## COMPUTER SCIENCE

UNIVERSITY OF

## Semantics for core Concurrent ML using computation types

Alan Jeffrey

May 1996

Computer Science
School of Cognitive and Computing Sciences
University of Sussex
Brighton BN1 9QH

## Semantics for core Concurrent ML using computation types

## Alan Jeffrey

ABSTRACT. This paper presents two typed higher-order concurrent functional programming languages, based on Reppy's Concurrent ML. The first is a simplified, monomorphic variant of CML, which allows reduction of terms of any type. The second uses an explicit type constructor for computation, in the style of Moggi's monadic metalanguage. Each of these languages is given an operational semantics, which can be used as the basis of bisimulation equivalence. We show how Moggi's translation of the call-by-value lambda-calculus into the mondadic metalanguage can be extended to these concurrent languages, and that this translation is correct up to weak bisimulation.

## 1 Introduction

Reppy's (1991, 1992) Concurrent ML is an extension of New Jersey ML with features for spawning threads, which can communicate by one-to-one synchronous handshake in the style of Milner's (1989) CCS

There are (at least) two approaches to giving the operational semantics to CML. The 'functional language definition' tradition (Milner, Tofte, and Harper 1990, for example) is to define unlabelled reductions between entire programs, and to use this semantics to prove properties such as type-safety. Reppy uses this approach to give a reduction semantics to CML based on evaluation contexts $E[-]$, for example giving the semantics of if-expressions as:

$$
\overline{E[\text { if true then e else } f] \longrightarrow E[e]} \quad \overline{E[\text { if falsethen e else } f] \longrightarrow E[f]}
$$

The 'concurrency semantics' tradition (Milner 1989, for example) is to define labelled reductions between program fragments, and to use this semantics as the basis of equivalences (such as bisimulation) between program fragments. Ferreira, Hennessy and Jeffrey (1995) use this approach to give a labelled transition system semantics to CML including silent transitions $\xrightarrow{\tau}$ and value transitions $\xrightarrow{\checkmark v}$, for example giving the semantics of if-expressions as:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\begin{array}{c}
e \xrightarrow{\text { true }} e^{\prime} \\
\text { ifethen } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| f
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
\text { ifethen } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| g \\
\text { if ethen } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime} \\
\text { if } e^{\prime} \text { then } f \text { else } g
\end{array}
\end{gathered}
$$

Presented at Higher Order Operational Techniques in Semantics workshop, Newton Institute, Cambridge, October 1995

The resulting labelled transition system can be used as the basis of an equational theory of CML expressions, using bisimulation as equivalence.

Unfortunately, there are some problems with this semantics:

- It is complex, due to having to allow expressions in any evaluation context to reduce (for example requiring three rules for if-expressions rather than Reppy's two axiom schemas).
- It produces very long reductions, due to large numbers of 'book-keeping' steps (for example the long reduction in Table 9).
- The resulting equational theory does not have pleasant mathematical properties (for example neither $\beta$ - nor $\eta$-conversion hold for the language).

In this paper we present a variant of CML using computation types. These provide an explicit type constructor _ comp for computation, which means that the type system can distinguish between expressions which can perform computation (those of type $A$ comp) and those which are guaranteed to be in normal form (anything else). Differentiating by type between expressions which can and cannot perform reductions makes the operational semantics much simpler, for example the much shorter reduction in Table 16 and the simpler operational rules for if-expressions:

Computation types were originally proposed by Moggi (1991) in a denotational setting to provide models of non-trivial computation (such as CML communication) without losing pleasant mathematical properties (such as $\beta$ - and $\eta$ reduction). Moggi provided a translation from the call-by-value $\lambda$-calculus into the language with computation types, which we can adapt for CML and prove to be correct up to weak bisimulation.

We can also use equational reasoning to transform inefficient programs (such as the translation of the long reduction in Table 9) into efficient ones (such as the short reduction in Table 16). We conjecture that such optimizations may make languages with explicit computation types simpler to optimize.

In SECTION 2 we present a cut-down version of the operational semantics for CML presented in (Ferreira, Hennessy, and Jeffrey 1995), including a suitable definition of bisimulation for CML programs.

In SECTION 3 we present the variant of CML with explicit computation types, and show that the resulting equational theory of bisimulation has better mathematical properties than that of CML. This is a variant of the language presented in (Jeffrey 1995a).

IN SECTION 4 we provide a translation from the first language into the second, and show that it is correct up to bisimulation.

## 2 Concurrent ML

In this section, we introduce a subset of Concurrent ML (CML), and provide a labelled transition system semantics for it. This provides weak bisimulation as an equivalence on programs.

This section is based on joint work with Ferreira and Hennessy, and is discussed in more detail in (Ferreira, Hennessy, and Jeffrey 1995).

### 2.1 Syntax

Concurrent ML (CML) is an extension to New Jersey ML which allows for the implementation of concurrent programs. Communication takes place along channels, and is a one-to-one handshake similar to Milner's (1989) CCS. For example, the process which transmits value $v$ of type $A$ along channel a and then returns the canonical value () of type unit is:

$$
\operatorname{send}_{A}(a, v)
$$

In this paper, we are using a simplified notion of channel, where channels are untyped, and so send ${ }_{A}$ has type:

$$
\operatorname{send}_{A}:(\operatorname{chan} * A)->\text { unit }
$$

The process which accepts value $v$ of type $A$ along channel $a$ and returns $v$ is:

$$
\operatorname{accept}_{A} \mathrm{a}
$$

This has type:

$$
\text { accept }_{A}: \text { chan }->A
$$

The fragment of CML we are considering is monomorphic, which is why send and accept have to be type-indexed. We shall often elide these indices.

Evaluation proceeds as in ML, with left-to-right call-by-value evaluation, so a process which accepts values $v$ then $w$ along channel a and returns the pair ( $v, w$ ) is:

$$
(\text { accept } a, \text { accept } a)
$$

We can define the sequential composition of $e$ and $f$ to be a term which evaluates $e$, discards the result, then evaluates $f$ to be (for fresh $x$ ):

$$
e ; f=\operatorname{let} x=e \inf
$$

A thunked process can be forked off for concurrent evaluation using spawn, for example the concurrent passing of $v$ along a can be given:
$\operatorname{spawn}(\mathrm{fn} x=>\operatorname{send}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{v})) ;$ accept a

This spawns send ( $a, v$ ) off for concurrent execution, then evaluates accept $a$. These two processes can then communicate. In this paper, we are ignoring CML's threads so spawn has type:
spawn : (unit ->A) -> unit

CML does not provide a general 'external choice' operator such as CCS + . Instead, guarded choice is provided, and the type mechanism is used to ensure that choice is only ever used on guarded computation. The type $A$ event is used as the type of guarded processes of type A, and CML allows for the creation of guarded input and output:

$$
\operatorname{transmit}_{A}:(\operatorname{chan} * A)->\text { unit event } \quad \text { receive }_{A}: \text { chan } \rightarrow A \text { event }
$$

and for guarded sequential computation:

$$
\text { wrap }:(A \text { event } *(A->B))->B \text { event }
$$

For example the guarded process which inputs a value on a and outputs it on $b$ is given:

$$
\text { wrap (receive a, fn } x \Rightarrow \text { send }(b, x)) \text { : unit event }
$$

CML provides choice between guarded processes using choose. In CML this is defined on lists, but for simplicity we shall give it only for pairs:

$$
\text { choose : }(A \text { event } * A \text { event })->A \text { event }
$$

For example the guarded process which chooses between receiving a signal on a or $b$ is:

$$
\text { choose (receive } A \text {, receive } A_{A} \text { ) : A event }
$$

Guarded processes can be treated as any other process, using the function sync:

$$
\text { sync : } A \text { event }->A
$$

For example, we can execute the above guarded process by saying:

$$
\operatorname{sync}\left(\operatorname{choose}\left(\text { receive }_{A} a, r e c e i v e ~ A b\right)\right): A
$$

In fact, accept and send are not primitives in CML, and are defined:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{accept}_{A} & \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{fn} x \Rightarrow \operatorname{sync}\left(\operatorname{receive}_{A} x\right) \\
\operatorname{send}_{A} & \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{fn} x=>\operatorname{sync}\left(\operatorname{transmit}_{A} x\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

This paper cannot provide a full introduction to CML, and the interested reader is referred to Reppy's papers (Reppy 1991; Reppy 1992) for further explanation.

The fragment of CML we will consider here is missing much of CML's functionality, notably polymorphism, guards and thread identifiers. It is similar to the fragment of CML considered in (Ferreira, Hennessy, and Jeffrey 1995) except
semanucs jor core concurrent vil using computaion types

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A}{\Gamma \vdash c e: B}[c: A \rightarrow B] \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: b o o l \quad \Gamma \vdash f: A \quad \Gamma \vdash g: A}{\Gamma \vdash \text { ifethen } f \text { elseg }: A} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A}{\Gamma \vdash(e, f): A * B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A \quad \Gamma, x: A \vdash f: B}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{let} x=e \inf : B} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash f: A}{\Gamma \vdash e f: B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash x: A}{\Gamma, x: A \vdash x: A} \quad \frac{\Gamma, y: B \vdash x: A}{\Gamma \neq y]} \\
& \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text { true: bool }} \overline{\Gamma \vdash f a l s e: b o o l} \overline{\Gamma \vdash n: i n t} \overline{\Gamma \vdash k: c h a n} \\
& \overline{\Gamma \vdash(): \text { unit }} \quad \frac{\Gamma, x: A \rightarrow B, y: A \vdash e: B}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{rec} x=\operatorname{fn} y=>e: A \rightarrow B}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Table 1. Types for $\mu$ CML expressions

that for simplicity we do not consider the always command. We will call this subset 'core $\tau$-free CML', or $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ for short.

For simplicity, we will only use unit, bool, int and chan as base types, although other types such as lists could easily be added.

