results in§3,§4 and§5. The F∗ source code (https://github.com/FStarLang/FStar) now includes the extensions from§3.3 and§4.6 and the examples from§5.2.

2. Illustrative Examples

We illustrate our main ideas using several examples from F∗, contrasting with the state of affairs in F∗ prior to our work. We start by presenting the core WP calculus for pure programs (2.1), then show how state and exceptions can be added to it (2.2 and2.3). Thereafter, we present several additional examples, including modeling dynamically allocated references (2.6), reasoning about primitive state (2.7), information-flow control (2.8), and continuations (2.9)—sections§3 and§4 may be read mostly independently of these additional examples.

Notation: The syntax λb1,...,bne→t introduces a lambda abstraction, where b ranges over binding occurrences x declaring a variable x at type t. The type b1→...→bne→c is the type of a curried function, where c is a computation type—we emphasize the lack of enclosing parentheses on the b. We write just the type in when the name is irrelevant, and t→t′ for t→Tot t′.

2.1 WPs for Pure Programs

Reasoning about purely functional programs is a relatively well-understood activity: the type theories underlying systems like Coq, Agda, and F∗ are already well-suited to the task. Consider proving that pure term sqr = λ(x:int)→x*x always returns a non-negative integer. A natural strategy is an extrinsic proof, which involves giving sqr a simple type such as int→Tot int, the type of total functions on integers, and then proving a lemma ∀x.sqr x≥0. In the case of F∗, the proof of the lemma involves, first, a little computation to turn the goal into (λy.post→y, y≥0⇒post y), a dependent function type of the form x→c, where the formal parameter x is in scope in the computation type c to the right of the arrow. Computation types
that every predicate transformer produced by the WP is at least as strong as the specified goal, which boils down to showing that F⋆ supports customization of its effect system, it only allows programmers to specify refinements of a fixed set of existing effects inherited from ML, namely, state, exceptions, and divergence. For example, an F⋆ programmer can refine the state effect into three sub-effects for reading, writing, and allocation; but, she cannot add a new effect like alternative combinations of state and exceptions, non-determinism, continuations, etc. We aim for a more flexible, trustworthy mechanism for extending F⋆ beyond the primitive effects it currently supports. Furthermore, we wish to place reasoning about terminating effectful programs on an equal footing with pure ones, supporting mixtures of intrinsic and extrinsic proofs for both.

2.3 CPS'ing Monads to Dijkstra Monads

Instead of manually specifying WP, we program a traditional ST monad and derive WP using a CPS transform. In §4.1 we formally present DM, a simply typed language in which to define monadic effects. DM itself contains a single primitive identity monad τ, which (as will be explained shortly) is used to control the CPS transform. We have implemented DM as a subset of F⋆, and for the informal presentation here we use the concrete syntax of our implementation. What follows is an unsurprising definition of a state monad st a, the type of total functions from s to identity computations returning a (s → s).

let st a s = s → τ(λ y. s)
let return (κ a) : st a → λ s0 → x, s0
let bind (fst a) : (g a → st b) s b → λ s0 → let x s1 = f s0 in g x s1
let get () : st a → λ s0 → s0
let put (x : s) : s unit → λ x → (λ x) x

This being a subset of F⋆, we can use it to prove that this definition is indeed a monad: proofs of the three monad laws for s are discharged automatically by F⋆ below (feq is extensional equality on functions, and assert requests F⋆ to prove p statically). Other identities relating combinations of get and put can be proven similarly.

let right_unit_st (fst a) = assert (feq (bind f return) f)
let left_unit_st (x a) (f a → st β) = assert (feq (feq (bind (return x) f) f) x)
let assoc_st (fst a) (g (a → st β)) (h (β → st γ))
   = assert (feq (bind (f λ x → bind (g x) h)) (bind (bind (g h)))))

We then follow a two-step recipe to add an effect like s to F⋆:

Step 1 To derive the Dijkstra monad variant of s, we apply a selective CPS transformation called the ∗-translation [C)]; first, on type s t a; then, on the various monadic operations. CPS'ing only those arrows that have τ-computation co-domains, we obtain:

(st a)∗ = s → (a → s) → Type → Type
return∗ = λ x s0 → post (x, s0)
bind∗ = λ f (s0 → post) (λ (x, s1) → g x s1.post)
get∗ = λ (s0 → post) (x, s0)
put∗ = λ x (post (x, s0))

Except for a reordering of arguments, the terms above are identical to the analogous definitions for WP. We prove that the ∗-translation is monotone (it maps weaker postconditions to weaker preconditions) and conjunctive (it distributes over conjunctions and universals, i.e., infinite conjunctions, on the postcondition).

Step 2 The ∗-translation yields a predicate transformer semantics for a new monadic effect, however, we still need a way to extend F⋆ with the computational behavior of the new effect. For this, we define a second translation, which elaborates the definitions of the new monad and its associated actions to Pure computations in F⋆. A first rough approximation of what we prove is that for a well-typed DM computation e : τ t a, its elaboration h has type Pure τ e∗ in EMF⋆.

The first-order cases are particularly simple: for example, return = return has type τ → Pure a (return∗) x in EMF⋆; and
get = get has type w:unit → Pure s (get' u) in EMF'. For a higher-order example, we sketch the elaboration of bind below, writing \( \text{bind \ t \ wp \ for \ s0 \: Pure \ t \ (wp \ s0) } \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{bind} : & \text{wpf}(st \ a) \rightarrow f \text{gt} a \text{ wpf} \\
& \rightarrow \text{wpf}(a \rightarrow (st \ b)) \rightarrow g((ka \rightarrow st \ b \ wpf)k) \\
& \rightarrow st \ b \text{ (bind' wpf wpf)} \\
& = \lambda \text{wpf} f \text{ wpf g s0 } \rightarrow \text{let x, s1 = f s0 in g \times s1}
\end{align*}
\]

Intuitively, a function in DM (like bind) that abstracts over computations (\( f \) and \( g \)) is elaborated to a function (\( \text{bind} \)) in EMF' that abstracts both over those computations (\( f \) and \( g \) again, but at their elaborated types) as well as the WP specifications of those computations (\( \text{wpf} \) and \( \text{wpg} \)). The result type of \( \text{bind} \) shows that it returns a computation whose specification matches \( \text{bind'} \), i.e., the result of the CPS’ing \( * \)-translation.

In other words, the WPs computed by F* for monads implemented as Pure programs correspond exactly to what one gets by CPS ing the monads. At first, this struck us as just a happy coincidence, although, of course, we now know that it must be so. We see our proof of this fact as providing a precise characterization of the close connection between and WPs and CPS transformations.

### 2.4 Reify and Reflect, for Abstraction and Proving

Unlike prior F* formalizations which included divergence, primitive exception and state effects, the only primitive monad in EMF* is for Pure computations. Except for divergence, we can encode other effects using their pure representations; we leave divergence for future work. Although the translations from DM yield pure definitions of monads in F*, programming directly against those pure implementations is undesirable, since this may break abstractions. For instance, consider an integer-state monad whose state is expected to monotonically increase: revealing its representation as a pure term makes it hard to enforce this invariant. We rely on Filinski’s (1994) monadic reflection for controlling abstraction.

Continuing our example, introducing the state effect in F* produces a new computation type \( \text{ST a wp} \) (wp: \( \text{st a} \)) and two coercions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{reify} : & \text{ST a wp } \rightarrow \text{sol } \rightarrow \text{Pure a (s \times s)} \ (\text{wp sol}) \\
\text{reflect} : & \text{sol: Pure (s \times s) (wp sol) } \rightarrow \text{ST a wp}
\end{align*}
\]

The \( \text{reify} \) coercion reveals the representation of an ST computation as a Pure function, while \( \text{reflect} \) encapsulates a Pure function as a stateful computation. As we will see in subsequent sections \( \S \S 2.6 \) and \( \S 2.5 \), in some cases to preserve abstractions, one or both of these coercions will need to be removed, or restricted in various ways.

To introduce the actions from DM as effectful actions in F*, we reflect the pure terms produced by the elaboration from DM to EMF*, obtaining actions for the newly introduced computation type. For example, after reflection the actions get and put appear within F* at the types below:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{get : unit } \rightarrow \text{ST s (get' s)} \\
\text{put : sol } \rightarrow \text{ST unit (put' s1)}
\end{align*}
\]

As in \( \S 2.2 \), we can still program stateful functions and prove them intrinsically, by providing detailed specifications to augment their definitions—of course, the first two steps of the process there are now automatic. However, we now have a means of doing extrinsic proofs by reifying stateful programs, as shown below (taking \( \text{sol} = \text{int} \)).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let StNull a = ST a (\lambda \text{sol } \rightarrow \text{sol } \rightarrow \text{post x})} \\
\text{let incr : StNull unit } = \text{let n = get() in put (n + 1)} \\
\text{let incr increases (s0:s) = assert (snd (reify (incr (s0))) s0) = s0 + 1}
\end{align*}
\]

The StNull annotation on the second line above gives a weak specification for \( \text{inc} \). However, later, when a particular property of \( \text{inc} \) is required, we can recover it by reasoning extrinsically about the reification of \( \text{incr} \) as a pure term.

### 2.5 Combining Monads: State and Exceptions, in Two Ways

To add more effects to F*, one can simply repeat the methodology outlined above. For instance, one can use DM to define \( \text{exnst a } \rightarrow \text{unit } \rightarrow \text{wpf (option a) } \) in the obvious way (the unit is necessary, cf. \( \S 5.4 \)). Our automated two-step recipe extends F* with an effect for terminating programs that may raise exceptions. Of course, we would like to combine the effects to equip stateful programs with exceptions, and, here, we come to a familiar fork in the road.

