Concurrency And Races
In Classical Linear Logic

Zesen Qian

PhD Dissertation

Department of Computer Science
Aarhus University
Denmark
Concurrency And Races
In Classical Linear Logic

A Dissertation
Presented to the Faculty of Natural Sciences
of Aarhus University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the PhD Degree

by
Zesen Qian
August 30, 2022
Abstract

Recent works have extended the successful Proposition-As-Types correspondence to concurrent computing in the form of a tight correspondence between linear logic and process calculus. In particular, linear logic propositions are equated with session types. Process calculi based on the tight correspondence derive from linear logic good properties such as deadlock-freedom and session fidelity. On the other hand, however, those calculi are usually poor in expressivity. They are usually deterministic and lack common concurrency features such as threads and shared states, and can thus barely model real-world concurrency. Following works proposed systems with stronger expressivity but usually at the cost of deviating from the correspondence and introducing bad behaviors. The present thesis, on the other hand, seeks non-determinism within the framework of linear logic, which can be introduced to the system without compromising the logical structure and thus the good properties. We found two such examples of non-determinism of interest. One is between clients and a server, where clients race to be accepted by the server. The other one is between effectful computations and an effect handler, where multiple computations race to emit effects to be dealt with by the handler. We formulate two extensions based on the two examples. Our extensions are further strengthened by least and greatest fixed points so that variable quantities can be supported, including variable numbers of clients, variable numbers of effects in a computation, and variable numbers of racing computations. Good properties such as deadlock-freedom are proved, and several examples are given to demonstrate the expressivity of our extensions.
Resumé

I denne afhandling foreslår og studerer vi en ny korrespondence mellem lineær logik og nye type systemer for process kalkuler, der modellerer programmeringssprog med parallele beregninger. De nye type systemer indfanger flere vigtige features i process kalkuler, herunder ikke-determinisme og effekter, og den tætte korrespondence med liner logik betyder, at type systemerne giver nogle gode garantier for hvorledes veltype process udtryk opfører sig, når de bliver evalueret. For eksempel garanteres det at evaluering ikke vil lede til deadlock.
Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I want to thank my supervisor Lars Birkedal for his guidance on not only research but also soft skills throughout my PhD studies, skills that will be of great value whether in academia or industry. I also want to extend a big thanks to Alex Kavvos for a long and fruitful collaboration. Although Alex did not officially supervise me, he provided numerous advice and guidance, and deeply influenced my PhD studies. I also want to thank Fabrizio Montesi and Marco Peressotti for hosting me at SDU and the successful collaboration.

I also want to extend my gratitude to the people that helped and encouraged me during my early studies. In particular, I want to thank Yubin Xia for introducing me into computer systems, and Steve Awodey and Anders Mörtberg for introducing me into the mathematical side of type theory.

Finally, a big thanks goes to my friends and family who have supported me during my studies. I thank you all for the casual chats we had over lunch, coffee and zoom — they were vital distractions to ride out difficult times.

Zesen Qian,
Aarhus, August 30, 2022.
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resumé</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acknowledgments</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Overview</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>A Brief History of Proofs as Processes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Proposals</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Related Works</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Future Works</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Client-Server Sessions in Linear Logic</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1</td>
<td>The Problem</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2</td>
<td>Roadmap</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Exponentials, Fixed Points, and Coexponentials</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1</td>
<td>Exponentials as Fixed Points</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2</td>
<td>Deriving Coexponentials</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3</td>
<td>Exponentials vs. Coexponentials under Mix and Binary Cuts</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Processes</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1</td>
<td>; Means Client, ¡ Means Server</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2</td>
<td>Design Decision #1: Server State and The Strong Rules</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3</td>
<td>Design Decision #2: Replacing Trees with Lists</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.4</td>
<td>Design Decision #3: Nondeterminism through Permutation</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.5</td>
<td>Introducing CS::</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.6</td>
<td>Operational Semantics and Metatheory</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>An example: Compare-and-Set</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>A session-typed language for client-server programming</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.1</td>
<td>Source Language and the Translation</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.2</td>
<td>Functional Data Structure Server</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.3</td>
<td>Nondeterminism</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# CONTENTS