The integer values are given by the grammar:

$$
n::=\cdots|-1| 0|1| \cdots
$$

The channel values are given by the grammar:

$$
\mathrm{k}::=\mathrm{a}|\mathrm{~b}| \cdots
$$

The values are given by the grammar:

$$
v::=\text { true } \mid \text { false }|n| k|()| \operatorname{rec} x=\operatorname{fn} x \Rightarrow e \mid x
$$

The expressions are given by the grammar:

$$
e::=v|c e| \text { if } e \text { then e elsee }|(e, e)| l e t x=e \text { in } e \mid \text { ee }
$$

Finally, the basic functions are given by the grammar:

$$
\begin{gathered}
c::=\text { fst } \mid \text { snd } \mid \text { add } \mid \text { mul } \mid \text { leq } \mid \text { transmit }_{A} \mid \text { receive }_{A} \\
\mid \text { choose } \mid \text { spawn } \mid \text { sync } \mid \text { wrap } \mid \text { never }
\end{gathered}
$$

$\mu \mathrm{CML}$ is a typed language, with a type system given by the grammar:

$$
A::=\text { unit } \mid \text { bool } \mid \text { int } \mid \text { chan }|A * A| A \rightarrow A \mid A \text { event }
$$

The type judgements for expressions are given as judgements $\Gamma \vdash e: A$, where $\Gamma$ ranges over contexts of the form $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}$. The type system is in Tables 1 and 2.

We can define syntactic sugar for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ definitions, writing $\mathrm{f} n \mathrm{x} \Rightarrow \mathrm{e}$ for $\operatorname{rec} y=f n x \Rightarrow e$ when $y$ is not free in e, using pattern-matching on pairs as

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { fst }: A * B \rightarrow A \\
\text { snd }: A * B \rightarrow B \\
\text { add }: \text { int } * \text { int } \rightarrow \text { int } \\
\text { mul }: \text { int } * \text { int } \rightarrow \text { int } \\
\text { leq }: \text { int } * \text { int } \rightarrow \text { bool } \\
\text { transmit } A: \text { chan } * A \rightarrow \text { unit event } \\
\text { receive } A: \text { chan } \rightarrow A \text { event } \\
\text { choose }: A \text { event } * A \text { event } \rightarrow A \text { event } \\
\text { spawn }: \text { unit } \rightarrow \text { unit } \rightarrow \text { unit } \\
\text { sync }: A \text { event } \rightarrow A \\
\text { wrap }: A \text { event } *(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B \text { event } \\
\text { never }: \text { unit } \rightarrow A \text { event } \\
\text { TABLE } 2 . \text { Types for } \mu C M L \text { basic functions }
\end{gathered}
$$

shorthand for projections, and using $\stackrel{\text { def }}{=}$ as shorthand for recursive function declaration. For example, a one-place buffer can be defined:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{cell}_{A}: \operatorname{chan} * \operatorname{chan}->B \\
\operatorname{cell}_{A}(x, y) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{cell}_{A}\left(\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{send}_{A}\left(y, \operatorname{accept}_{A} x\right),(x, y)\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

### 2.2 Operational semantics

The semantics we will use here is based on the 'semantics of concurrency' tradition: we extend the programming language with enough syntactic constructs that it is possible to give a transition system semantics between program fragments. A comparison of this semantics with Reppy's (1992) reduction semantics is given in (Ferreira, Hennessy, and Jeffrey 1995).

The semantics we provide has four transitions: reduction $(\tau)$, returning a value $(\checkmark v)$, input on a channel $(k ? x)$, and output on a channel $(k!v)$.

A transition $e \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime}$ represents a single-step reduction, for example ${ }^{1}$ :

$$
\text { if true then } 0 \text { else } 1 \xrightarrow{\tau} 0
$$

We will often write $e \Longrightarrow e^{\prime}$ for $e \xrightarrow{\tau} \cdots \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime}$, for example:

$$
\text { if true then add }(1,-1) \text { else } 1 \Longrightarrow 0
$$

[^0]semantucs jor core concurrent IVL using computamon types
A transition $e \xrightarrow{\checkmark v} e^{\prime}$ represents a process returning a value $v$, for example:
$$
0 \xrightarrow{\checkmark 0} \delta
$$

We will often write $e \stackrel{l}{\Longrightarrow} e^{\prime}$ for $e \Longrightarrow \xrightarrow{l} e^{\prime}$, for example:

$$
\text { if true then } \operatorname{add}(1,-1) \text { else } 1 \stackrel{\sqrt{ }}{\Longrightarrow} \delta
$$

In this case the computation is sequential, so the remaining computation after returning the value ' 0 ' is the empty computation ' $\delta$ '. CML allows processes to spawn threads which can continue after their parent has terminated, so there are cases when the remaining computation is non-trivial, such as:

$$
\operatorname{spawn}(\operatorname{fn}()=>\operatorname{send}(a, 0)) \xrightarrow{\checkmark()} \operatorname{send}(a, 0) \| \delta
$$

Here ' $\|$ ' represents the parallel composition of two processes, with the rightmost process being the main thread of computation, for example:

$$
\operatorname{spawn}(f n() \Rightarrow \operatorname{send}(a, 0)) ; \text { accept } a \Longrightarrow \operatorname{send}(a, 0) \| \text { accept } a
$$

A transition $e \xrightarrow{k ? x} e^{\prime}$ represents an input on channel $k$, where $e^{\prime}$ has a free variable $x$, for example:

$$
\text { accept } a \stackrel{a ? x}{\Longrightarrow} x
$$

Similarly, a transition $e^{\stackrel{k!v}{\longrightarrow}} e^{\prime}$ represents an output of value $v$ on channel $k$, for example:

$$
\text { send }(a, 0) \xrightarrow{a!0}()
$$

Input and output transitions can be synchronized to produce reductions, for example:

$$
\text { send }(a, 0) \| \text { accept } a \Longrightarrow() \| 0
$$

In $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ there are no normal forms for pairs-such a normal form is needed for the operational semantics, so we will extend the language of values with pairs $\langle v, w\rangle$. This allows pairs of values to be communicated, for example since:

$$
(1,-1) \xrightarrow{\checkmark\langle 1,-1\rangle} \delta
$$

we have:

$$
\operatorname{send}(b,(1,-1)) \xrightarrow{b!\langle 1,-1\rangle}()
$$

and so we have the communication:

$$
\operatorname{send}(b,(1,-1))\|\operatorname{add}(\operatorname{accept} b) \Longrightarrow()\| \operatorname{add}\langle-1,1\rangle
$$

So far we have only considered first-order processes, but CML is a higher-order language which can communicate values of any type, for example since

$$
\text { send } \xlongequal{\checkmark \text { send }} \delta
$$

we have:

$$
\text { send }(b, \text { send }) \stackrel{b!\operatorname{send}}{\Longrightarrow}()
$$

and so we have the higher-order communication:

$$
\text { send }(b, \text { send }) \| \text { accept } b(a, 0) \Longrightarrow() \| \text { send }(a, 0)
$$

CML also allows communications of events, so we need to extend the language in a similar fashion to Reppy (1992) to include values of event type. These values are of the form [ge] where ge is a CCS-style guarded sum, for example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { transmit }(a, 0) & \Longrightarrow[a!0] \\
\text { receive } & \Longrightarrow[a ?] \\
\text { choose }(\text { transmit }(a, 0), \text { receive } a) & \Longrightarrow[a!0 \oplus a ?] \\
\operatorname{wrap}(\text { receive } a, \text { fn } x=>e) & \Longrightarrow[a ? \Rightarrow \mathrm{fn} x=>e]
\end{aligned}
$$

This syntax is based on Reppy's, and is slightly different from that normally associated with process calculi, for example:

- we write a $!0 \oplus a$ ? rather than $a!0+a$ ?, and
- we write $a$ ? $\Rightarrow \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow$ e rather than a ? x.e.

By extending the syntax of $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ expressions to include guarded expressions, we get a particularly simple semantics for sync as just removing the outermost level of [_], for example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { send }(a, 0) \\
& \quad \Longrightarrow \text { sync }(\text { transmit }(a, 0)) \\
& \Longrightarrow \text { sync }[a!0] \\
& \Longrightarrow a!0 \\
& \xrightarrow[a!0]{\Longrightarrow}()
\end{aligned}
$$

In summary, we give the operational semantics for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ by first extending it to $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$by adding expressions:

$$
\text { e }::=\cdots|e \| e| g e
$$

adding values:

$$
v::=\cdots|\langle v, v\rangle|[g e]
$$

and adding guarded expressions:

$$
\text { ge }::=k ?_{A}\left|k!_{A} v\right| \delta|g e \oplus g e| g e \Rightarrow v
$$

The typing for $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$extends that of $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ with the rules in Table 3.
The extended language $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$has a semantics as a labelled transition system with labels:

$$
\mu::=k!_{A} v\left|k ?_{A} x \quad \alpha::=\tau\right| \mu \quad l::=\alpha \mid \vee v
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A \quad \Gamma \vdash f: B}{\Gamma \vdash e \| f: B} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash \delta: A} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash v: A \quad \Gamma \vdash w: B}{\Gamma \vdash\langle v, w\rangle: A * B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A}{\Gamma \vdash[e]: A e v e n t} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash v: \operatorname{chan} \Gamma \vdash w: A}{\Gamma \vdash v!_{A} w: \text { unit }} \frac{\Gamma \vdash v: c h a n}{\Gamma \vdash v ?_{A}: A} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash g e_{1}: A \quad \Gamma \vdash g e_{2}: A}{\Gamma \vdash g e_{1} \oplus g e_{2}: A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash g e: A \quad \Gamma \vdash v: A \rightarrow B}{\Gamma \vdash g e \Rightarrow v: B} \\
& \text { Table 3. Types for } \mu \mathrm{CML}^{+} \text {expressions } \\
& \underset{c e \xrightarrow{e}{ }^{\alpha} e^{\prime}}{\text { ifethen } f \text { elseg } \xrightarrow{\alpha} \text { if } e^{\prime} \text { then } f \text { else } g} \\
& \frac{e \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime}}{(e, f) \xrightarrow{\alpha}\left(e^{\prime}, f\right)} \quad \frac{e \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime}}{\operatorname{let} x=e \inf \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{let} x=e^{\prime} \inf f} \\
& \underset{e f \xrightarrow{e} e^{\prime} f}{e e^{\prime}} \stackrel{e \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime}}{e\left\|f \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime}\right\| f} \xrightarrow[{e\|f \xrightarrow{l} e\| f^{\prime}}]{f}
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 4. CML operational semantics: static rules
The operational semantics is given in Tables 4-8.
This operational semantics is very fine-grained, and is designed to mimic the execution of a CML program very closely. As a result, derivations of fairly simple computations can be surprisingly long. For example, one reduction of $\mathrm{cell}_{A}\langle i, o\rangle$ is given in Table 9.