State and exceptions can be combined in two mutually incompatible ways. In DM, we can define both \( \text{stxns a } \rightarrow \text{unit } \rightarrow \text{wpf (option a) } \) and \( \text{exnst a } \rightarrow \text{unit } \rightarrow \text{wpf (option a) } \). The former is more familiar to most programmers: raising an exception preserves the state; the latter discards the state when an exception is raised, which though less common, is also useful. We focus first on \( \text{exnst} \) and then discuss a variant of \( \text{stxns} \).

#### Relating \text{st} and \text{exnst}

Translating \( \text{st} \) (as before) and \( \text{exnst} \) to F* gives us two unrelated effects ST and ExnST. To promote ST computations to ExnST, we define a lift relating \( \text{st} \) to \( \text{exnst} \), their pure representations in DM, and prove that it is a monad morphism.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let lift (f:st a) : exnst a } = \lambda \text{sol } \rightarrow \text{Some (f sol)} \\
\text{let lift_is_an_st_exnstrts_morphism = } \\
\text{assert (\forall x. (lift (ST{return x}) (ExnST{return x})));} \\
\text{assert (\forall f. (lift (ST{bind f g}) (ExnST{bind (lift (\lambda i \rightarrow lift (g i)))}))))}
\end{align*}
\]

Applying our two-step translation to lift, we obtain in F* a computation-type coercion from \( \text{ST a wp} \) to \( \text{ExnST a (lift' wp)} \). Through this coercion, and through F*’s existing inference algorithm (Swamy et al. [2011, 2016]), ST computations are implicitly promoted to ExnST computations whenever needed. In particular, the ST actions, get and put, are implicitly available with ExnST. All that remains is to define an additional action, \( \text{raise } \lambda i \text{ sol } \rightarrow \text{None}, \) which gets elaborated and reflected to F* at the type \( \text{unit } \rightarrow \text{ExnST a (\lambda i \text{ sol } \rightarrow \text{None})} \).

ExnST programs in F* can be verified intrinsically and extrinsically. For an intrinsic proof, we show \( \text{div_intrinsic below}, \) which raises an exception on a divide-by-zero. To prove it, we make use of an abbreviation \( \text{ExnST a pre post} \), which lets us write specifications using pre- and postconditions instead of predicate transformers.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let ExnST a pre post = } \\
\text{ExnST a (\lambda \text{sol } \rightarrow \text{pre sol } \land \text{wp sol } \rightarrow \text{post x})} \\
\text{let div_intrinsic i j : ExnST int} \\
\text{(requires (\lambda a \rightarrow \text{True}) )} \\
\text{(ensures (\lambda a \rightarrow \text{match x with}) )} \\
\text{= if j=0 then raise() else i/j}
\end{align*}
\]

Alternatively, for an extrinsic proof, we give a weak specification for \( \text{div_extrinsic} \) and verify it by reasoning about its reified definition separately. This time, we add a call to \( \text{inc} \) in the ST effect in case of a division-by-zero. F*’s type inference lifts \( \text{inc} \) to ExnST as required by the context. However, as the proof shows, the \( \text{inc} \) has no effect, since the raise that follows it discards the state.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let ExnSTNull a = ExnST a (\lambda \text{sol } \rightarrow \text{wpx, post x})} \\
\text{let div_extrinsic i j : ExnSTNull int if j=0 then (incr()); raise () else i/j} \\
\text{let lemma_div_extrinsic i j = assert (match div (div_extrinsic i j) 0 with) } \\
\text{= if j=0 then raise() else i/j}
\end{align*}
\]

Using \( \text{reify} \) and \( \text{reflect} \) we can also build exception handlers, following ideas of Filinski (Filinski, 1999). For example, in \( \text{try div below} \), we use a handler and (under-)specify that it never raises an exception.
More systematically, we can first program a[4] exception handler in DM, namely, as a term of type
\[ \text{exnst} \rightarrow (\text{unit} \rightarrow \text{exnst}) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow \text{exnst}) \rightarrow \text{exnst} \]
and then translate it to F\(^*\), thereby obtaining a weakest precondition rule for it for free. More generally, adapting the algebraic effect handlers of [20] to user-defined monads \( m \), handlers can be programmed in DM as terms of type
\[ m \rightarrow (m \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \]
and then imported to F\(^*\). We leave a more thorough investigation of such effect handlers for Dijkstra monads to the future.

An exception-counting state monad: \( \text{stexnC} \) For another combination of state and exceptions, we define \( \text{stexnC} \), which in addition to combining state and exceptions (in the familiar way), also introduces an additional integer output that counts the number of exceptions that are raised. In DM, we write:
\[
\text{let stexnC} \ a = s \rightarrow \tau (\text{option} \ a \ast (s \ast \text{int}))
\]
\[
\text{return} (x : a) = \lambda s \rightarrow \text{Some} \ x, \ (s, 0)
\]
\[
\text{let bind} (m, \text{stexnC}) a = (f : a \rightarrow \text{stexnC} \ b) \rightarrow \lambda s \rightarrow \text{let} \ r0 = m \ s \in \text{match} \ r0 \ \text{with}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
& \text{None}, (s1, cl) \rightarrow \text{None}, \ (s1, cl) \\
& \text{Some} \ r, (s, cl) \rightarrow \text{let} \ res, \ (s, cl) = f \ r \ s1 \\
& \text{in} \ res, \ (s1 + c2)
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\text{let raise} () = \text{stexnC} \ a = \lambda s \rightarrow \text{None}, \ (s, 1)
\]
\[
\text{let lift} (f : \text{stexnC}) a = \lambda s \rightarrow \text{let} \ \text{stexnC} \ a = f \ s \in \text{Some} \ x, \ (s1, 0)
\]
Notice that raise returns an exception count of \( 1 \). This count is added up in bind, a la writer monad. Adding \( \text{stexnC} \) to F\(^*\) proceeds as before. But we need to be a bit careful with how we use reflection. In particular, an implicit invariant of \( \text{stexnC} \) is that the exception count field in the result is non-negative and actually counts the number of raised exceptions. If a programmer is allowed to refer any \( s \rightarrow \text{Pure} (\text{option} \ a \ast (s \ast \text{int})) \) \( wp \) into an \( \text{stexnC} \) computation, then this invariant can be broken. Programmers can rely on F\(^*\)’s module system to simply forbid the use of \( \text{stexnC} \) in client modules. Depending on the situation, the module providing the effect may still reveal a restricted version of the reflect operator to a client, e.g., we may only provide \( \text{reflect\_nonneg} \) to clients, which only supports reflecting computations whose exception count is not negative. Of course, this only guarantees that the counter over-approximates the number of exceptions raised, which may or may not be acceptable.

\[
\text{let reflect\_nonneg} (f; s \rightarrow \text{Pure} (\text{option} \ a \ast (s \ast \text{int})) \) \( wp \)
\]
\[
: \text{stexnC} \ a (\lambda \ s0 \rightarrow \text{wp} \ s0 (\lambda (r, (s1, n)) \rightarrow post (r, \ (s1, n)) \land n \geq 0))
\]
\[
= \text{reflect} \ f
\]
The standard combination of state and exceptions (i.e., \( \text{stexn} \)) was already provided primitively in F\(^*\). The other two combinations shown here were not previously supported, since F\(^*\) only allowed OCaml effects. In the following more advanced subsections, we present a heap model featuring dynamic allocation [20.6], the reconciliation of primitive state and extrinsic reasoning via reify and reflect [20.7], and encodings of two other user-defined effects (a dynamic information-flow control monitor in [20.8] and continuations in [20.9]).

2.6 State with References and Dynamic Allocation

The state monads that we have seen so far provide global state, with get and put as the only actions. Using just these actions, we can encode references and dynamic allocation by choosing a suitable representation for the global state. There are many choices for this representation with various tradeoffs, but a (simplified) model of memory that we use in F\(^*\) is the type \( \text{heap} \) shown below.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type pre\_heap} & = \{
\text{next\_addr} : \text{nat}; \\
\text{mem} : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{Tot} (\text{option} (\text{a} : \text{Type} \land \alpha))
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\text{type heap} = \lambda \text{pre\_heap} (\forall (n : \text{nat}), n \geq \text{h\_next\_addr}) \rightarrow \text{h\_mem} = \text{None}
\]

A \( \text{pre\_heap} \) is a pair of \( \text{next\_addr} \), the next free memory location and a memory \( \text{mem} \) mapping locations to possibly allocated values. (\( \text{a} : \text{Type} \land \alpha \) is a dependent pair type of some type \( \text{a} \) and \( \alpha \).) A heap is a \( \text{pre\_heap} \) with an invariant (stated as a refinement type) that nothing is allocated beyond \( \text{next\_addr} \).