2.4.4 Fork–Join Parallelism ........................................... 42
2.5.5 Keynes’ Beauty Contest ........................................ 43
2.6 Related work ......................................................... 46

## Appendices

2.A Coexponentials and Logical equivalences ......................... 49
2.B Translation of CSGV to CSLL: Omitted rules ..................... 50
2.C CSLL: Metatheoretic Proofs ...................................... 53
2.D More Examples ...................................................... 62
   2.D.1 Compare-And-Set ............................................. 62
   2.D.2 List Shuffling ................................................ 63
   2.D.3 Merge Sort .................................................... 64
   2.D.4 Map-Reduce ................................................... 64
   2.D.5 Interleaving clients .......................................... 65
   2.D.6 Symbol Generator ............................................ 66

3 Concurrent Effects in Linear Logic ............................. 67
   3.1 Introduction ..................................................... 67
   3.2 Base system ...................................................... 70
   3.3 Classical Effects .............................................. 76
   3.4 Races ............................................................. 83
      3.4.1 Deterministic Sharing .................................... 83
      3.4.2 Non-deterministic Sharing ............................... 84
   3.5 Synchronization ................................................ 87
   3.6 Metatheory ....................................................... 89
   3.7 Concurrent Effectful GV ..................................... 90
   3.8 Related and future Work ..................................... 100

## Appendices

3.A πLL, full specification ............................................. 103
3.B Omitted content of CELL ........................................ 107
3.C Omitted metatheoretic proofs .................................. 114
3.D Omitted content of CEGV ...................................... 123
1.1 A Brief History of Proofs as Processes

The Early Days  Ever since its inception, linear logic [Girard, 1987a] was believed to have deep connections with concurrency. This was motivated by the comparison with intuitionistic logic. Recall that in the latter, judgements have the form

\[ \Gamma \vdash A \]

where \( \Gamma \) is the set of assumptions and \( A \) is the conclusion; they are not symmetric and are obviously directional: the information flows from the assumptions to the conclusion. As a result, in usual computational interpretations, a proof of \( \Gamma \vdash A \) is interpreted as a program where \( \Gamma \) is inputs and \( A \) is output. In addition, the cut rule

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Delta, A \vdash B}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash B}
\]

is interpreted as using the output of the first program as the input of the second program.

In contrast, judgements in linear logic has the form

\[ \vdash A_0, \cdots, A_n \]

which is single sided, and all formulas \( A_i \) are symmetric, in the sense that there is no distinguished member. The corresponding cut rule is

\[
\frac{\vdash \Gamma, A \quad \vdash \Delta, A^\perp}{\vdash \Gamma, \Delta}
\]

Note that in linear logic we have \( A^{\perp \perp} = A \), and thus \( A \) and \( A^\perp \) are symmetric; therefore, the two premises are symmetric. One can still rewrite the two premises to

\[ \vdash \Gamma^\perp \vdash A \quad \vdash A \vdash \Delta \]
and interpret the first as a program converting $\Gamma \perp$ to $A$, and the second as a program converting $A$ to $\Delta$. However, this is certainly less than ideal as it ruins the nice symmetry of linear logic. A natural interpretation that reflects the symmetry is to be found.