### 2.3 Bisimulation

As we mentioned above, one reason for choosing a labelled transition system semantics over a reduction semantics is that we can define bisimulation as an equivalence on programs. This is discussed at length in (Ferreira, Hennessy, and Jeffrey 1995), and is summarized here. We will use notation adapted from Gordon's (1995) presentation of Howe's (1989) proof technique.

Let an open type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$ be a family of relations $\mathcal{R}_{R, A}$ such that if $e \mathcal{R}_{\Gamma, A} f$ then $\Gamma \vdash e: A$ and $\Gamma \vdash f: A$. We will often elide the subscripts from relations, for example writing $e \mathcal{R} f$ for $e \mathcal{R}_{\mathbb{R}, A} f$ when context makes the type

$$
\frac{g e_{1} \xrightarrow{\alpha} e}{g e_{1} \oplus g e_{2} \xrightarrow[\longrightarrow]{\alpha}} \quad \frac{g e_{2} \xrightarrow{\alpha} e}{g e_{1} \oplus g e_{2} \xrightarrow{\alpha} e} \quad \frac{g e \xrightarrow{\alpha} e}{g e \Rightarrow v \xrightarrow{\alpha} v e}
$$

Table 5. CML operational semantics: dynamic rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{e \xrightarrow{\text { ef }} e^{\prime}}{\text { ef } e^{\prime} \| \text { let } y=f \text { in } g[v / x]}[v=\operatorname{rec} x=\operatorname{fn} y=>g] \\
& \frac{e \xrightarrow{v v} e^{\prime}}{c e \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| \delta(c, v)} \\
& \frac{e \stackrel{\checkmark \text { true }}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime}}{\text { ifethen } f \text { elseg } \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| f} \quad \frac{e \xrightarrow[\text { false }]{ } e^{\prime}}{\text { ifethen } f \text { elseg } \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| g} \\
& \left.\xrightarrow\left[{(e, f) \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| \operatorname{let} x=f \operatorname{in}\langle v, x}\right\rangle\right]{e \xrightarrow{\text { v }} e^{\prime}} \quad \frac{e \xrightarrow{\checkmark v} e^{\prime}}{\operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{ein} f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| f[v / x]}
\end{aligned}
$$

Table 6. CML operational semantics: silent reductions

$$
\overline{v \xrightarrow{v} \delta} \quad \overline{k!_{A} v \xrightarrow{k!_{A} v}()} \quad \overline{k ?_{A} \xrightarrow{k ?_{A} X} X}
$$

TABLE 7. CML operational semantics: axioms

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \delta(f s t,\langle v, w\rangle)=v \\
& \delta(\operatorname{snd},\langle v, w\rangle)=w \\
& \delta(\operatorname{add},\langle m, n\rangle)=m+n \\
& \delta(m u l,\langle m, n\rangle)=m \times n \\
& \delta(\mathrm{leq},\langle m, n\rangle)=m \leq n \\
& \delta(\text { sync },[g e])=g e \\
& \delta\left(\text { transmit }_{A},\langle k, v\rangle\right)=\left[k!_{A} v\right] \\
& \delta\left(\text { receive }_{A}, k\right)=\left[k ?_{A}\right] \\
& \delta(\text { wrap },\langle[g e], v\rangle)=[g e \Rightarrow v] \\
& \delta(\text { spawn }, v)=v() \|() \\
& \delta(\text { never, }())=[\delta]
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 8. CML operational semantics: basic functions
$\operatorname{cell}_{A}\langle i, 0\rangle$
$\xrightarrow[\tau]{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\langle i, o\rangle$ incell $l_{A}\left(\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{send}_{A}\left(\operatorname{snd} x, \operatorname{accept}_{A}(\operatorname{fst} x)\right), x\right)\right)$
$\xrightarrow[\tau]{\tau} \operatorname{cell}_{A}\left(\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{send}_{A}\left(\operatorname{snd}\langle i, o\rangle, \operatorname{accept}_{A}(f s t\langle i, o\rangle)\right),\langle i, o\rangle\right)\right)$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{send}_{A}\left(\operatorname{snd}\langle i, 0\rangle, \operatorname{accept}_{A}(\right.\right.$ fst $\left.\left.\langle i, 0\rangle)\right),\langle i, 0\rangle\right)$ in cell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{let} y=\left(\operatorname{snd}\langle i, o\rangle, \operatorname{accept}_{A}(\operatorname{fst}\langle i, 0\rangle)\right)\right.$ in sync ( $\operatorname{transmit}_{A} y$ )
, $\langle i, 0\rangle$ )
incell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{let} y=\left(0, \operatorname{accept}_{A}(\right.\right.$ fst $\left.\langle i, 0\rangle)\right)$
in sync (transmit $A_{A} y$ )
, $\langle i, 0\rangle$ )
in cell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\right.$ let $y=\operatorname{let} z=\operatorname{accept}_{A}($ fst $\langle i, 0\rangle)$ in $\langle 0, z\rangle$ in sync (transmitay) $,\langle i, 0\rangle)$
in cell ${ }_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow{\tau}$ let $x=$ snd (let $y=l$ et $z=$ let $x^{\prime}=$ fst $\langle i, 0\rangle$ in sync $\left(\right.$ receive $\left._{A} x^{\prime}\right)$ in $\langle 0, z\rangle$
in sync ( $\operatorname{transmit}_{A} y$ )
$,\langle i, 0\rangle)$
in cell ${ }_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow{\tau}$ let $x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{let} y=\operatorname{let} z=\operatorname{let} x^{\prime}=i\right.$ insync $\left(\right.$ receive $\left._{A} x^{\prime}\right)$ in $\langle 0, z\rangle$ in sync (transmit ${ }_{A} y$ )
, $\langle i, 0\rangle$ )
in cell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow{\tau}$ let $x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\right.$ let $y=$ let $z=\operatorname{sync}\left(\right.$ receive $\left._{A} i\right)$ in $\langle 0, z\rangle$ in sync (transmitay) , $\langle i, 0\rangle)$
incell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\right.$ let $y=\operatorname{let} z=\operatorname{sync}\left[i ?_{A}\right]$ in $\langle 0, z\rangle$ insync $\left.\left(\operatorname{transmit}_{A} y\right),\langle i, 0\rangle\right)$ in cell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow{\tau}$ let $x=$ snd (let $y=$ let $z=i ?_{A}$ in $\langle 0, z\rangle$ in sync $\left(\right.$ transmit $\left.\left.A_{A} y\right),\langle i, 0\rangle\right)$ in cell ${ }_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow{\text { i?vv }}$ let $x=$ snd $\left(l\right.$ et $y=l e t z=v i n\langle o, z\rangle$ in sync $\left.\left(\operatorname{transmit} t_{A} y\right),\langle i, 0\rangle\right)$ in cell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{let} y=\langle 0, v\rangle\right.$ in sync $\left.\left(\operatorname{transmit} t_{A} y\right),\langle i, o\rangle\right)$ in cell ${ }_{A} X$
$\xrightarrow[\tau]{\tau}$ let $x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{sync}\left(\operatorname{transmit}_{A}\langle 0, v\rangle\right),\langle i, 0\rangle\right)$ in cell $l_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow[\tau]{\tau}$ let $x=\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{sync}\left[0!_{A} v\right],\langle i, 0\rangle\right)$ in cell $l_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{let} x=\operatorname{snd}\left(0!_{A} v,\langle i, 0\rangle\right)$ in cell $A_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow{0 \rightarrow}$ let $x=$ snd ( ()$,\langle i, o\rangle)$ in $\operatorname{cell}_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow[\tau]{\tau}$ let $x=$ snd (let $y=\langle i, o\rangle$ in $\langle(), y\rangle)$ in cell $A_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow{\tau}$ let $x=\operatorname{snd}\langle(),\langle i, o\rangle\rangle$ in cell ${ }_{A} x$
$\xrightarrow{\tau}$ let $x=\langle i, 0\rangle$ incell $l_{A}$
$\xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{cell}_{A}\langle i, 0\rangle$

14
obvious.
Let a closed type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$ be an open type-indexed relation where $\Gamma$ is everywhere the empty context, and can therefore be elided.

For any closed type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$, let its open extension $\mathcal{R}^{\circ}$ be defined as:

$$
e \mathcal{R}_{\vec{x}: \vec{A}, B}^{\circ} f \text { iff } e[\vec{v} / \vec{x}] \mathcal{R}_{B} f[\vec{v} / \vec{x}] \text { for all } \vdash \vec{v}: \vec{A}
$$

A closed type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$ is structure preserving iff:

- if $v \mathcal{R}_{A}{ }_{w}$ and $A$ is a base type then $v=w$,
- if $\left\langle v_{1}, v_{2}\right\rangle \mathcal{R}_{A_{1} * A_{2}}\left\langle w_{1}, w_{2}\right\rangle$ then $v_{i} \mathcal{R}_{A_{i}} w_{i}$,
- if $\left[g e_{1}\right] \mathcal{R}_{d \text { event }}\left[g e_{2}\right]$ then $g e_{1} \mathcal{R}_{\Delta} g e_{2}$, and
- if $v \mathcal{R}_{A->B} v^{\prime}$ then for all $\vdash w: A$ we have $v w \mathcal{R}_{B} v^{\prime}{ }^{w}$.