By taking \( \text{sheap} \) in the ST monad of the previous section, we can program derived actions for allocation, reading, writing and deallocating references—we show just alloc below; deallocation is similar, while reading and writing require their references to be allocated in the current state. First, however, we define an abbreviation \( \text{St} \) a \( \text{pre} \) \( \text{post} \) which lets us write specifications using pre- and postconditions instead of predicate transformers, which can be more convenient—the F\(^*\) keywords, \( \text{requires} \) and \( \text{ensures} \) are only there for readability and have no semantic content.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let St} \ a \text{ pre post} & = \text{ST} \ a (\lambda h0 p \rightarrow \text{pre h0} \land (\ast \text{ pre: a predicate on the input state } \ast) \\
& \forall h1. \text{post h0 x h1} (\ast \text{ post relates result, initial and final states } \ast) \\
& \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow p (x, h1))
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{abstract let ref} (a : \text{Type}) & = \text{nat} (\ast \text{ other modules cannot treat ref as nat } \ast)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let alloc} (a : \text{Type}) (\text{init} : a) & = \text{ST} \ (\text{ref} \ a) \\
& (\text{requires} (\lambda h0 r h1 \rightarrow \text{h0}\_mem r = \text{None} \land (\ast \text{ the ref r is fresh } \ast) \\
& \quad \text{h1}\_mem r = \text{Some} (\lambda (a, \text{init}) \land (\ast \text{ initialized to init } \ast) \\
& \quad (\forall x. r \neq s \Rightarrow \text{h0}\_mem s = \text{h1}\_mem s)) (\ast \text{ other refs not modified } \ast) \\
& \quad = \text{let h0 = get (in (* get the current heap *))} \\
& \quad \quad \text{let r = h0}\_\text{next_addr} (\ast \text{ allocate at next_addr *}) \\
& \quad \text{let h1 =} \{
\text{next_addr} = h0 \_\text{next_addr} + 1; (\ast \text{ bump and update mem *}) \\
& \text{mem = (h r' \rightarrow if r = r' then Some (\lambda (a, x) \ast) else h0\_mem r')} \\
& \text{in put h1; r (\ast \text{ put the new state and return the ref *})}
\end{align*}
\]

**Forbidding recursion through the store** The reader may wonder if adding mutable references would allow stateful programs to diverge by recursing through the memory. This is forbidden due to universe constraints. The type \( \text{Type} \) in F\(^*\) includes an implicit level drawn from a predicative, countable hierarchy of universes. Written explicitly, the type \( \text{heap} \) lives in universe \( \text{Type}_{n+1} \) since it contains a map whose co-domain is in \( \text{Type}_n \), for some universe level \( n \). As such, while one can allocate references like \( \text{ref} \) nat or \( \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{Tot} \) naturally, \( \text{ref} \) (nat \rightarrow \text{ST} b \ wp) is forbidden, since the universe of \( a \rightarrow \text{ST} b \ wp \) is the universe of its representation \( a \rightarrow \text{h}\_\text{heap} \rightarrow \text{Pure} (b \rightarrow \text{heap}) (\text{wp} \ h) \), which is \( \text{Type}_{n+1} \). Thus, our heap model forbids storing stateful functions altogether. More fine-grained encodings are possible too, e.g., stratifying the heap into fragments and storing stateful functions that can only read from lower strata.

\(^{1}\) Although expressible in F\(^*\), types like heap are not expressible in the EML calculus of \[\text{EML}\] since it lacks support for features like inductive types and universe polymorphism.
2.7 Relating heap to a Primitive Heap

While one can execute programs using the ST monad instantiated with heap as its state, in practice, for efficiency, the F* compiler provides primitive support for state via its extraction facility to OCaml. In such a setting, one needs a leap of faith to believe that our model of the heap is faithful to the concrete implementation of the OCaml heap, e.g., the abstraction of ref a is important to ensure that F* programs are parametric in the representation of OCaml references.

More germane to this paper, compiling ST programs primitively requires that they do not rely concretely on the representation of ST a wp h: heap → Pure (a * heap) (wp h), since the OCaml heap cannot be reified to a value. In \[\text{Theorem 10}\], we show that source programs that are free of reflect and reify can indeed be safely compiled using primitive state. Without reflect and reify, one may rely on intrinsic proof to show generally useful properties of programs. For example, one may use intrinsic proofs to show that ST computations never use references after they are deallocated, since reading and writing require their references to be allocated in the current state. Note, we write \(r \in h\) for \(h . \text{mem} r \equiv \text{Some } r\), indicating that \(r\) is allocated in \(h\).

```
let incr (r: ref int) : ST unit (requires (\(\lambda h \rightarrow r \in h\)))
  = r := !r + 1
```

Of course, one would still like to show that incr increments its reference. In the rest of this section, we show how we can safely restore reflect and reify in the presence of primitive state.

Restoring reify and reflect for extrinsic proofs

F* programs using primitive state are forbidden from using reify and reflect only in the executable part of a program—fragments of a program that are computationally irrelevant (aka “ghost” code) are erased by the F* compiler and are free to use these operators. As such, within specifications and proofs, ST programs can be reasoned about extrinsically via reification and reflection (say, for functional correctness), while making use of intrinsically proven properties like memory safety.

To restrict their use, as described in \[\S 2.5\], we rely on F*’s module system to hide both the reify and reflect operators from clients of a module FStar.State defining the ST effect. Instead, we expose to clients only ghost_reify, a function equivalent to reify, but at the signature shown below. Notice that the function’s co-domain is marked with the Ghost effect, meaning that it can only be used within specifications (e.g., WP’s and assertions)—any other use will be flagged as a typing error by F*.

```
ghost_reify : (x:a → ST b (wp x)) → Ghost (x:a → s0:s → Pure (b + s) (wp x s0))
```

The FStar.state module also provides refine_ST, a total function that allows a client to strengthen the postcondition of an effectful function \(f\) to additionally record that the returned value of \(f\) on any argument and input state \(h0\) corresponds to the computational behavior of the (ghostly) reification of \(f\). This allows a client to relate \(f\) to its reification while remaining in a computationally relevant context.

```
let refine_ST (f : (x:a → ST b (pre x) (post x))) : Tot (x:a → ST b (pre x) (\(\lambda h0 z h1 \rightarrow post x h0 z h1 \land \neg \text{ghost_reify } f x h0 \land z, h1\))) = \lambda x → \text{STATE.reflect} (\text{refify } (f x))
```

Reasoning using \(\text{refine\_ghost}\) instead of \(\text{refify}\), clients can still prove incr_increases as in \[\S 2.4\], making use of incr’s intrinsic specification to show that if the reference \(r\) is allocated before calling incr it will still be allocated afterwards.

```
let incr_increases (r: ref int) (h0: heap (r \in h0)) : Ghost unit =
  let Some x0 = h0 . mem r in
  let _ h1 = ghost_reify incr r h0 in
  let Some x1 = h1 . mem r in
  assert (x1 = x0 + 1)
```

Further, in computationally relevant (non-ghost) code, \(\text{refine\_ST}\) allows us to reason using the concrete definition of incr:

```
let r = ST . alloc 42 in
let n0 = !r in
refine_ST incr r ;
let n1 = !r in
assert (n1 = n0 + 1)
```

The intrinsic specification of incr does not constrain the final value of \(r\), so calling incr directly here would not be enough for proving the final assertion. By tagging the call-site with \(\text{refine\_ST}\), we strengthen the specification of incr extrinsically, allowing the proof to complete as in incr_increases.

2.8 Information Flow Control

Information-flow control \[\text{Sabelfeld and Myers 2006}\] is a paradigm in which a program is deemed secure when one can prove that its behavior observable to an adversary is independent of the secrets the program may manipulate, i.e., it is non-interferent. Monadic reification allows us to prove non-interference properties directly, by relating multiple runs of an effectful program \[\text{Benton 2004}\]. For example, take the simple stateful program below:

```
let ifc = if h then (incr(); let y = get() in decr(); y) else get() + 1
```

It is easy to prove this program non-interferent via the extrinsic, relational proof below, which states that regardless of its secret input \((h0, h1)\), ifc when run in the same public initial state \((s0)\) produces identical public outputs. This generic extrinsic proof style is in contrast to \[\text{Barthe et al. 2014}\], whose \(rF\) is a custom extension to F* supporting only intrinsic relational proofs.

```
let ni_ifc = assert (\(\forall h0 h1 s0. \text{refy} \text{(ifc } h0) s0 = \text{refy} \text{(ifc } h1) s0\)
```

Aside from such relational proofs, with user-defined effects, it is also possible to define monadic, dynamic information-flow control monitors in DM, deferring non-interference checks to runtime, and is reason about monitored programs in F*. Here’s a simplified example, inspired by the floating label approach of LIO \[\text{Stefan et al. 2011}\]. For simplicity, we take the underlying monad to be \(\text{DM}\), whose \(rF\) is a custom extension to F* supporting only intrinsic relational proofs.

```
let difc a = label → r (option (a * label))
```

Once added to F*, we can provide two primitive actions to interface with the outside world, where \(\text{DM}\) is the effect corresponding to difc. Importantly, writing to a public channel using write Low when the current label is High causes a dynamic failure signaling a potential Leak of secret information.

```
let join II l2 = match II, l2 with \(\_\) High | High → High | \_ → Low

val read : label → DM.FC bool (\(\lambda l0 p \rightarrow \forall h, p (\text{Some } (b, \text{join } l0))\))

let flows II l2 = match II, l2 with | High, Low → false | \_ → true

val write : label → bool → DM.FC unit (\(\lambda l0 p \rightarrow \text{if } p \land \text{Some } (l0, p) \text{ else } p\) None
```

As before, it is important to not allow untrusted client code to reflect on \(\text{DM}\), since that may allow it to declassify arbitrary secrets. Arguing that \(\text{DM}\) soundly enforces a form of termination-insensitive non-interference requires a meta-level argument, much like that of \[\text{Stefan et al. 2011}\].

We can now write programs like the one below, and rely on the dynamic checks to ensure they are secure.

```
let incr increases (r: ref int) (h0: heap (r \in h0)) : Ghost unit =
  let Some x0 = h0 . mem r in
  let _ h1 = ghost_reify incr r h0 in
  let Some x1 = h1 . mem r in
  assert (x1 = x0 + 1)
```

Further, in computationally relevant (non-ghost) code, \(\text{refine\_ST}\) allows us to reason using the concrete definition of incr:

```
let r = ST . alloc 42 in
let n0 = !r in
refine_ST incr r ;
let n1 = !r in
assert (n1 = n0 + 1)
```

The intrinsic specification of incr does not constrain the final value of \(r\), so calling incr directly here would not be enough for proving the final assertion. By tagging the call-site with \(\text{refine\_ST}\), we strengthen the specification of incr extrinsically, allowing the proof to complete as in incr_increases.
let \( b_1, b_2 = \text{read Low}, \text{read Low} \text{ in write Low} (b_1 \& \& b_2) \)
let \( b_3 = \text{read High} \text{ in write High} (b_1 \| b_3) \); write Low (xor b3 b3)

In this case, we can also prove that the program fails with a None at the last write Low. In contrast to the relational proof sketched earlier, dynamic information-flow control is conservative: even though the last write reveals no information on the low channel, the monitor still raises an error.

### 2.9 CPS'ing the Continuation Monad

As a final example before our formal presentation, we ask the irresistible question of whether we can get a Dijkstra monad for free for the continuation monad itself—indeed, we can.

We start by defining the standard continuation monad, \( \text{cont} \), in \( \text{DM} \). Being a subset of \( F^{*} \), we can prove that it is indeed a monad, automatically.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let cont } a & = (a \rightarrow \text{trans}) \rightarrow \text{trans} \\
\text{let return } x & = \lambda k x \ \\
\text{let bind } f g k & = f((\lambda x \rightarrow g x) k)
\end{align*}
\]

*(\text{cont } a \text{ is a monad})*

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let lift}_\text{unit}_\text{cont} (f; \text{cont } a) & = \text{assert } (\text{bind } f \text{ return } == f) \\
\text{let lift}_\text{unit}_\text{cont} (x; a) & = (f; (a \rightarrow \text{cont } b)) = \text{assert } (\text{bind } (\text{return } x) f == f x) \\
\text{let lift}_\text{assoc}_\text{cont} (f; (a \rightarrow \text{cont } b); (h; \text{cont } c)) & = \text{assert } (\text{bind } f (\lambda x \rightarrow h((\lambda y \rightarrow g x) y)) == \text{bind } (\text{bind } f g) h)
\end{align*}
\]

Following our two-step recipe, we derive the Dijkstra variant \( \text{solve } \text{trans} \) using the abbreviation \( \text{solve } \text{for } \text{trans} \) itself—indeed, we can.

2.9 CPS'ing the Continuation Monad

### 3. Explicitly Monadic \( F^{*} \)

We begin our formal development by presenting \( \text{EMF}^{*} \), an explicitly typed, monadic core calculus intended to serve as a model of \( F^{*} \). As seen above, the \( F^{*} \) implementation includes an inference algorithm (Swamy et al., 2011) so that source programs may omit all explicit uses of the monadic \( \text{return} \), \( \text{bind} \), and \( \text{lift} \) operators. We do not revisit that inference algorithm here. Furthermore, \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) lacks \( F^{*} \)'s support for divergent and ghost computations, fixed points and their termination check, inductive types, and universe polymorphism. We leave extending \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) to accommodate all these features as future work, together with a formal proof that after inference, \( F^{*} \) terms can be elaborated into \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) (along the lines of the elaboration of Swamy et al., 2011).

### 3.1 Syntax

Figure 1 shows the \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) syntax. We highlight several key features.

**Expressions, types, WPs, and formulae** are all represented uniformly as terms; however, to evoke their different uses, we often write \( e \) for expressions, \( t \) for types, \( \wp \) for WPs, and \( \phi \) for logical formulae. Terms include variables \( (x, y, a, b, w, e...) \); refinement types \( x.t (\phi) \); abstraction; dependent products with computation-type co-domains, \( x.t \rightarrow c \) (with the sugar described in 2); and applications. Constants \( T \) include \( \text{Type}_{e} \), the \( i \)th level from a countable hierarchy of predicative universes.\(^2\) We also include constants for non-dependent pairs and disjoint unions; the former are eliminated using \( \text{fst} \) and \( \text{snd} \) (also constants), while the latter are eliminated using case\( (e \text{ as } y) \). \( x.e_1 .e_2 \), which is standard dependent pattern matching with an explicit return type \( t \) and a name for the scrutinee \( y \), provided only when the dependency is necessary.

**Computation types** include \( \text{Tot } t \), the type of total \( t \)-returning terms, and \( M \wp \), the type of a computation with effect \( M \), return

\[\begin{align*}
\text{Terms} & \quad e.t, \wp, \phi : \quad x (T | x.t (\phi) | \lambda x.t.e | x.t \rightarrow c) e_1 e_2 \\
& \quad | \text{case}_e(e \text{ as } y) x.e_1.x.e_2 \quad | \text{run } e \quad \text{refy } e \\
& \quad | \text{reflect } e \quad M.\text{lift}_M \quad t \wp e \quad F.\text{act } e \\
& \quad | M.\text{return } t \quad t \quad M.\text{bind } t \quad t \wp t \quad e_1 \wp x.e_2
\end{align*}\]

**Computation types** \( (c) \) include \( \text{Tot } t \), the type of total \( t \)-returning terms, and \( M \wp \), the type of a computation with effect \( M \), return

\[\begin{align*}
\text{Terms} & \quad e.t, \wp, \phi : \quad x (T | x.t (\phi) | \lambda x.t.e | x.t \rightarrow c) e_1 e_2 \\
& \quad | \text{case}_e(e \text{ as } y) x.e_1.x.e_2 \quad | \text{run } e \quad \text{refy } e \\
& \quad | \text{reflect } e \quad M.\text{lift}_M \quad t \wp e \quad F.\text{act } e \\
& \quad | M.\text{return } t \quad t \quad M.\text{bind } t \quad t \wp t \quad e_1 \wp x.e_2
\end{align*}\]

\[\begin{align*}
\text{Signatures of monadic effects and lifts} & \quad S : \quad D | S, D | S, L \quad \{ \text{repl } t \quad \wp_{\text{type}} \quad t \} \\
D & \quad : \quad F | \text{bind } t | \wp t | \wp \wp t | \wp_{\text{act} t} \quad : \quad e | \wp_{\text{act} t} \quad : \quad t_j \rightarrow c_j
\end{align*}\]

*Figure 1.* Syntax of \( \text{EMF}^{*} \)

To better see the monadic structure in the types of \( \text{return} \) and \( \text{bind} \), we repeat these types, but this time writing \( \text{cont } a \wp \) for the type \( \wp k \text{wp } a \rightarrow \text{kt } a \text{ wpk } \rightarrow \text{Pure } \wp k \). We do not revisit that inference algorithm here. Furthermore, \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) lacks \( F^{*} \)'s support for divergent and ghost computations, fixed points and their termination check, inductive types, and universe polymorphism. We leave extending \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) to accommodate all these features as future work, together with a formal proof that after inference, \( F^{*} \) terms can be elaborated into \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) (along the lines of the elaboration of Swamy et al., 2011).

\[\begin{align*}
\text{3.1 Syntax} & \quad \text{Figure 1 shows the \( \text{EMF}^{*} \) syntax. We highlight several key features.}
\end{align*}\]
type $t$, and behavior specified by the predicate transformer $wp$. Let $M$ range over the Pure effect as well as user-defined effects $F$.

Explicit monadic returns, binds, actions, lifts, reify, and reflect. $M$.return and $M$.bind are the monad operations for the effect $M$, with explicit arguments for the types and predicate transformers. $M$.lift$_M$ : $wp$ e lifts the $e : M$ to $M'$. A fully applied $F$ action is written $F$.act $e$. The reify and reflect operators are for monadic reflection, and run coerces a Pure computation to Tot.

Signatures for user-defined effects. $EMF^*$ is parameterized by a signature $S$. A user-defined effect $F$ is specified using $D$, the result of translating a DM monad. A definition $D$ is a record containing several fields: $repr$ is the type of an $F$ computation reified as a pure term, $wp$type is the type of the wp argument to $F$: return, bind, and $act_j$ are $EMF^*$ expressions, and $return^*$, $bind^*$, and $act_j^*$ are $EMF^*$ WPs ($act_j$ is the $j^{th}$ action of $F$). We use $S$.F.return to denote the lookup of the return field from $F$’s definition in the signature $S$, and similar notation for the other fields.

In addition to the monad definitions $D$, the signature $S$ contains the fields of lifts that contain an $EMF^*$ expression and an $EMF^*$ WP. We use notations $S$.M.lift$_M$ and $S$.M.lift$_M^{*}$ to look these up in $S$. Finally, the signature always includes a fixed partial definition for the Pure monad, only containing the following definitions:

$$
\begin{align*}
Pure \{ wp.type & = \lambda a : Type_0, (a \rightarrow Type_0) \rightarrow Type_0, \\
return^* & = \lambda a : Type_0, \lambda x : a. p x, \\
bind^* & = \lambda a, \lambda w : Type_0, \lambda x : a. (\lambda v : w(x) p) \}
\end{align*}
$$

The other fields are not defined, since Pure is handled primitively in the $EMF^*$ dynamic semantics.

The well-formedness conditions on the signature $S$ (shown in the auxiliary material) check that the fields in definitions $D$ and the lifts in $L$ are well-typed as per their corresponding WPs. In addition, each effect definition can make use of the previously defined effects, enabling a form of layering. However, in this paper, we mainly focus on combining effects using the lift operations.

### 3.2 Static Semantics

The expression typing judgment in $EMF^*$ has the form $S; \Gamma \vdash e : c$, where $\Gamma$ is the list of bindings $x : t$ as usual. Selected rules for the judgment are shown in Figure 2. In the rules, we sometimes write $S; \Gamma \vdash e : t$ as an abbreviation for $S; \Gamma \vdash e : t$. T t.

Monadic returns, binds, actions. Rules T-RETURN, T-BIND, and T-LIFT simply use the corresponding $wp$ specification from the signature for $M$ to compute the final $wp$. For example, in the case of the ST monad from $S.ST.return^* t = \lambda x t. \lambda \bar{a}. \lambda \bar{s}. \lambda \bar{s}. post \ post \ post \ x \bar{s}$, Rule T-ACT is similar; it looks up the type of the action from the signature, and then behaves like the standard function application rule.

Monadic reflection and refication. Rules T-REFIFY and T-REFLECT are dual, coerced between a computation type and its underlying pure representation. Rule T-RUN coerces $e$ from type Pure $\ell wp$ to Tot $t$. However, since the Tot type is unconditionally total, the second premise of the rule checks that the $wp$ is satisfiable.