A closed type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$ is a first-order strong simulation iff it is structure preserving and the following diagram can be completed:

| $e_{1}$ | $\mathcal{R}$ | $e_{2}$ |  | $e_{1}$ | $\mathcal{R}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $l \mid$ |  |  |  | $e_{2}$ |  |
|  |  |  | as | $l \mid$ |  |
| $e_{1}^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |  | $l$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | $e_{1}^{\prime}$ | $\mathcal{R}^{\circ}$ | $e_{2}^{\prime}$ |

Note the use of the open extension $\mathcal{R}$. This means, for example, that if $e_{1} \mathcal{R} e_{2}$ we require that the move $e_{1} \xrightarrow{k ?_{B} X} f_{1}$ be matched by a move $e_{2} \xrightarrow{k ?_{B} X} f_{2}$ where $f_{2}$ is such that for all values $\vdash v: B$ we have $f_{1}[v / x] \mathcal{R} f_{2}[v / x]$. Thus in the terminology of (Milner, Parrow, and Walker 1992) our definition corresponds to the late version of bisimulation.
$\mathcal{R}$ is a first-order strong bisimulation iff $\mathcal{R}$ and $\mathcal{R}^{-1}$ are first-order strong simulations. Let $\sim^{1}$ be the largest first-order strong bisimulation.
Proposition 1. $\sim^{1}$ is an equivalence.
Proof. Use diagram chases to show that if $\mathcal{R}$ is a first-order strong simulation then so are $I$ and $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{R}$. The result follows.
Unfortunately, $\sim^{1}$ is not a congruence for $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$, since we have:

$$
\operatorname{add}(1,-1) \sim^{1} \operatorname{add}(-1,1)
$$

however, sending the thunked expressions on channel a we get:

$$
\operatorname{transmit}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow \operatorname{add}(1,-1)) \not \chi^{1} \operatorname{transmit}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow \operatorname{add}(-1,1))
$$

since the lhs can perform the move:

$$
\operatorname{transmit}(a, f n x=>\operatorname{add}(1,-1)) \xlongequal{\operatorname{a!fn} x=>\operatorname{add}(1,-1)}()
$$

semantucs jor core concurrent vil using computanon types
but this can only be matched by the rhs up to strong bisimulation:

$$
\operatorname{transmit}(a, f n x \Rightarrow \text { add }(-1,1)) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{a!}!n x \Rightarrow \operatorname{add}(-1,1)}()
$$

The problem is that the definition of strong bisimulation demands that the actions performed by expressions match up to syntactic identity, rather than up to strong bisimulation. In fact, it is easy to verify that the only first-order strong bisimulation which is a congruence for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ is the identity relation.

To find a satisfactory treatment of bisimulation for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$, we need to look to higher-order bisimulation, where the structure of the labels is accounted for. To this end, given a closed type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$, define its extension to labels $\mathcal{R}^{l}$ as:

$$
\overline{\tau \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} \tau} \quad \frac{v \mathcal{R}_{A} W}{v v \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} v W} \quad \frac{v \mathcal{R}_{B} W}{k ?_{B} \times \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} k ?_{B} X} \quad \frac{k!_{B} v \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} k!_{B} W}{}
$$

Then $\mathcal{R}$ is a higher-order strong simulation iff it is structure preserving and the following diagram can be completed:

Let $\sim^{h}$ be the largest higher-order strong bisimulation.
Proposition 2. $\sim^{h}$ is a congruence.
Proof. Use a similar technique to the proof of Proposition 1 to show that $\sim^{h}$ is an equivalence. To show that $\sim^{h}$ is a congruence, define $\mathcal{R}$ as:

$$
\mathcal{R}=\left\{(C[e], C[f]) \mid e \sim^{h} f\right\}
$$

and then show by induction on $C$ that $\mathcal{R}$ is a simulation. The result follows.
For many purposes, strong bisimulation is too fine an equivalence as it is sensitive to the number of reductions performed by expressions. This means it will not even validate elementary properties such as $\beta$-reduction. We require the looser weak bisimulation which allows $\tau$ reductions to be ignored.

Let $\stackrel{l}{\Longrightarrow}$ be $\Longrightarrow$ if $l=\tau$ and $\xlongequal{l}$ otherwise. Then $\mathcal{R}$ is a higher-order weak simulation iff it is structure preserving and the following diagram can be com-
pleted:


A higher-order weak bisimulation is a higher-order weak simulation whose inverse is also a higher-order weak simulation. Let $\approx^{h}$ be the largest higher-order weak bisimulation.

Proposition 3. $\approx^{h}$ is a congruence.
Proof. Given in (Ferreira, Hennessy, and Jeffrey 1995), using a variant of Gordon's (1995) presentation Howe's (1989) proof technique. Note that this proof relies on the fact that we are considering the subset of $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ without always, and hence do not have to consider initial $\tau$-actions in summations, which present the same problems as in the first-order case (Milner 1989).
Unfortunately, this equivalence does not have many pleasant mathematical properties. For example none of the usual equations for products are true:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\text { fst }(e, f) \not \nsim^{h} e \\
\operatorname{snd}(e, f) \not \nsim^{h} f \\
\left(\text { fste, snd e) } \not \nsim^{h} e\right.
\end{array}
$$

(For each counter-example consider an expression with side-effects, such as cell.)

In the next section we shall consider a variant of $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ which uses a restrictive type system to provide more pleasant mathematical properties of programs. We shall then show a translation from $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ into the restricted language, which is correct up to weak bisimulation.

## 3 Concurrent monadic ML

In the previous section, we showed how to define an operational semantics for CML which can be used as the basis of a bisimulation equivalence between programs. Unfortunately, this equivalence does not have pleasant mathematical properties. For example $\beta$-conversion does not hold:

$$
(\operatorname{fn} x \Rightarrow(x, x))(\operatorname{cell}(a, b)) \not \nsim h^{h}(\operatorname{cell}(a, b), \operatorname{cell}(a, b))
$$

Because CML computations are non-trivial (CML processes may diverge, and can have side-effects) we cannot use the standard mathematical models of typed $\lambda$-calculi such as cartesian closed categories (Lambek and Scott 1986).
semanucis jor core concurrent ivil using compuiano types
13
In this section, we present a Concurrent Monadic ML (CMML) a variant of CML with a type system based on Moggi's (1991) computation types. Such type systems have proved popular in giving an elegant treatment to functional languages with non-trivial computation, such as the Haskell I/O system (Gordon et al. 1994).

CMML can be provided with an operational semantics similar to that given to CML in the previous section, although the semantics is much simpler, and has pleasant properties such as forming a category with finite products and a restricted class of exponentials.

The language presented here ( $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ ) is a subset of the language presented in (Jeffrey 1995a).
3.1 Syntax

The main difference between CMML and CML is that the distinction between values and expressions is handled by the CMML type system rather than as a separate syntactic category. For example, in CML we have:

$$
\vdash 0: \text { int (a value) } \quad \vdash \operatorname{add}(-1,1): \text { int (an expression) }
$$

whereas in CMML we have:

$$
\vdash 0: \text { int (an expression) } \quad \vdash \text { add }\langle-1,1\rangle: \text { int comp (an expression })
$$

This uses an explicit type constructor $A$ comp to represent computations which return results of type $A$. For example add $\langle-1,1\rangle$ returns the result 0 , so it has the type int comp.

Moggi (1991) proposed two syntactic constructions for manipulating computation types:

- the expression [e] which immediately returns $e$, and
- the expression let $x \Leftarrow e \operatorname{in} f$ which evaluates $e$, binds the result to $x$ and then evaluates $f$.

For example $(1+1)+(1+1)$ can be calculated as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { let } x \Leftarrow[1] \\
& \text { in let } y \Leftarrow \operatorname{add}\langle x, x\rangle \\
& \quad \text { in add }\langle y, y\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that expressions written in $\mu$ CMML tend to be more long-winded than their $\mu$ CML equivalents: this is because the flow of execution through a $\mu$ CMML program is made explicit by the use of let-expressions. Such an explicit language may seem overly verbose to functional programmers used to programming in the SML style, where execution order is implicit in the left-to-right evaluation order. However, as we shall see, making execution order explicit has the benefit of a simpler semantics and better equational properties.

Using an explicit type constructor for computation has the advantage that the only terms which perform computation are those of type Acomp, and that an expression of any other type is guaranteed to be in normal form. This gives us the normal form results (Proposition 4 below):

- the only closed term of type unit is (),
- the only closed terms of type bool are true and false,
- the only closed terms of type int are $\ldots,-1,0,1, \ldots$,
- the only closed terms of type chan are $a, b, \ldots$,
- the only closed terms of type $A * B$ are of the form $\langle e, f\rangle$, and
- the only closed terms of type $A \rightarrow B$ comp are of the form rec $x=\mathrm{fn} y \Rightarrow e$.

These results make the operational semantics much simpler to define, for example rather than two rules for function application:

$$
\frac{e \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime}}{e f \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime} f} \quad \frac{e \stackrel{\gamma v}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime}}{e f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| \operatorname{let} y=f \operatorname{ing}[v / x]}[v=\operatorname{rec} x=\operatorname{fn} y=>g]
$$

we only need one simple $\beta$-reduction rule:

$$
\overline{e f \xrightarrow{\tau} g[f / y][e / x]}[e=(r e c x=\mathrm{fn} y \Rightarrow g)]
$$

The simplicity of the operational semantics rests on the normal form result described above, but this requires a somewhat non-standard treatment of projections on pairs. In $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ projections are given using fst and snd, for example a function to swap a pair is:

$$
\vdash \operatorname{fn} x \Rightarrow(\operatorname{snd} x, f s t x): A * B \rightarrow B * A
$$

If we were to allow $f$ st and snd in CMML we would no longer have the normal form result described above. However, projections on pairs are useful both practically and as the categorical basis of products. In CMML we use a restricted form of projections which maintains the normal form result: we use Pascal-style record field selection on lvalues rather than ML-style selection functions. If $x$ is a variable of type $A * B$ then $x . l$ is an expression of type $A$, and $x . r$ is an expression of type $B$. For example a CMML function to swap a pair is:

$$
\vdash \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow[\langle x . \mathrm{r}, x . \mathrm{I}\rangle]: A * B \rightarrow(B * A) \mathrm{comp}
$$

Similarly, we need to use a restricted form of function space, since the result of any function application should be a computation. This means that rather than the CML function type:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x: A \rightarrow B, y: A \vdash e: B}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{rec} x=\operatorname{fn} y=>e: A->B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A->B \quad \Gamma \vdash f: A}{\Gamma \vdash e f: B}
$$

we have the restricted CMML function type:

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x: A \rightarrow B \operatorname{comp}, y: A \vdash e: B \operatorname{comp}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{rec} x=\operatorname{fn} y \Rightarrow e: A \rightarrow B \operatorname{comp}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e: A \rightarrow B \operatorname{comp} \quad \Gamma \vdash f: A}{\Gamma \vdash e f: B \operatorname{comp}}
$$

For example there is no CMML projection function with type $A * B \rightarrow A$, instead we have:

$$
\vdash \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow[x .1]: A * B \rightarrow A \operatorname{comp}
$$

The concurrent features of $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ are similar to those of $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$, for example a concurrent communication is given by:

$$
k!0\|k ? \xrightarrow{\tau}[()]\|[0]
$$

We will now give the grammar and type system for $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$.
Integers and channels are given as for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n::=\cdots|-1| 0|1| \cdots \\
& k::=a|b| \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

Basic functions are given by the grammar:

$$
c::=\text { add }|\mathrm{mul}| \text { leq }
$$

Expressions are given by the grammar:

$$
\begin{aligned}
e::= & \operatorname{true} \mid \text { false }|n| k|()| \operatorname{rec} x=\mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow e \mid c e \\
& \mid \text { if } e \text { then e else } e \mid \text { let } x \Leftarrow e \text { in } e|e e| V|[e]|\langle e, e\rangle \\
& |\delta| e \| e|e \square e| e!_{A} e \mid e ?_{A}
\end{aligned}
$$

Lvalues are given by the grammar:

$$
\operatorname{lv}::=x|/ v .| | / v . r
$$

Types are given by the grammar:

$$
A::=\text { unit } \mid \text { bool } \mid \text { int } \mid \text { chan }|A * A| A \rightarrow A \text { comp } \mid A \text { comp }
$$

Typing is given by Tables 10 and 11 .
Proposition 4. We have the following normal form results:

1. If $\Gamma \vdash e$ : unit then $e$ is an lvalue or $e=()$.
2. If $\Gamma \vdash e$ : bool then $e$ is an lvalue or $e=$ true or $e=$ false.
3. If $\Gamma \vdash e$ : int then $e$ is an lvalue or $e=n$.
4. If $\Gamma \vdash e$ : chan then $e$ is an lvalue or $e=k$.
5. If $\Gamma \vdash e: A * B$ then $e$ is an lvalue or $e=\langle f, g\rangle$.
6. If $\Gamma \vdash e: A \rightarrow B$ comp then $e$ is an lvalue or $e=(r e c x=f n y \Rightarrow f)$.

Proof. A case analysis on the proof of $\Gamma \vdash e: A$.
$\square$
When $\Gamma \vdash e: A$ and $\Gamma, x: A \vdash f: B$, define the substitution $\Gamma \vdash f[e / x]: B$ as normal, except that:
where:

$$
\pi\langle e, f\rangle=e \quad \pi / v=/ v .1 \quad \pi^{\prime}\langle e, f\rangle=f \quad \pi^{\prime} / v=/ v . r
$$

Note that this is well-defined because of Proposition 4.5.
As an example $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ program, consider a one-place buffer:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\text { cell }_{A}: \text { chan } * \text { chan } \rightarrow B \text { comp } \\
\operatorname{cell}_{A}\langle i, o\rangle & \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \text { let } x \Leftarrow i ?_{A} \text { inlet } y \Leftarrow o!{ }_{A} x \text { in cell } \\
A
\end{array} i, o\right\rangle
$$

Comparing this definition with its $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ equivalent is instructive, so we shall repeat the definition here:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{cell}_{A}: \operatorname{chan} * \operatorname{chan}->B \\
\operatorname{cell}_{A}(x, y) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{cell}_{A}\left(\operatorname{snd}\left(\operatorname{send}_{A}\left(y, \operatorname{accept}_{A} x\right),(x, y)\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

Writing programs in $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ can be repetitive, because of the number of letexpressions required. However, the let-expressions are precisely what controls the flow of execution through a $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ program, so it is easier to recognize the behaviour of a $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ program. In the above example, it requires some thought to realize that $\operatorname{cell} 1_{A}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ will input on a before outputting the result on b , and that the process does not just simply diverge, whereas the execution of the $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ equivalent is much more obvious.

In Section 4 we shall see that $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ programs can be translated into $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$, and that in particular we can perform some simple equational reasoning to transform cell into cell.

### 3.2 Operational semantics

The operational semantics for $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ is given in Tables $12-15$. It is similar to that of $\mu \mathrm{CML}$, except that it is simpler, due to the normal form results in Proposition 4. For example, since any closed term of type bool must be either true or false, the only two rules required for if-statements in $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ are:

This can be compared with the more complex three rules required for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ :
$\stackrel{e \xrightarrow{\text { true }} e^{\prime}}{\text { ifethen } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| f} \xrightarrow[{\text { ifethen } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \|} g]{e \xrightarrow{\text { false }} e^{\prime}}$
$\underset{\text { if ethen } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime}}{\text { if } e^{\prime} \text { then } f \text { else } g}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{e \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime}}{\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow \operatorname{in} f \xrightarrow{\alpha} \operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow e^{\prime} \operatorname{in} f} \\
& \frac{e \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime}}{e\left\|f \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime}\right\| f} \quad \xrightarrow[{e\|f \xrightarrow{l} e\| f^{\prime}}]{f} \quad \frac{e \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime}}{e \square f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \square f} \quad \xrightarrow{f \square f \xrightarrow{\tau} e \square f^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 12. CMML operational semantics: static rules
In the operational semantics of $\mu \mathrm{CML}$, terms in many contexts can reduce, whereas there are far fewer reduction contexts in $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$. In fact, looking at the sequential sub-language of $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ (without $\|$ or $\square$ ) the only reduction context is let:

$$
\frac{e \xrightarrow{\alpha} e^{\prime}}{\text { let } x \Leftarrow \operatorname{ein} f \xrightarrow{\alpha} \text { let } x \Leftarrow e^{\prime} \operatorname{in} f}
$$

Many of the operational rules in $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ require spawning off concurrent processes, whereas in $\mu$ CMML the main rule which produces extra concurrent processes is $\beta$-reduction for let-expressions:

$$
\frac{e \stackrel{\checkmark g}{ } e^{\prime}}{\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow \operatorname{ein} f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| f[g / x]}
$$

The other significant difference between the operational semantics for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ and $\mu$ CMML is the treatment of summation. In $\mu$ CML choice is only allowed between guarded expressions $g e_{1} \oplus g e_{2}$, whereas in $\mu$ CMML choice is allowed between arbitrary expressions $e \square f$. In particular, this means we need operational rules for when processes in a choice can perform silent reductions:

$$
\frac{e \stackrel{\tau}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime}}{e \square f \stackrel{\tau}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime} \square f} \quad \frac{f \stackrel{\tau}{\leftrightarrows} f^{\prime}}{e \square f \stackrel{\tau}{\tau} e \square f^{\prime}}
$$

and when processes in a choice can return a value:

$$
\frac{e \stackrel{\gamma g}{ } e^{\prime}}{e \square f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \|[g]} \quad \frac{f \stackrel{\gamma g}{ } f^{\prime}}{e \square f \xrightarrow{\tau} f^{\prime} \|[g]}
$$

Note that we are using rules for choice based on CSP (Hoare 1985) external choice rather than CCS (Milner 1989) summation. This is because we will be using $\approx^{h}$ as our equivalence on programs, and CCS summation does not preserve weak bisimulation. We have used slightly different termination rules for choice from CSP, in order to ensure forward commutativity of the resulting transition system (see Section 3.3 below for why this is important).

As an example of an $\mu$ CMML program execution, one possible run of the one-place buffer is given in Table 16, which can be compared to the equivalent $\mu$ CML execution in Table 9. The extra complexity of the $\mu$ CML execution is due to the book-keeping work that $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ has to do because an expression of any type has the capability of computation, so the operational semantics has to

$$
\frac{e \xrightarrow{\mu} e^{\prime}}{e \square f \xrightarrow{\mu} e^{\prime}} \quad \frac{f \xrightarrow{\mu} f^{\prime}}{e \square f \xrightarrow{\mu} f^{\prime}}
$$

TAbLE 13. CMML operational semantics: dynamic rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{e f \xrightarrow{\tau} g[f / y][e / x]}[e=(r e c x=\mathrm{fn} y \Rightarrow g)] \quad \overline{c e \xrightarrow{\tau}[\delta(c, e)]} \\
& \overline{\text { if truethen } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\tau} f} \stackrel{\text { if false then } f \text { else } g \xrightarrow{\tau} g}{ } \\
& \frac{e \stackrel{\checkmark g}{ } e^{\prime}}{\text { let } x \Leftarrow \operatorname{ein} f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \| f[g / x]} \\
& \frac{e \stackrel{k!_{A} g}{ } e^{\prime} \quad f \stackrel{k ?_{A}{ }_{A}}{ } f^{\prime}}{e\left\|f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime}\right\| f^{\prime}[g / x]} \quad \frac{e \xrightarrow{k ?_{A} x} e^{\prime} \quad f \stackrel{k!_{A} g}{t} f^{\prime}}{e\left\|f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime}[g / x]\right\| f^{\prime}} \\
& \frac{e \stackrel{\checkmark g}{ } e^{\prime}}{e \square f \xrightarrow{\tau} e^{\prime} \|[g]} \quad \frac{f \stackrel{\checkmark g}{ } f^{\prime}}{e \square f \xrightarrow{\tau} f^{\prime} \|[g]}
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 14. CMML operational semantics: silent reductions

$$
\overline{[e] \xrightarrow{\sqrt{ } e} \delta} \quad \overline{k!_{A} e \xrightarrow{k!!_{A} e}[()]} \quad \overline{k ?_{A} \xrightarrow{k!_{A} X}[x]}
$$