Refinement, computations types, and proof irrelevance. $EMF^*$’s refinement and computation types include a form of proof irrelevance. In T-REFINE, the universe of $x t \{ \phi \}$ is determined by the universe of $t$ alone, since a witness for the proposition $\phi$ is never materialized. Refinement formulas $\phi$ and $wp$ are manipulated using an entailment relation, $S; \Gamma \models \phi$, for a proof-relevant, classical logic where all the connectives are “squashed” [Nogin 2002], e.g., $p \land q$ and $p \Rightarrow q$ from $\mathbb{2}$ are encoded as $\text{unit}(p \land q)$ and $\text{unit}(p \Rightarrow q)$, and reside in $Type_0$. Similar to T-REFINE, in C-PURE, the universe of a computation type is determined only by the result type. Since

$$
\begin{align*}
T\text{-RETURN} & : S; \Gamma \vdash e : Tot t, \\
T\text{-REFINE} & : S; \Gamma \vdash t : Type_i, \\
T\text{-BIND} & : S; \Gamma \vdash e : M t wp, \\
T\text{-LIFT} & : S; \Gamma \vdash e : M t wp, \\
T\text{-REFIFY} & : S; \Gamma \vdash e : F t wp, \\
T\text{C-PURE} & : S; \Gamma \vdash e : Type_0, \\
T\text{C-F} & : S; \Gamma \vdash e : Type_0, \\
T\text{S-TO} & : S; \Gamma \vdash t' : t, \\
T\text{S-PROD} & : S; \Gamma \vdash t' : t, \\
T\text{S-REFINE} & : S; \Gamma \vdash t' : t, \\
T\text{S-CONV} & : S; \Gamma \vdash t' : t
\end{align*}
$$

the $wp$ is proof irrelevant, the use of $Type_0$ in the type of $wp$ is quite natural, because its proof content is always squashed. For user-defined monads $F$, the rule C-F delegates to their underlying representation $S.F.repr$.

Subsumption and subtyping judgment. T-SUB is a subsumption rule for computations, which makes use of the two judgments $S; \Gamma \vdash t' : t$, shown (selectively) in Figure 3. Rule S-PURE checks that $t' : t$, and makes use of the $S; \Gamma \models \phi$ relation to check that $wp$ is stronger than $wp'$, i.e. for all postconditions, the precondition computed by $wp$ implies the precondition computed by $wp'$.

Similar to C-F, the rule S-F delegates the check to the underlying representation of $F$. Rule S-PROD is the standard dependent function subtyping. Rule S-REFINE permits dropping the refinement from the subtype, and rule S-REFINE $\Rightarrow$ allows subtyping to a refinement type, if we can prove the formula $\phi$ for an arbitrary $x$. Finally, rule S-CONV states that the beta-convertible types are subtypes of each.
3.3 EMF* Dynamic Semantics

We now turn to the dynamic semantics of EMF*, which is formalized as a strong small-step reduction relation. Evaluation context are defined as follows:

\[ E ::= \varepsilon | \lambda x : E . E | E \; e \; E \mid run \; E \mid refl \; E \mid reflect \; E \]

- \( M\) bound
- \( \text{bind}\) t t wp 1 wp 2 x.e 2
- \( \text{return}\) t E
- \( \text{lift}_M\) t wp E
- \( \text{case}_E\) (E as x) x.e 1 x.e 2
- \( \text{case}_E\) (E as x) x.e 1 x.e 2

The judgment has the form \( S \vdash e \rightarrow e' \). We show some selected rules in Figure 4. The main ideas of the judgment are: (a) the Tot terms reduce primitive in using a strong reduction semantics, (b) Pure.bind is also given a primitive semantics, however (c) to β-reduce other monadic operations (binds, returns, actions, and lifts), they need to be reified first, which then makes progress using their underlying implementation in the signature.

Order of evaluation. Since the effectful terms reduce via reification, the semantics does not impose any evaluation order on the effects—reification yields Tot terms (T-REFIFY), that reduce using the strong reduction semantics. However, the more familiar sequencing semantics of effects can be recovered by controlled uses of reify that do not break the abstraction of effects arbitrarily. Indeed, we formalize this notion in Section 3 and prove that by sequencing the effects as usual using bind, and then reifying and reducing the entire effectful term, one gets the expected strict evaluation semantics (Theorem 1). Semantics for Pure terms. Rule R-PUREBIND reduces similarly to the usual β-reduction. For run e, the semantics first evaluates e to Pure.return t e, and then run removes the Pure.return and steps to the underlying total computation e' via R-RUN.

Semantics for monadic returns and binds. Rule R-REFIYBIND looks up the underlying implementation S.F.bind in the signature, and applies it to e 1 and e 2 but after reifying them so that their effects are handled properly. In a similar manner, rule R-REFIYRET looks up the underlying implementation S.Return and applies it to e. Note that in this case, we don’t need to reify e (as we did in bind), because e is already a Tot term.

Semantics for monadic lifts and actions. Rules R-REFIYACT and R-REFIYLIFT also look up the underlying implementations of the lifts and actions in the signature and use them. Rule R-REFIYLIFT in addition reifies the computation e. For lifts, the arguments e are already Tot.

3.4 EMF* Metatheory

We prove several metatheoretical results for EMF*. First, we prove strong normalization for EMF* via a translation to the calculus of inductive constructions (CiC) (Paulin-Mohring 2015).

**Theorem 1** (Strong normalization). If \( S ; \Gamma \vdash e : c \) and CiC is strongly normalizing, then \( e \) is strongly normalizing.

Proof. (Sketch) The proof proceeds by defining a translation from EMF* to CiC, erasing refinements and WPs, inlining the pure implementations of each monad, and removing the reify and reflect operators. We show that this translation is a type-preserving, forward simulation. If CiC is strongly normalizing, then EMF* must also be, since otherwise an infinite reduction sequence in EMF* could not be matched by CiC, contradicting the forward simulation.

**Theorem 2** (Subject Reduction). If \( S ; \Gamma \vdash e : c \) and \( S \vdash e \rightarrow e' \), then \( S ; \Gamma \vdash e' : c \).

This allows us to derive a total correctness property for the Pure monad saying that run-ing a Pure computation produces a value which satisfies all the postconditions that are consistent with the wp of the Pure computation.

**Corollary 3** (Total Correctness of Pure). If \( S ; \vdash \text{Pure} \; t \; wp \), then \( \forall p, S ; \vdash \text{Pure} \; t \; wp \), we have \( S ; \vdash \text{run} \; e \rightarrow \nu v \) such that \( S ; \vdash \nu v \).

For the user-defined monads F, we can derive their total correctness property by appealing to the total correctness of the Pure monad. For instance, for the ST monad from \( \ref{fig:std} \), we can derive the following corollary simply by using the typing of reify and reflect.

**Corollary 4** (Total Correctness of ST). If \( S ; \vdash \text{ST} \; t \; wp \), then \( \forall p, S ; \vdash \text{ST} \; t \; wp \), we have \( S ; \vdash \text{run} \; \text{(reify e)} \; \text{st} \rightarrow \nu v \) such that \( S ; \vdash \nu v \).

3.5 Implementation in F*

The implementation of F* was relatively easy to adapt to EMF*. In fact, EMF* and DM and the translation between them were designed to match F*’s existing type system, as much as possible. We describe the main changes that were made.

User-defined non-primitive effects are, of course, the main new feature. Effect configurations closely match the D form from Figure 1, and the main delta being that non-primitive effects include pure implementations or \( \text{M.bind}, \text{M.return}, \text{M.lift}_M \) etc.

Handling reify and reflect in the type-checker involved implementing the two relatively simple rules for them in Figure 2. A more significant change was made to F*’s normalization machinery, extending it to support rules that trigger evaluation for reified, effectful programs. In contrast, before our changes, F* would never reduce effectful terms. The change to the normalizer is exploited by F*’s encoding of proof obligations to an SMT solver—it now encodes the semantics of effectful terms to the solver, after using the normalizer to partially evaluate a reified effectful term to its pure form.

4. Dijkstra Monads for Free

This section formally presents DM, a language for defining effects by giving monads with their actions and lifts between them. Via a
pair of translations, we export such definitions to EMF* as effect configurations. The first translation of a term \( e \), a CPS, written \( e^r \) produces a predicate-transformer from DM term; the second one is an elaboration, \( e \), which produces an EMF* implementation of a DM term. The main result shows that for any DM term the result of the \( \star \)-translation is in a suitable logical relation to the elaboration of the term, and thus a valid specification for this elaboration. We also show that the \( \star \)-translation always produces monotonic and conjunctive predicates, properties that should always hold for WPs. Finally, we show that the \( \star \)-translation preserves all equalities in DM, and thus translates DM monads into EMF* Dijkstra monads.

4.1 Source: DM Effect Definition Language

The source language DM is a simply-typed lambda calculus augmented with an abstract monad \( \tau \), as in \([2,23]\). The language is essentially that of \([69,1994]\) with certain restrictions on allowed types to ensure the correctness of elaboration.

There are two effect symbols: \( n \) (non-effectful) and \( \tau \). The typing judgment is split accordingly, and \( \varepsilon \) ranges over both of them. Every monadic term needs to be bound via \( \text{bind} \), to be used \([6,2017]\) functions can only take non-effectful terms as arguments, but may return a monadic result.

The set of DM types is divided into \( A \) types, \( H \) types, and \( C \) types, ranged over by \( A \), \( C \), and \( H \) respectively. They are given by the grammar:

\[
\begin{align*}
A &::= X \mid b \mid a \rightarrow A \mid A + A \mid A \times A \\
H &::= A \mid C \\
C &::= H \rightarrow A \mid H \rightarrow C \mid C \times C
\end{align*}
\]

Here \( X \) ranges over type variables (needed to define monads) and \( b \) and \( a \) are base types. The \( \tau \)-arrows represent functions with a monadic result, and our translations will provide WPs for these arrows. \( A \) types are referred to as "\( \tau \)-free", since they contain no monadic operations. \( C \) types are inherently computational in the sense that they cannot be eliminated into an \( A \) type: every possible elimination will lead to a monadic term. They are referred to as "computational types". \( H \) types are the union of both, and are called "hypothesis" types, as they represent the types of possible functional arguments. As an example, the state monad is represented as the type \( X \rightarrow S \rightarrow \tau \), where \( X \) is a type variable and \( S \) is some type representing the state. We will exemplify our main results for terms of this type, thus covering every stateful computation definable in DM.