Table 15. CMML operational semantics: axioms

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{cell}\langle i, o\rangle \\
& \xrightarrow{\tau} \text { let } x \Leftarrow i \text { ? in let } y \Leftarrow o \text { ! } x \text { in cell }\langle i, o\rangle \\
& \xrightarrow[\tau]{i ? e} \text { let } x \Leftarrow[e] \text { inlet } y \Leftarrow 0 \text { ! } x \text { in cell }\langle i, o\rangle \\
& \xrightarrow{\tau} \text { let } y \Leftarrow o!e \text { in cell }\langle i, o\rangle \\
& \xrightarrow{o!e} \text { let } y \Leftarrow[()] \text { in cell }\langle i, o\rangle \\
& \xrightarrow{\tau} \operatorname{cell}\langle i, o\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 16. CMML operational semantics: example reduction
allow computation at any point in evaluation. For example, in the evaluation of send ( $e, f$ ), both $e$ and $f$ have to terminate before the communication can happen, so if $e \xlongequal{\checkmark k} \delta$ and $f \xlongequal{\sqrt{y}} \delta$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { send }(e, f) \\
& \quad \begin{array}{l}
\tau \\
\quad \text { let } x=(e, f) \text { in sync }(\text { transmit } x) \\
\Longrightarrow \text { let } x=l e t y=f \text { in }\langle k, y\rangle \text { in sync }(\text { transmit } x) \\
\Longrightarrow \text { let } x=\langle k, v\rangle \text { in sync }(\text { transmit } x) \\
\\
\longrightarrow \operatorname{sync}(\text { transmit }\langle k, v\rangle) \\
\longrightarrow \operatorname{sync}[k!v] \\
\overrightarrow{k!v}()
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

whereas the type system for $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ ensures that $e$ and $f$ do not have to be evaluated before $e!f$ can communicate.

### 3.3 Bisimulation

We can define 'structure-preserving' and 'bisimulation' for $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ in the same way as for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$.
Proposition 5. $\approx^{h}$ is a congruence for $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$.
Proof. Similar to the proof of Proposition 3.
In comparison to $\mu \mathrm{CML}$, this equivalence has some pleasant mathematical properties. In particular we can define a category of $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ terms, where:

- objects are $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ types,
- morphisms from $A$ to $B$ are expressions with one free variable $x: A \vdash e: B$ viewed up to higher-order weak bisimulation $\approx^{h^{\circ}}$,
- the identity morphism is $x: A \vdash x: A$, and
- morphism composition is substitution: $(x: A \vdash e: B) ;(y: B \vdash f: C)$ is $x: A \vdash f[e / y]: C$.
This category has binary products $A * B$ with projections:

$$
x: A * B \vdash x . l: A \quad x: A * B \vdash x . r: B
$$

and mediating morphism:

$$
\frac{x: A \vdash e: B \quad x: A \vdash f: C}{x: A \vdash\langle e, f\rangle: B * C}
$$

To verify that these satisfy the defining property for products we have to show that (whenever $\Gamma \vdash g: A * B$ ):

$$
\pi\langle e, f\rangle \approx^{h} e
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi^{\prime}\langle e, f\rangle & \approx^{h} f \\
g & \approx^{h}\left\langle\pi g, \pi^{\prime} g\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

The category has an initial object unit with mediating morphism:

$$
x: A \vdash(): \text { unit }
$$

since (whenever $\Gamma \vdash e$ : unit):

$$
e \approx^{h}()
$$

The category has monad given by the _comp type constructor with action on morphisms given by:

$$
\frac{x: A \vdash e: B}{y: A \operatorname{comp} \vdash \operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow y \text { in }[e]: B \operatorname{comp}}
$$

and strict monadic structure given by natural transformations:

$$
\begin{gathered}
x: A \vdash[x]: A \operatorname{comp} \\
x: A \operatorname{compcomp} \vdash \text { let } y \Leftarrow x \operatorname{in} y: A \operatorname{comp} \\
x: A *(B \operatorname{comp}) \vdash \text { let } y \Leftarrow x \cdot \operatorname{rin}[\langle x . l, y\rangle]:(A * B) \operatorname{comp}
\end{gathered}
$$

since (whenever $\Gamma \vdash e: A$ comp, $\Gamma, x: A \vdash f: B$ comp, $\Gamma, y: B \vdash g: C$ comp and $x, y \notin \Gamma)$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { let } x \Leftarrow[e] \operatorname{in} f \approx^{h} f[e / x] \\
\text { let } x \Leftarrow e \operatorname{in}[x] \approx^{h} e \\
\text { let } y \Leftarrow \operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow e \text { in } f \text { in } g \approx^{h} \text { let } x \Leftarrow e \text { inlet } y \Leftarrow f \text { in } g
\end{gathered}
$$

This category has all _ comp exponentials given by $A \rightarrow B$ comp with the currying adjunction given by:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{x: A * B \vdash e: C \text { comp }}{y: A \vdash \mathrm{fn} z \Rightarrow \operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow[\langle y, z\rangle] \operatorname{in} e: B \rightarrow C \operatorname{comp}} \\
\frac{x: A \vdash e: B \rightarrow C \operatorname{comp}}{y: A * B \vdash \operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow[y . I] \operatorname{ine}(y . r): C}
\end{gathered}
$$

since (whenever $\Gamma, x: A \vdash e: B$ comp, $\Gamma \vdash f: A$ and $\Gamma \vdash g: A \rightarrow B$ comp):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (f n x \Rightarrow e) f \approx^{h} e[x / f] \\
& \mathrm{fn} x \Rightarrow(g x) \approx^{h} g
\end{aligned}
$$

The categorical structure of $\mu$ CMML is based on Moggi's (1991) general theory of computation types, and is discussed further in (Jeffrey 1995a; Jeffrey 1995b).

In order to prove the above bisimulations, we need to show some properties about the labelled transition systems produced by $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ programs. In partic-
$\angle 4$
ular we require the lts to be value deterministic:

single-valued:

forward commutative:

and backward commutative:


From these properties we can show that:

$$
\text { if } e \xrightarrow{\checkmark f} e^{\prime} \text { then } e \approx^{h} e^{\prime} \|[f]
$$

which is used in proving the above bisimulations.

## 4 Translating CML to CMML

As we have seen, the operational semantics for $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ is more complex than that of $\mu$ CMML, since terms of any type can reduce. However, in this section we shall show that there is a translation from $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$into $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$, and that the translation is correct up to weak bisimulation.
4.1 The translation

This translation is based on Moggi's (1991) translation of the call-by-value $\lambda$ calculus into the computational $\lambda$-calculus.

$$
\begin{aligned}
T \llbracket \mathrm{bool} \rrbracket & =\mathrm{bool} \\
T \llbracket \mathrm{chan} \rrbracket & =\mathrm{chan} \\
T \llbracket \mathrm{int} \rrbracket & =\mathrm{int} \\
T \llbracket \mathrm{unit} \rrbracket & =\text { unit } \\
T \llbracket A * B \rrbracket & =T \llbracket A \rrbracket * T \llbracket B \rrbracket \\
T \llbracket A->B \rrbracket & =T \llbracket A \rrbracket \rightarrow T \llbracket B \rrbracket \mathrm{comp} \\
T \llbracket A \text { event } \rrbracket & =T \llbracket A \rrbracket \mathrm{comp}
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 17. Translation of $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$types into $\mu \mathrm{CML}$
First, we translate each $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$type $A$ into an $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ type $T \llbracket A \rrbracket$. The only tricky question is how to translate the function space $A \rightarrow B$. Moggi has proposed $A$ comp $\rightarrow B$ comp for the call-by-name translation (where functions take computations as arguments) and $A \rightarrow B$ comp for the call-by-value translation (where functions take canonical forms as arguments). Since $\mu$ CML is a call-by-value language, we shall use the latter translation. This is given in Table 17, and can be extended to contexts:

$$
T \llbracket x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n} \rrbracket=x_{1}: T \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket, \ldots, x_{n}: T \llbracket A_{n} \rrbracket
$$

The trick for translating $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$terms into $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ terms is to provide two translations:

- translate $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$values $\Gamma \vdash v: A$
into $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ expressions $T \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \vdash V \llbracket \mathrm{v} \rrbracket: T \llbracket A \rrbracket$, and
- translate $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$expressions $\Gamma \vdash e: A$
into $\mu$ CMML computations $T \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \vdash E \llbracket e \rrbracket: T \llbracket A \rrbracket$ comp.
This reflects the intuition that any expression in $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$can perform computation, whereas in $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ only terms of type $A$ comp can compute. The two translations are given in Tables 18 and 19.

Note that most of the $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$expressions have the same form, which is to evaluate their argument in a let-expression before continuing. This corresponds to the notion that $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$is a call-by-value language, where expressions are evaluated to canonical form before being manipulated.