DM types do not include "mixed" \( A \times C \) pairs, computational sums \( C + H \), functions of type \( C \rightarrow A \), or types with right-nested \( \tau \)-arrows. We do allow nesting \( \tau \)-arrows to the left, providing the generality needed for the continuation monad, and others. These restrictions are crafted to carefully match EMF* terms. Without them, our translations, would generate ill-typed or logically unrelated EMF* terms, and these restrictions do not appear to be severe in practice, as evidenced by the examples in \([2]\).

The syntax for terms is (\( \varepsilon \) standing for constants):

\[
e ::= x \mid e \mid e \otimes e \mid \lambda x. H \mid e \mid \kappa(e,\ldots,e) \\
| (e, e) \mid f s (e) \mid s n (e) \\
| i n (e) \mid i n r (e) \mid c a s e e \mid i n x A. e \mid i n y A. e \\
| r e t u r n _ e \mid b i n d _ e \mid e \otimes e
\]

Typing judgments have the forms \( \Delta \vdash e : H ! n \) and \( \Delta \vdash e : A ! \tau \), where \( \Delta \) is a finite sequence of type variables and \( \Gamma \) is a normal typing context, whose types only use type variables from \( \Delta \). Here are some example rules:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta \vdash \Gamma, x : H \vdash e : H ! \varepsilon \\
\Delta \vdash \Gamma, x : H \vdash e \rightarrow H ! n \\
\Delta \vdash \Gamma, x : H \vdash e : H n \\
\Delta \vdash \Gamma, \lambda x : \tau \vdash e : A ! \tau \\
\Delta \vdash \Gamma, x : \tau \vdash e : A ! \tau \\
\Delta \vdash \Gamma, x : A \vdash e : A ! \tau \\
\Delta \vdash \Gamma, x : A \vdash e : A ! \tau
\end{align*}
\]

In these rules we implicitly assume that all appearing types are well-formed with respect to the grammar, e.g., one cannot form a function of type \( C \rightarrow A \) by the abstraction rule.

As an example, \( \text{return}_e = \lambda x. X. \lambda x : S. \text{return}_e(x, s) \) has type \( X \rightarrow S \rightarrow \tau \), using these rules.

When defining effects and actions, one deals (at a top level) with non-effectful \( C \) types (\( C ! n \)).

4.2 The \( \star \)-translation

The essence of the \( \star \)-translation is to translate \( \text{return}_e \) and \( \text{bind}_e \) to \( x \rightarrow \text{in} \rightarrow e_2 \) to the returns and binds of the continuation monad. We begin by defining a translation \( H \rightarrow \tau \), that translates any \( H \) type to the type of its predicates by CPS'ing the \( \tau \)-arrows. First, for any \( \tau \)-free type \( A \), \( \tau \) is essentially the identity, except we replace every arrow \( \leftarrow \rightarrow \) by a \( \rightarrow \). Then, for computation types, we define:

\[
\begin{align*}
(H n) &\rightarrow C^* = H^* \rightarrow C \\
(C \times C)^* &\rightarrow C^* \times C^* \\
(H \rightarrow A)^* &\rightarrow (A^* \rightarrow \text{Type}_0) \rightarrow \text{Type}_0
\end{align*}
\]

Note that all arrows on the right hand side have a \( \tau \)-context, as per our notational convention.

In essence, the codomains of \( \tau \)-arrows are CPS’d into a WP, which takes as argument a predicate on the result and produces a predicate representing the "precondition". All other constructs are just translated recursively: the real work is for the \( \tau \)-arrows.

For example, for the state monad \( S \rightarrow A \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \text{Type}_0 \rightarrow \text{Type}_0 \), it is the type of predicates that map an initial state and a precondition to its final state and result. The final state is \( S \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \text{Type}_0 \rightarrow \text{Type}_0 \).

The two main cases for the \( \star \)-translation for well-typed DM terms are shown below; every other case is simply a homomorphic application of \( \tau \) on the sub-terms.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{return}_e &\rightarrow \varepsilon^* = \lambda p : (A^* \rightarrow \text{Type}_0). p^* \\
\text{bind}_e &\rightarrow (x \rightarrow \text{in} \rightarrow e_2)^* = \lambda p : (A^* \rightarrow \text{Type}_0). e_1^* (\lambda x : A. e_2^*) p
\end{align*}
\]

Formally, the \( \star \)-translation and elaboration are defined over a typing derivation, as one needs more information than what is present in the term. The \( \star \)-translations of types and types are related in the following sense, where we define the environments \( \Delta \) as \( X_1 : \text{Type}_0, \ldots, X_n : \text{Type}_0 \) when \( \Delta = \{ X_1, \ldots, X_n \} \), and \( \Gamma^* \) as \( \Gamma^* = \{ \varepsilon \rightarrow 0, \ldots, \varepsilon \rightarrow n \} \) when \( \Gamma = \{ \varepsilon \rightarrow 0, \ldots, \varepsilon \rightarrow n \} \) (we assume that variables and type and variables are also EMF* variables).

Theorem 5 (Well-typing of \( \star \)-translation). \( \Delta \vdash \Gamma, e : C ! n \) implies \( \Delta^\tau, \Gamma^* \vdash e^* : C^* \).

After translating a closed term \( e \), one can abstract over the variables in \( \Delta \) to introduce the needed polymorphism in EMF*. This will also be the case for elaboration.

As an example, for the previous definition of \( \text{return}_e \rightarrow \), we get the translation \( \lambda x : X. \lambda x : S. \lambda p : (X \rightarrow S \rightarrow \text{Type}_0). p(x, s) \), which has the

\[O^*\text{One can tweak our translation to generate WPs that have the usual postcondition to preconception shape. However we found the current shape to be generally easier to work with.}\]
required transformer type: \( X \rightarrow S \rightarrow (X \times S \rightarrow \text{Type}_0) \rightarrow \text{Type}_0 \)
(but with \( X \) as a free type variable). It is what one would expect: to prove a postcondition \( p \) about the result of running \( \text{return}_\text{ST} \ x \), one needs to prove \( p(x,s) \) where \( s \) is the initial state.

### 4.3 Elaboration

Elaboration is merely a massaging of the source term to make it properly typed in \( \text{EMF}^* \). During elaboration, monadic operations are translated to those of the identity monad in \( \text{EMF}^* \), namely Pure.

**Elaboration of types**

We define two elaboration translations for \( \Delta \text{M} \) types, which produce the \( \text{EMF}^* \) types of the elaborated expression-level terms. The first translation \( \Delta \) maps an \( \Delta \) to a simple \( \text{EMF}^* \) type, while the second one \( \text{FC} \wp \) maps a \( \Delta \) type and a specification \( \wp \) of type \( C^* \) into an \( \text{EMF}^* \) computation type containing \( \text{Tot} \) and Pure arrows. The \( \Delta \) translation is the same as the CPS one, i.e., \( \Delta = \Delta^* \).

The \( \text{FC} \wp \) (where \( \wp : C^* \)) translation is defined by:

1. \( \text{FC}_{C^*} \wp = \text{def} \; \text{FC}(\text{fst} \wp) \times \text{FC}(\text{snd} \wp) \)
2. \( \text{FC}_{\Delta \rightarrow H} \wp = \text{def} \; w' : C^* \rightarrow F \rightarrow w' \rightarrow G^H(\wp w') \)
3. \( \text{F}_{\Delta \rightarrow H} \wp = \text{def} \; x \Delta \rightarrow G^H(\wp x) \)

Here we define \( G^H_{\Delta}(\wp) = \text{FC}_{\Delta} \wp \) and \( G^H_{\epsilon}(\wp) = \text{Pure} \Delta \wp \).

The main idea is that if an \( \text{EMF}^* \) term \( e \) has type \( \text{FC} \wp \), then \( \wp \) is a proper specification of the final result. Putting pairs aside for a moment, this means that if one applies enough arguments \( e_i \) to \( e \) in order to eliminate it into a Pure computation, then \( e_i : \text{Pure} \wp s_i \), where each \( s_i \) is the specification for each \( e_i \). This naturally extends to pairs, for which the specification is a pair of proper specifications, as shown by case (1) above.

In case (2), the \( w' : C^* \) arguments introduced by \( F \) are relevant for the higher-order cases, and serve the following purpose, as illustrated in Figure 5 (for the translation of bind for the \( \text{ST} \) monad) and in Figure 6 (for the continuation monad): when taking computations as arguments, we first require their specification in order to be able to reason about them at the type level. Taking these specification arguments is also the only way for being \( \text{WP}\)-polymorphic in \( \text{EMF}^* \). Note that, according to the dependencies, only the \( C^* \) argument is used in the specifications, while we shall see in the elaboration of terms that only the \( \text{FC} \wp \) argument is used in terms. When elaborating terms, we pass this specification as an extra argument where needed.

In case (3), when elaborating functions taking an argument of \( A \) type there is no need to take a specification, since the argument is completely non-effectful and can be used at both the expression and the type levels. Informally, a non-effectful term is its own specification.

**Elaboration of terms** is defined in Figure 5 and is, as expected, mostly determined by the translation of types. The translation is formally defined over typing derivations, however, for brevity, we present each translation rule simply on the terms, with the important side-conditions we rely on from the derivation shown in parenthesis. We describe only the most interesting cases.

**Computational abstractions and applications (cases 4 and 10)**

Case (4) translates a function with a computational argument \( x : C \) to a function that expects two arguments, a specification \( x^* : C^* \) and \( x \) itself, related to \( x^* \) at a suitably translated type. We track the association between \( x \) and \( x^* \) using a substitution \( s_r \), which maps every computational hypothesis \( x : C \) in \( \Gamma \) to \( x^* \)(of type \( C^* \)) in \( \Gamma_r \).