For example, the translation of cell is given in Table 20, where to save space we have used the fact that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E \llbracket \operatorname{send}_{A} e \rrbracket & \approx^{h} \text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \operatorname{in} x . I!x . r \\
E \llbracket \operatorname{accept}_{A} e \rrbracket & \approx^{h} \text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \operatorname{in} x ?
\end{aligned}
$$

This translation is almost unreadable, and very inefficient, but we can use $\beta$ -

$$
\begin{aligned}
V \llbracket \mathrm{true} \rrbracket & =\text { true } \\
V \llbracket \mathrm{false} \rrbracket & =\text { false } \\
V \llbracket n \rrbracket & =n \\
V \llbracket k \rrbracket & =k \\
V \llbracket() \rrbracket & =() \\
V \llbracket\langle v, w\rangle \rrbracket & =\langle V \llbracket v \rrbracket, V \llbracket \mathrm{~F} \rrbracket\rangle \\
V \llbracket \mathrm{rec} x=\mathrm{fn} y=>\mathrm{e} \rrbracket & =\mathrm{rec} x=\mathrm{fn} y \Rightarrow E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \\
V \llbracket x \rrbracket & =x \\
V \llbracket[g e \rrbracket \rrbracket & =E \llbracket \mathrm{ge} \rrbracket
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 18. Translation of $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$values into $\mu \mathrm{CML}$
reduction to remove some extraneous lets:

Then associativity gives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
V \llbracket \operatorname{cell} \rrbracket \approx & { }^{h} \text { rec } x_{1}=\mathrm{fn} x_{2} \Rightarrow \\
& \operatorname{let} x_{10} \Leftarrow x_{2} . l ? \\
& \text { in let } x_{8} \Leftarrow\left[\left\langle x_{2} . r, x_{10}\right\rangle\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { in let } x_{6} \Leftarrow x_{8} . \mid!x_{8} . r
$$

$$
\text { in let } x_{5} \Leftarrow\left[\left\langle x_{6}, x_{2}\right\rangle\right]
$$

$$
\text { inlet } x_{4} \Leftarrow\left[x_{5} . r\right] \text { in } x_{1} x_{4}
$$

So further use of $\beta$-reduction gives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
V \llbracket \operatorname{cell}] \approx^{h} & \text { rec } x_{1}=\mathrm{fn} x_{2} \Rightarrow \\
& \operatorname{let} x_{10} \Leftarrow x_{2} . l ? \\
& \text { in let } x_{6} \Leftarrow x_{2} \cdot \mathrm{r}!x_{10}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\operatorname{in} x_{1} x_{2}
$$

and since (up to $\alpha$-conversion) this is the definition of cell, we have

$$
V \llbracket \operatorname{cell} \rrbracket \approx^{h} \mathrm{cell}
$$

This example shows that it is easy to perform syntactic manipulations on $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ expressions to drastically reduce them in size, and improve their effi-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V \llbracket \operatorname{cell}] \approx^{h} \operatorname{rec} x_{1}=\mathrm{fn} x_{2} \Rightarrow \\
& \text { let } x_{4} \Leftarrow \operatorname{let} x_{5} \Leftarrow \operatorname{let} x_{6} \Leftarrow \text { let } x_{8} \Leftarrow \text { let } x_{10} \Leftarrow x_{2} . \operatorname{l?} \operatorname{in}\left[\left\langle x_{2} . r, x_{10}\right\rangle\right] \\
& \text { in } x_{8} . I!x_{8} . r \\
& \operatorname{in}\left[\left\langle x_{6}, x_{2}\right\rangle\right] \\
& \text { in }\left[x_{5} . r\right] \\
& \text { in } x_{1} x_{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E \llbracket v \rrbracket=[V \llbracket v \rrbracket] \\
& E \llbracket \mathrm{fst} \mathrm{e}]=\operatorname{let} x \in E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \mathrm{in}[x .1] \\
& E \llbracket \text { snd } \mathrm{e} \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \in E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \text { in }[x . \mathrm{r}] \\
& E \llbracket \text { add } \mathrm{e} \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \in E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { in add } x \\
& E \llbracket \mathrm{mule} \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \mathrm{inmul} x \\
& E \llbracket l \mathrm{eq} \mathrm{e} \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \text { in leq } x \\
& E \llbracket \operatorname{transmit}_{A} \mathrm{e} \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { in }\left[x .!!_{T \llbracket A]} X \cdot r\right] \\
& E \llbracket \text { receive }_{A} \mathrm{e} \rrbracket=\text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \text { in }\left[x ?_{T}[\llbracket A]\right. \\
& E \llbracket \text { choose } \mathrm{e} \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \in E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \text { in }[x . \mid \square \times . \mathrm{r}] \\
& E \llbracket \text { spawn } e \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { in } x() \|[(0)] \\
& E \llbracket \text { synce } \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \text { in } x \\
& E \llbracket \mathrm{wrap} \mathrm{e} \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket \mathrm{e} \rrbracket \text { in }[\text { let } y \Leftarrow x . \operatorname{lin} x . \mathrm{r} y] \\
& E \llbracket \text { never } e \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { in }[\delta] \\
& E \llbracket \text { if } e \text { then } f \text { else } g \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { inif } x \text { then } E \llbracket f \rrbracket \text { else } E \llbracket g \rrbracket \\
& E \llbracket(e, f) \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { in let } y \Leftarrow E \llbracket f \rrbracket \operatorname{in}[\langle x, y\rangle] \\
& E \llbracket \operatorname{let} x=e \operatorname{in} f \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \in E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { in } E \llbracket f \rrbracket \\
& E \llbracket e f \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e \rrbracket \text { inlet } y \in E \llbracket f \rrbracket \text { in } x y \\
& E \llbracket e\|f \rrbracket=E \llbracket e \rrbracket\| E \llbracket f \rrbracket \\
& E \llbracket v ?_{A} \rrbracket=V \llbracket v \rrbracket ?_{T \llbracket A \rrbracket} \\
& E \llbracket v!_{A} w \rrbracket=V \llbracket v \rrbracket!_{\llbracket \llbracket A T} V \llbracket \mathrm{w} \rrbracket \\
& E \llbracket \delta \rrbracket=\delta \\
& E \llbracket g e_{1} \oplus g e_{2} \rrbracket=E \llbracket g e_{1} \rrbracket \square E \llbracket g e_{2} \rrbracket \\
& E \llbracket g e \Rightarrow v \rrbracket=\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow E \llbracket g e \rrbracket \operatorname{in} V \llbracket v \rrbracket x
\end{aligned}
$$

TABLE 19. Translation of $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$expressions into $\mu \mathrm{CML}$
$\begin{aligned} & V \llbracket \operatorname{cell} \rrbracket \\ & \approx^{h} \operatorname{rec} x_{1}=\operatorname{fn} x_{2} \\ & \operatorname{let} x_{3} \Leftarrow\left[x_{1}\right]\end{aligned}$
inlet $x_{4} \Leftarrow$ let $x_{5} \Leftarrow$ let $x_{6} \Leftarrow$ let $x_{8} \Leftarrow$ let $x_{9} \Leftarrow$ let $x_{11} \Leftarrow\left[x_{2}\right]$
in $\left[x_{11} \cdot \mathrm{r}\right]$
in let $x_{10} \Leftarrow$ let $x_{12} \Leftarrow$ let $x_{13} \Leftarrow\left[x_{2}\right]$ in $\left[x_{13} .1\right]$ in $x_{12}$ ?
in $\left[\left\langle x_{9}, x_{10}\right\rangle\right]$
in $x_{8} . I!x_{8} . r$
in let $x_{7} \Leftarrow\left[x_{2}\right]$
in $\left[\left\langle x_{6}, x_{7}\right\rangle\right]$
in $\left[x_{5} . r\right]$
in $x_{3} x_{4}$
TABLE 20. Example translation of $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$into $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$
ciency. This suggests that $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ may be a suitable virtual machine language for a $\mu$ CML compiler, where verifiable peephole optimizations can be performed.

### 4.2 Correctness of the translation

We will now show that the translation of $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$into $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ is correct up to bisimulation. We will do this by defining an appropriate notion of weak bisimulation between $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ and $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ programs. This proof uses Milner and Sangiorgi's (1992) technique of 'bisimulation up to'.

A closed type-indexed relation between $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ and $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ is a family of relations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{R}_{A}^{e} \subseteq\{(e, e) \mid \vdash e: A, \vdash e: T \llbracket A \rrbracket \operatorname{comp}\} \\
& \mathcal{R}_{A}^{v} \subseteq\{(v, e) \mid \vdash v: A, \vdash e: T \llbracket A \rrbracket\}
\end{aligned}
$$

For any closed type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$, let its open extension $\mathcal{R}^{e o}$ be defined as:

$$
e \mathcal{R}_{\vec{X}: \vec{A}, B}^{e o} e \text { iff } e[\vec{v} / \vec{x}] \mathcal{R}_{B}^{e} e[V \llbracket \vec{v} \rrbracket / \vec{x}] \text { for all } \vdash \vec{v}: \vec{A} .
$$

A closed type-indexed relation $\mathcal{R}$ is structure-preserving iff:

- if $v \mathcal{R}_{A}^{v} e$ and $A$ is a base type then $v=e$,
- if $\left\langle v_{1}, v_{2}\right\rangle \mathcal{R}_{A_{1} * A_{2}}^{v}\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}\right\rangle$ then $v_{i} \mathcal{R}_{A_{i}}^{v} e_{i}$,
- if [ge] $\mathcal{R}_{d \text { event }}^{v} e$ then $g e \mathcal{R}_{A}^{e} e$, and
- if $v \mathcal{R}_{A->B}^{v} e$ then for all $\vdash w: A$ we have vw $\mathcal{R}_{B}^{e} e(V \llbracket w \rrbracket)$.