In case (10), when passing a computation argument \( e_2 \), we need to eliminate the double abstraction introduced in case (4), passing both \( e_2 \) to \( s_r \), i.e. the specification of \( e_2 \) where we substitute the free computation variables, and \( e_2 \) itself.

**Return and bind (cases 14 and 15)**

The last two rules show the translation of return and bind for \( \tau \) to return and bind for Pure in \( \text{EMF}^* \). This is one of the key points: in the elaboration, we interpret the \( \tau \) as the identity monad in \( \text{EMF}^* \), whereas in the \( \ast \)-translation, we interpret \( \tau \) as the continuation monad. In our main theorem, shows that \( \text{EMF}^* \)’s WP computation in the Pure monad for \( \varepsilon \) produces a WP that is logically related to the \( \ast \)-translation of \( e \), i.e., WPs and the CPS coincide formally, at arbitrary order.

**Theorem 6 (Logical relations lemma).**

1. \( \Delta \vdash e : C \rightarrow n \iff \Delta \vdash \varepsilon \vdash e : F \rightarrow (e^* s_r) \)
2. \( \Delta \vdash e : A \iff \Delta \vdash \varepsilon \vdash e : F \rightarrow \text{Pure} (e^* s_r) \)

Where \( \Delta \) is defined by mapping any “\( x : A \)” binding in \( \Gamma \) to “\( x : \Delta \)” and any “\( y : C \)” binding to “\( y^* : C^* \); \( y : F \rightarrow C^* \).” Instantiating (1) for an empty \( \Gamma \), we get as corollary that \( \Delta \vdash e : F \rightarrow e^* \), representing the fact that \( e^* \) is a proper specification for \( \varepsilon \). Following the \( \text{ST} \) monad example, this implies that for any source term \( e \) such that \( X \vdash e : S \rightarrow (X \times S) \) holds, then \( X \vdash \text{Type}_0 \vdash e^* : S \rightarrow \text{Pure} (X \times S) (e^* s_0) \), will hold in \( \text{EMF}^* \), as intuitively expected.

### 4.4 Monotonicity and Conjunctivity

A key property of WPs is monotonicity: weaker postconditions should map to weaker preconditions. This is also an important \( \text{F}^* \)-invariant that allows for logical optimizations of WPs. Similarly, WPs are conjunctive: they distribute over conjunction and universal quantification in the postcondition. We show that any \( \text{EMF}^* \) term obtained from the \( \ast \)-translation is monotonic and conjunctive, for higher-order generalizations of the usual definitions of these properties. (Dijkstra [1997]).

We first introduce a hereditarily-defined relation between \( \text{EMF}^* \) terms \( t_1 \leq \leq t_2 \), read “\( t_1 \) stronger than \( t_2 \)” and producing an \( \text{EMF}^* \) formula in \( \text{Type}_0 \), by recursion on the structure of \( t \):

\[
\begin{align*}
x \leq_{\text{Type}_0} y & \overset{\text{def}}{=} x \Rightarrow y \\
x \leq_{\text{Type}_0} y & \overset{\text{def}}{=} x = y \\
x \leq_{\text{Type}_0} y & \overset{\text{def}}{=} x = y \\
x \leq_{\text{Type}_0} y & \overset{\text{def}}{=} f \leq_{\text{Type}_0} g \text{ and } y \leq_{\text{Type}_0} y \\
x \leq_{\text{Type}_0} y & \overset{\text{def}}{=}(b_1 \lor b_2 : t_1) \Rightarrow \text{Inl} v_1 \lor \text{Inl} v_2 \lor \text{Inr} v_1 \lor \text{Inr} v_2 \\
x \leq_{\text{Type}_0} y & \overset{\text{def}}{=}(b_1 \lor b_2 : t_1) \Rightarrow \text{Inr} v_1 \lor \text{Inr} v_2
\end{align*}
\]

where \( b \) represents any \( \text{EMF}^* \) base type (i.e., a type constant in \( \text{Type}_0 \)) and \( X \) any type variable. The symbol \( \equiv \) represents \( \text{EMF}^* \)’s squashed propositional equality. The \( \leq \) relation is only defined for the subset of \( \text{EMF}^* \) types that are all-Tot and non-dependent. All types resulting from the \( \ast \)-translation are in this subset, so this not a limitation for our purposes. A type \( t \) in this subset is called predicate-free when it does not mention \( \text{Type}_0 \). For any predicate-free type \( t \), the relation \( \leq \) reduces to extensional equality.

The \( \leq \) relation is not reflexive. We say that an \( \text{EMF}^* \) term \( e \) of type \( t \) is monotonic when \( e \leq_{\text{Type}_0} e \). Note that monotonicity is preserved by application. For first-order WPs this coincides with the standard definitions, and for higher-order predicates it gives a reasonable extension. Since the relation reduces to equality on predicate-free types, every term of such a type is trivially monotonic. The reader can also check that every term of a type \( t = d_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow d_n \rightarrow \text{Type}_0 \) (where each \( d_i \) is predicate-free) is monotonic; it is only at higher-order that monotonicity becomes interesting.

\footnote{We can get a stronger result if we don’t restrict the relation on type variables to equality and treat it abstractly instead. For our purposes this is not needed as we plan to instantiate type variables with predicate-free types.}
For a first-order example, let’s take the type of WP s for programs in the ST monad: $S \to (X \times S \to \text{Type}_{0}) \to \text{Type}_{0}$, making use of the previous simplification:

$$f \leq S - \to (X \times S - \to \text{Type}_{0}) - \to \text{Type}_{0}$$

For any $e$ and $C$, $\Delta |\vdash e : C!n$ implies $\Delta |\vdash e* : C!e^*$.

We devise a prototype implementation of the two translations in $F^*$. Users define their monadic effects as $F^*$ terms in direct style, as done in $\text{EMF}^*$ and these definitions get automatically rewritten into DM. As explained in $\text{EMF}^*$ instead of $\tau$ arrows ($H \to A$), we use a distinguished $F^*$ effect $\tau$ to indicate where the CPS should occur. The effect $\tau$ is defined to be an alias for $F^*$’s Tout effect, which allows the programmer to reason extrinsically about the definitions and prove that they satisfy various properties within $F^*$, e.g., the monad laws. Once the definitions have been type-checked in $F^*$, another minimalist type-checker kicks in, which has a twofold role. First, it ensures that the definitions indeed belong to DM, e.g., distinguishing $\tau$ types from $C$ types. Second, it performs bidirectional inference to distinguish monadic computations from pure computations, starting from top-level annotations, and uses this type information to automatically introduce $\text{return}_e$ and $\text{bind}_e$ as needed. For instance, in the $\lambda$ example from $\text{EMF}^*$, the type-checker rewrites $x.s0$ into $\text{return}_x (x.s0)$, and let $x.s1 = f s0$ into $\text{bind}_f (f s0)$ to $x.s1$ in $\ldots$ and $g.s1$ into $\text{return}_g (g.s1)$.

The compilation maps let-bindings in DM to let-bindings in $F^*$; the general inference mechanism in $F^*$ takes care of synthesizing the WP s, meaning that the elaboration, really, is only concerned about the image of the type-level $\ast$-translation, so it is enough for our purposes. This relation is trivially preserved by application, which allows us to prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 8 (Conjunctivity of $\ast$-translation).** For any $e$ and $C$, $\Delta |\vdash e : C!n$ implies $\Delta |\vdash e^* : C!e^*$.

Since the monad laws are equivalences themselves, any source monad will be translated to a specification-level monad of WP s. This also applies to lifts: source monad morphisms are mapped to monad morphisms between Dijkstra monads.

**4.5 The $\ast$-translation Preserves Equality and Monad Laws**

We define an equality judgment on DM terms that is basically $\beta \eta$-equivalence, augmented with the monad laws for the abstract $\tau$ monad. We show that the $\ast$-translation preserves this equality.

**Theorem 9 (Preservation of equality by CPS).** If $\Delta |\vdash e_1 : H! e$ then $\Delta |\vdash e_1^* : e_2^*$.

Again, the relation is not defined on all types, but it does include the image of the type-level $\ast$-translation, so it is enough for our purposes. This relation is trivially preserved by application, which allows us to prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 10 (Conjunctivity of $\ast$-translation).** For any $e$ and $C$, $\Delta |\vdash e : C!n$ implies $\Delta |\vdash e^* : C!e^*$.
Moreover, several other WP combinators are derived from the WP type and used internally by the F* type-checker; again previously these had to be written by hand.

5. EMF* with Primitive State

As we have seen in EMF*, EMF* encodes all its effects using pure functions. However, one would like to be able to run F* programs efficiently using primitively implemented effects. In this section, we show how EMF*’s pure monads apply to F*’s existing compilation strategy, which provides primitive support for state via compilation to OCaml, which, of course, has state natively. The main theorem of §5.2 states that well-typed EMF* programs using the state monad abstractly (i.e., not breaking the abstraction of the state monad with arbitrary uses of reify and reflect) are related by a simulation to EMF* contexts that execute with a primitive notion of state. This result exposes a basic tension: although very useful for proofs, reify and reflect can break the abstractions needed for efficient compilation. However, as noted in §2.6, this restriction on the use of reify and reflect only applies to the executable part of a program—fragments of a program that are computationally irrelevant are erased by the F* compiler and are free to use these operators.

5.1 EMF* ST: A Sub-Language of EMF* with Primitive State

The syntax of EMF* ST corresponds to EMF*, except that we configure it to just use the ST monad. Other effects that may be added to EMF* can be expanded into their encodings in its primitive Pure monad—as such, we think of EMF* ST as modeling a compiler target for EMF* programs, with ST implemented temporarily, and other arbitrary effects implemented purely. We thus exclude reify and reflect from EMF* ST, along with the type and WP arguments of return, bind and lift operators, since these are no longer relevant here.