A closed type-indexed relation can be extended to labels as:

$$
\overline{\tau \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} \tau} \quad \frac{v \mathcal{R}_{A}^{v} e}{\sqrt{v \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} \vee e} \quad \overline{k ?_{B} \times \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} k ?_{T \llbracket B \rrbracket} x} \quad \frac{v \mathcal{R}_{B}^{v} e}{k!_{B} v \mathcal{R}_{A}^{l} k!_{T \llbracket B \rrbracket} e} .}
$$

A closed type-indexed relation between $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ and $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ is a higher-order weak bisimulation iff it is structure preserving and we can complete the following diagrams:

as


and:
$e_{1} \quad \mathcal{R}^{e}$
$l_{2}{ }_{\substack{e_{2} \\ e_{2}^{\prime}}}$
as


$\epsilon_{2}^{\prime}$

A closed type-indexed relation between $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ and $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ is a higher-order strong bisimulation up to ( $\leq$iff it is structure plete the following diagrams:

and:


An expansion on $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ (and similarly on $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ ) is a weak bisimulation $\mathcal{R}$
su
such that the following diagrams can be completed:
$\begin{array}{ccc}e_{1} & \mathcal{R} & e_{2}\end{array}$
$\downarrow$
as

| $e_{1}$ | $\mathcal{R}$ | $e_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $l_{1} \mid$ |  | $l_{2} \\|$ |
| $e_{1}^{\prime}$ | $\mathcal{R}^{\circ}$ | $e_{2}^{\prime}$ |

and:
$e_{1}$
$l_{2} \overbrace{e_{2}^{\prime}}^{e_{2}} \quad$ as $\quad \hat{l}_{1} \mid$

| $e_{1}$ | $\mathcal{R}$ | $\epsilon_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\hat{l}_{1} \mid$ |  | $l_{2}$ |
|  |  |  |
| $e_{1}^{\prime}$ | $\mathcal{R}^{\circ}$ | $e_{2}^{\prime}$ |

where $l_{1} \mathcal{R}^{l} l_{2}$
$e_{2}$
$\mathcal{R}^{\circ}$
$e_{2}^{\prime}$

Let $\lesssim$ be the largest expansion.
Proposition 6. $\lesssim$ is a precongruence on $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ and $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$.
Proof. Similar to Proposition 3.
For example, the preorder $\leq_{\beta}$ given by $\beta$-reducing in all contexts is an expansion:

$$
\overline{e f \geq_{\beta} g[f / y][e / x]}[e=(\operatorname{rec} x=\mathrm{fn} y \Rightarrow g)] \overline{\operatorname{let} x \Leftarrow[e] \operatorname{in} f \geq_{\beta} f[e / x]}
$$

$$
\overline{\text { if true then } f \text { else } g \geq_{\beta} f \quad \overline{\text { if false then } f \text { else } g \geq_{\beta} g} . \bar{z}}
$$

$$
\overline{e \geq_{\beta} e} \quad \frac{e \geq_{\beta} f \geq_{\beta} g}{e \geq_{\beta} g} \quad \frac{e \geq_{\beta} f}{C[e] \geq_{\beta} C[f]}
$$

Proposition 7. If $e \leq_{\beta} f$ then $e \lesssim f$.
Proof. Show that each of the axioms forms an expansion. The result then follows from Proposition 6.

We can use the proof technique of strong bisimulation up to $(\leq, \sqsubseteq)$ to show that the translation from $\mu \mathrm{CML}$ to $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ forms a weak bisimulation.
Proposition 8. Any strong bisimulation up to $(\gtrsim, \lesssim)$ is a weak bisimulation.
Proof. An adaptation of the results in (Sangiorgi and Milner 1992).
Proposition 9. The translation of $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$into $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ is a strong bisimulation up to $\left(\geq_{\beta}, \leq_{\beta}\right)$.
Proof. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be:

$$
\mathcal{R}_{A}^{e}=\{(e, E \llbracket e \rrbracket) \mid \vdash e: A\} \quad \mathcal{R}_{A}^{v}=\{(v, V \llbracket v \rrbracket) \mid \vdash v: A\}
$$

and let $L \llbracket l \rrbracket$ be the extension of the translation to labels:

$$
\begin{aligned}
L \llbracket \tau \rrbracket & =\tau & L \llbracket \checkmark v \rrbracket & =\checkmark V \llbracket v \rrbracket \\
L \llbracket k!_{A} v \rrbracket & =k!_{T \llbracket A \rrbracket} V \llbracket v \rrbracket & L \llbracket k ?_{A} x \rrbracket & =k ?_{T \llbracket A \rrbracket}
\end{aligned}
$$

First show that the translation respects substitution of values, that is:

$$
E \llbracket(e[v / x]) \rrbracket=E \llbracket e \rrbracket[V \llbracket v \rrbracket / x]
$$

Next show by induction on ge that if ge $\xrightarrow{l}$ e then $l$ is an input or output label.
Then show that for any $\vdash e: A$, if $e \xrightarrow{l} e^{\prime}$ then $E \llbracket e \rrbracket \xrightarrow{L \llbracket l]_{3}} \geq_{\beta} E \llbracket f^{\prime} \rrbracket$ and $e^{\prime} \geq_{\beta} f^{\prime}$. This is an induction on the proof of reduction, for example if:

$$
\frac{g e \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} e^{\prime}}{g e \Rightarrow v \xrightarrow{\alpha} v e^{\prime}}
$$

where $v=\operatorname{rec} y=\operatorname{fn} z \Rightarrow g$ then by induction:

$$
E \llbracket g e \rrbracket \xrightarrow{L \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket} \geq_{\beta} E \llbracket f^{\prime} \rrbracket \quad e^{\prime} \geq_{\beta} f^{\prime}
$$

and so:

$$
\begin{aligned}
E \llbracket g e & \Rightarrow v \rrbracket \\
& \overline{\bar{\omega}} \text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket g e \rrbracket \operatorname{in} V \llbracket v \rrbracket x \\
\xrightarrow[L \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket]{\geq} & \geq_{\beta} \text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket f^{\prime} \rrbracket \operatorname{in} V \llbracket v \rrbracket x \\
& \geq \beta \quad \text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket f^{\prime} \rrbracket \operatorname{in} E \llbracket g \rrbracket[x / z][V \llbracket v \rrbracket / y] \\
& =E \llbracket \text { let } z=f^{\prime} \operatorname{in} g[v / y] \rrbracket
\end{aligned}
$$

and:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& v e^{\prime} \\
& \quad \geq_{\beta} v f^{\prime} \\
& \quad \geq_{\beta} \text { let } z=f^{\prime} \text { in } g[v / y]
\end{aligned}
$$

The other cases are similar.
Then show that for any $\vdash e: A$, if $E \llbracket e \rrbracket \xrightarrow{l_{2}} e^{\prime}$ then $e \xrightarrow{l_{1}} \geq_{\beta} e^{\prime}, L \llbracket l_{1} \rrbracket=l_{2}$ and $e^{\prime} \geq_{\beta} E \llbracket e^{\prime} \rrbracket$. This is an induction on $e$, for example if:

$$
\frac{E \llbracket g e \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\alpha_{1}} e^{\prime}}{E \llbracket g e \Rightarrow v \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\alpha_{2}} \text { let } x \Leftarrow e^{\prime} \operatorname{in} V \llbracket v \rrbracket x}
$$

where $v=\operatorname{rec} y=\operatorname{fn} z=>g$ then by induction:

$$
g e \xrightarrow{\alpha_{1}} \geq_{\beta} e^{\prime} \quad L \llbracket \alpha_{1} \rrbracket=\alpha_{2} \quad e^{\prime} \geq_{\beta} E \llbracket e^{\prime} \rrbracket
$$

and so:

$$
\begin{aligned}
g e & \Rightarrow v \\
\xrightarrow{\Rightarrow} v & { }^{\alpha_{1}} \\
& v^{\prime} \\
& \geq^{\prime} \quad \text { let } z=e^{\prime} \text { ing } g[v / y]
\end{aligned}
$$

s
and:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { let } x \Leftarrow e^{\prime} \text { in } V \llbracket v \rrbracket x \\
& \quad \geq_{\beta} \text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e^{\prime} \rrbracket \operatorname{in} V \llbracket v \rrbracket x \\
& \quad \geq_{\beta} \text { let } x \Leftarrow E \llbracket e^{\prime} \rrbracket \operatorname{in} E \llbracket g \rrbracket[x / z][V \llbracket v \rrbracket / y] \\
& \left.\quad=E \llbracket \text { let } z=e^{\prime} \operatorname{ing} g v / y\right] \rrbracket
\end{aligned}
$$

The other cases are similar.
Proposition 10. e is weakly bisimilar to $E \llbracket e \rrbracket$.
Proof. Follows from Propositions 7, 8 and 9.
It follows from this that weak bisimulation for $\mu \mathrm{CMML}$ is at least as fine as weak bisimulation for $\mu \mathrm{CML}^{+}$.
Proposition 11. If $E \llbracket e \rrbracket \approx^{h} E \llbracket f \rrbracket$ then $e \approx^{h} f$.
Proof. Follows immediately from Proposition 10.
However, note that the translation is not necessarily fully abstract, in that we have not shown that this implication is an 'if and only if'. This is because the bisimulation is higher-order, and the clause for bisimulation between functions requires the functions to agree on all arguments, not just ones which are the image of $E \llbracket-\rrbracket$.

## References

Ferreira, W., M. Hennessy, and A. Jeffrey (1995). A theory of weak bisimulation for core CML. COGS Comp. Sci. Tech. Report 05/95, Univ. Sussex.

Gordon, A. (1995). Bisimilarity as a theory of functional programming. In Proc. MFPS 95, Number 1 in Electronic Notes in Comp. Sci. SpringerVerlag.
Gordon, A. et al. (1994). A proposal for monadic I/O in Haskell 1.3. WWW document, Haskell 1.3 Committee, http://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/users/adg/io.html.
Hoare, C. A. R. (1985). Communicating Sequential Processes. Prentice-Hall.
Howe, D. (1989). Equality in lazy computation systems. In Proc. LICS 89, pp. 198-203.

Jeffrey, A. (1995a). A fully abstract semantics for a concurrent functional language with monadic types. In Proc. LICS 95, pp. 255-264.
Jeffrey, A. (1995b). A fully abstract semantics for a nondeterministic functional language with monadic types. In Proc. MFPS 95, Electronic Notes in Comput. Sci. Elsevier.

Lambek, J. and P. J. Scott (1986). Introduction to Higher Order Categorical Logic. Cambridge University Press.

Milner, R. (1989). Communication and Concurrency. Prentice-Hall.
Milner, R., J. Parrow, and D. Walker (1992). A calculus of mobile proceses. Inform. and Comput. 100(1), 1-77.
Milner, R., M. Tofte, and R. Harper (1990). The Definition of Standard ML. MIT Press.

Moggi, E. (1991). Notions of computation and monad. Inform. and Comput. 93, 55-92.

Reppy, J. (1991). A higher-order concurrent langauge. In Proc. SIGPLAN 91, pp. 294-305.
Reppy, J. (1992). Higher-Order Concurrency. Ph.D thesis, Cornell Univ.
Sangiorgi, D. and R. Milner (1992). Techniques of 'weak bisimulation up to'. In Proc. CONCUR 92. Springer Verlag. LNCS 630.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ In this example, and in others, we have 'garbage collected' some empty processes by treating \|| as an associative operation with left unit $\delta$. These equivalences are correct up to strong bisimulation.