The operational semantics of EMF* ST is a small-step, call-by-value reduction relation between pairs (s, e) of a state s and a term e. The relation includes the pure reduction steps of EMF* that carry the state along (we only show ST-beta), and three primitive reduction rules for ST, shown below. The only irreducible ST computation is ST.return v. Since the state is primitive in EMF* ST, the term ST.bind e x.e’ reduces without needing an enclosing reify, reify, or lift operators, since these are no longer relevant here.

5.2 Relating EMF* to EMF* ST

We relate EMF* to EMF* ST by defining a (partial) translation from the former to the latter, and show that one or more steps of reduction in EMF* ST are matched by one or more steps in EMF*. This result guarantees that it is sound to verify a program in EMF* and execute it in EMF* ST; the verification holds for all EMF* reduction sequences, and EMF* ST evaluation corresponds to one such reduction.

The main intuition behind our proof is that the reduction of reflect-free EMF* programs maintains terms in a very specific structure—a stateful reduction (an ST computation wrapped in reify) reduces in a context structured like a telescope of binds, with the state threaded sequentially as the telescope evolves. We describe this invariant structure as an EMF* context, K, parameterized by a state s. In the definition, E is a single-hole, reify-and-reflect-free EMF* context, a refinement of the evaluation contexts of §3 to be filled by a reify-and-reflect free EMF* term, f. Additionally, we separate the E contexts by their effect into several sorts: E : Tot and E : Pure are contexts which when filled by a suitably typed term produce in EMF* a Tot or Pure term, respectively; the case E : Inert is for an un-refied stateful EMF* term. The last two cases are the most interesting; they represent the base and inductive case of the telescope of a stateful term “caught in the act” of reducing—we refer to them as the Active contexts. We omit the sort of a context when it is irrelevant.

Next, we define a simple translation [] from contexts K s to EMF* ST:

\[ [E] \mapsto \begin{cases} E : \text{Tot} & \Rightarrow \tilde{E} \\ [\text{reify } E] : \text{Active} & \Rightarrow \text{Pure} \langle K s \rangle \cdot [\lambda x. \text{reify } f] \cdot ([\text{fst } p] \cdot ([\text{snd } p] \cdot \text{Active}) \end{cases} \]

The definition of [] further illustrates why we need to structure the Active contexts as a telescope—because not every stateful computation that can reduce in EMF* is of the form reify e. For example, the reduction rule R-REIFYBIND pushes reify inside the arguments of bind. As a result, one needs to perform several “administrative” steps of reduction to get the reducing term back to being of the form reify e. However, in order to show that EMF* ST can indeed be used as a compiler target for EMF*, we crucially need to relate all such intermediate redexes to ST computations in EMF* ST, thus the telescope-like definition of the Active contexts.

Finally, we prove the simulation theorem for EMF* and EMF* ST, which shows that one or more steps of reduction in EMF* ST are matched by one or more steps in EMF*, in a compatible way.

Theorem 10 (Simulation). For all well-typed, closed, filled contexts K s f, either K s is Inert, or one of the following is true:

1. \[ \exists K' s f'. (s, [K s f]) \rightsquigarrow^+ (s', [K' s'] f') \]

2. K s f \rightsquigarrow^+ K' s' f' and sort (K s) = sort (K' s')

3. K is Active and \[ s, [(K s) f] \rightsquigarrow^+ (s', \text{ST.return } v) \]

4. K is Pure and \[ s, [(K s) f] = K s f = \text{Pure.return } v \]

6. Related Work

We have already discussed many elements of related work throughout the paper. Here we focus on a few themes not covered fully elsewhere.

Our work builds on the many uses of monads for programming language semantics found in the literature. Moggi [1989] was the first to use monads to give semantics to call-by-value reduction—our Theorem 10 makes use of the monadic structure of EMF* to show that it can safely be executed in a strict semantics with primitive state. Moggi [1989], Wadler [1990, 1992], Filinski [1993, 1999, 2010], Benton et al. [2000] and others, use monads to introduce effects into a functional language—our approach of adding user-defined effects to the pure EMF* calculus follows this well-trodden path. Moggi [1989], Flanagan et al. [1993], Wadler [1994] and others, have used monads to provide a foundation on which to understand program transformations, notably CPS—we show that weakest precondition semantics can be formally related to CPS via our main logical relation theorem (Theorem 6).

Representing monads Our work also draws a lot from Filinski’s (1993) monadic reflection methodology, for representing and controlling the abstraction of monads. In particular, our DM monad definition language is essentially the language of Filinski [1994] with some restrictions on the allowed types. Beyond controlling abstraction, Filinski shows how monadic reflection enables a universal
implementation of monads using composable continuations and a single mutable cell. We do not (yet) make use of that aspect of his work, partly because deploying this technique in practice is challenging, since it requires compiling programs to a runtime system that provides composable continuations. Filinski’s (1999) work on representing layered monads generalizes his technique to the setting of multiple monads. We also support multiple monads, but instead of layering monads, we define each monad purely, and relate them via morphisms. This style is better suited to our purpose, since one of our primary uses of reification is purification, i.e., revealing the pure representation of an effectful term for reasoning purposes. With layering, multiple steps of reification may be necessary, which may be inconvenient for purification. Finally, Filinski (2010) gives an operational semantics that is extensible with monadic actions, taking the view of effects as being primitive, rather than encoded purely. We take a related, but slightly different view: although effects are encoded purely in EMF, we see it as language in which to analyze and describe the semantics of a primitively effectful object language, EMF₁, relating the two via a simulation.

Dependent types and effects Nanevski et al. developed Hoare type theory (HTT) (Nanevski et al. 2008) and Yinot (Chlipała et al. 2009) as a way of extending Coq with effects. The strategy there is to provide an axiomatic extension of Coq with a single catch-all monad in which to encapsulate imperative code. Being axiomatic, their approach lacks the ability to reason extrinsically about effectful terms by computation. However, their approach accommodates effects like non-termination, which EMF currently lacks. Interestingly, the internal semantics of HTT is given using predicate transformers, similar in spirit to EMF’s WP semantics. It would be interesting to explore whether or not our free proofs of monotonicity and conjunctivity simplify the proof burden on HTT’s semantics.

Zombie (Casinghino et al. 2014) is a dependently typed language with general recursion, which supports reasoning extrinsically about potentially divergent code—this approach may be fruitful to apply to EMF to extend its extrinsic reasoning to divergent code.

Another point in the spectrum between extrinsic and intrinsic reasoning is Charouaïd’s (2011) characteristic formulae, which provide a precise formula in higher-order logic capturing the semantics of a term, similar in spirit to our WPs. However, as opposed to WPs, characteristic formulae are used interactively to prove program properties after definition, although not via computation, but via logical reasoning. Interestingly enough, characteristic formulae are structured in a way that almost gives the illusion that they are the terms themselves. CFML is tool in Coq based on these ideas, providing special tactics to manipulate formulas structured this way.

Brady (2013, 2014) encodes algebraic effects with pre- and postconditions in Idris in the style of Atkey’s (2009) parameterized monads. Rather than speaking about the computations themselves, the pre- and postconditions refer to some implicit state of the world, e.g., whether or not a file is closed. In contrast, F’s WPs give a full logical characterization of a computation. Additionally, the WP style is better suited to computing verification conditions, instead of explicitly chaining indices in the parameterized monad.

It would be interesting, and possibly clarifying, to link up with recent work on the denotational semantics of effectful languages with dependent types Ahman et al. (2016); in our case we would investigate the semantics of EMF and EMF₁, which has state, but extended with recursion (and so with nontermination).

Continuations and predicate transformers We are not the first to study the connection between continuations and predicate transformers. For example, Jensen (1978) and Audebaud and Zucca (1999) both derive WPs from a continuation semantics of first-order imperative programs. While they only consider several primitive effects, we allow arbitrary monadic definitions of effects. Also while their work is limited to the first-order case, we formalize the connection between WPs and CPS also for higher-order. The connection between WPs and the continuation monad also appears in Keimel (2015); Keimel and Plotkin (2016).

7. Looking Back, Looking Ahead

While our work has yielded the pleasant combination of both a significant simplification and boost in expressiveness for F*, we believe it can also provide a useful foundation on which to add user-defined effects to other dependently typed languages. All that is required is the Pure monad upon which everything else can be built, mostly for free.

On the practical side, going forward, we hope to make use of the new extrinsic proving capabilities in F* to simplify specifications and proofs in several ongoing program verification efforts that use F*. We are particularly interested in furthering the relational verification style, sketched in [22, 25]. We also hope to scale EMF* to be a definitive semantics of all of F*—the main missing ingredients are recursion and its semantic termination check, inductive types, universe polymorphism, and the extensional treatment of equality. Beyond the features currently supported by F*, we would like to investigate adding indexed effects and effect polymorphism.

We would also like to generalize the current work to divergent computations. For this we do not plan any changes to DM. However, we plan to extend EMF* with general recursion and a primitive Div effect (for divergence), following the current F* implementation (Swamy et al. 2016). Each monad in DM will be elaborated in two ways: first, to Pure for total correctness, as in the current paper; and second, to Div, for partial correctness. The reify operator for a partial correctness effect will produce a Div computation, not a Pure one. With the addition of Div, the dynamic semantics of EMF* will force a strict evaluation order for Div computations, rather than the non-deterministic strong reduction that we allow for Pure computations.

Along another axis, we have already mentioned our plans to investigate translations of effect handlers [22, 25]. We also hope to enhance DM in other ways, e.g., relaxing the stratification of types and adding inductive types. The latter would allow us to define monads for some forms of nondeterminism and probabilities, as well as many forms of I/O, provided we can overcome the known difficulties with CPS’ing inductive types Barthe and Uustalu (2002). Enriching DM further, one could add dependent types, reducing the gap between it and F*, and bringing within reach examples like Ahman and Uustalu’s (2013) dependently typed update monads.

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References