Girard [1987b, 1989] suggested a connection between linear logic and concurrency in the same style of the hugely successful connection between intuitionistic logic and functional programming (i.e. Proposition-As-Types). The idea was made concrete by Abramsky [1994] and Bellin and Scott [1994], who established the first interpretation of proofs as processes in the $\pi$-calculus [Milner et al., 1992]. The details are as follows. First of all, formulas in sequents are given names:

$$\vdash x_0 : A_0, \cdots, x_n : A_n$$

which induces named versions of proof rules. For example the named cut rule would be

$$\vdash \Gamma, x : A \quad \vdash \Delta, y : A^\perp \quad \vdash \Gamma, \Delta$$

The names are useful for the next step, which is to inductively interpet each linear logic (named) proof as a $\pi$-calculus term, where the free names of the proof matches the free names of the term. Therefore, propositions map to sessions, and derivations of proofs map to construction of processes. In particular, the above named cut rule is interpreted as putting $P$ and $Q$ in parallel and connecting $x$ and $y$, where $P$ and $Q$ are the processes of the two premises. Note that the free names of a $\pi$-process term are symmetric: there is no ‘distinguished’ port for ‘output’; also note that when interpreting the cut rule $P$ and $Q$ are treated equally. The new interpretation seems to reflect the most distinctive feature of linear logic in comparison to intuitionistic logic.

The new interpretation, however, only uses a significantly small subset of $\pi$-calculus terms. In particular, $A \otimes B$ maps to sending a pair of types $A$ and $B$, and $A \oslash B$ maps to receiving. This is a severe restriction on canonical $\pi$-calculus, where processes can send and receive any terms. Moreover, this restriction can hardly be motivated from a logical perspective. In summary, the correspondence is not as tight as desired.

The Twist. An attempt at the previous problem came sixteen years later when Caires and Pfenning [2010] discovered that intuitionistic linear propositions can be interpreted as session types [Honda, 1993, Honda et al., 1998]. $A \otimes B$ is interpreted as sending $A$ and continuing as $B$, while $A \oslash B$ as receiving $A$ and continuing as $B$. The system (called $\pi$DILL) is based on internal $\pi$-calculus [Sangiorgi, 1996] which is though just as expressive [Booreale, 1998] as canonical $\pi$-calculus. In internal $\pi$-calculus, processes cannot send any names freely, but only freshly generated ones. In some sense, the
1.1. A BRIEF HISTORY OF PROOFS AS PROCESSES

sending operation is the binder of the fresh name whose scope is the continuation. To understand, consider the reduction rules for sending and receiving in canonical $\pi$-calculus and in internal $\pi$-calculus respectively:

$$\nu z \,(z(x).P \mid z[y].Q) \rightarrow \nu z \,(P[y/x] \mid Q)$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(canonical)}

$$\nu z \,(z(x).P \mid z[y].Q) \rightarrow \nu z \nu y \,(P[y/x] \mid Q)$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(internal)}

In canonical $\pi$-calculus, $z[y]$ sends existing $y$ over $z$, which is then received by $z(x)$. In particular, $y$ is free on both sides. In internal $\pi$-calculus, $z[y]$ binds the name $y$ and sends it over $x$ which is received by $z(x)$. In particular, $y$ is bound on both sides: on the left by $z[y]$ and on the right by $\nu y$. The restriction of sending and receiving pairs are apparently removed at the cost of deviation from canonical $\pi$-calculus.

The work has still some shortcomings. First of all, while connections to session types is made, the system is based on intuitionistic linear logic which is a constrained version of classical linear logic and lacks duality; it is similar to the relation between intuitionistic logic an classical logic. As a result, the duality between session types has no correspondence in their system. Duality is a central element of session types, and the lack of it severely undermines the attempts to relate session types.

Wadler [2014] solves the issue by adapting the correspondence to classical linear logic. With the duality recovered, linear logic types now tightly corresponds to session types, and also the system is more concise and symmetric. The system is called Classical Process (CP) and will be the base for most following works. The system (and its derivatives) is so minimalistic, however, that the user is left to code the basic building blocks, which becomes cumbersome quickly. To remedy, the author introduced a higher-level language inspired by Gay and Vasconcelos [2010]. Its semantics is given as translations to CP, from which nice properties would be easily inherited. In addition to common building blocks such as functional programming, it also contains explicit session programming backed by the interpretation of linear logic types as session types. For example, one can send and receive over sessions:

$$\vdash \text{send} : A \rightarrow (!A.B) \rightarrow B$$

$$\vdash \text{recv} : ?A.B \rightarrow A \otimes B$$

\text{send} takes two arguments, the datum to send typed $A$, and the session over which the datum will be send. The session is typed $!A.B$ the session can be used to send $A$ and will continue as $B$; indeed, $B$ is the return type of \text{send}. \text{recv} takes a session which is typed $?A.B$ meaning the session can be used to receive a datum typed $A$ and will continue as $B$, which is confirmed by the return type of \text{recv} which is a pair of the newly received datum and the rest of the session.

CP is also more tightly connected to linear logic compared to previous works. Both Bellin and Scott [1994] and Caires and Pfenning [2010] translate
linear logic to \( \pi \)-calculus, and correspondingly cut-elimination to reduction. However, as Wadler [2014] observed this is achieved at costs. The first issue is about the axiom rule, which is intuitively a bidirectional forwarder between two sessions of dual types. Bellin and Scott [1994] restricted the type to be atoms, because forwarding composite sessions would require an ad-hoc complex processes. Indeed, this was implemented in Caires and Pfenning [2010], prop 4.2. Wadler [2014] solved this issue by giving the axiom rule a special and uniform semantics: if a session \( x \) of process \( P \) communicates with the session \( y \) of the forwarder \( y \leftrightarrow z \), then all occurrences of \( x \) in \( P \) are replaced by \( z \).

Another issue is that of commuting conversions. In canonical \( \pi \)-calculus, a process is understood as a sequence of actions that need to fire in order. However, cut elimination of linear logic when translated to \( \pi \)-calculus involves sometimes earlier actions in a process firing later. Caires and Pfenning [2010] forbids those commuting conversions to stay close to \( \pi \)-calculus while deviates from linear logic; [Wadler, 2014] on the other hand ‘let linear logic guide the design of process calculus’, and adopted those commuting conversions. For example consider the following rule:

\[
\nu z (x[y], (P | Q) | R) \rightarrow x[y], (\nu z (P | R) | Q)
\]

where \( P \) and \( R \) communicates via \( z \). In canonical \( \pi \)-calculus, the left hand side would just block, because there does not exist another process that receives on \( x \). This is however not acceptable in CP, because the term corresponds to a proof with top-level cut, and proofs should satisfy cut-elimination. Therefore, we must make the left hand side reduce, and in the way that corresponds to how cuts are eliminated. To that end, the above rule is introduced to CP corresponding to a rule in linear logic.

The reason why commuting conversion is needed in linear logic, is that all reduction rules have a form where the reacting actions are immediately under the restriction. In the above rule we see on the left hand side \( P \) clearly blocked by \( x[y] \), and thus cannot use the reduction rules. The rule solves the issue by moving the cut lower so that it restricts both and only \( P \) and \( R \). Note that the first actions of \( P \) and \( R \) might still not be on \( z \), in which case more commuting conversions will be performed. This happens repeatedly until they meet the requirement of a reduction rule, upon which two dual actions on \( z \) will react. Note that the action \( x[y] \) stays put and not fired, giving the impression that this action, while appears earlier in the process, fires later. This might seem strange for \( \pi \)-calculus people; however, Wadler [2014] pointed out that the close connections to linear logic immediately gives progress and termination of CP, just like how that of simply typed lambda calculus follows immediately from intuitionistic logic.

**A New Era** In addition to actions firing out-of-order, there were a few other important mismatches between processes and linear logic remaining in
the syntax and semantics. Most notably, parallel composition had no direct
correspondence to a rule in the sequent calculus of linear logic. Carbone
et al. [2018] proposed that parallel composition corresponds to composing
hypersequents [Avron, 1991] which are collections of sequents. In contrast
to previous works, in this setting each process might have multiple disjoint
components, corresponding to the multiple sequents in its hypersequents.
As a result, composing processes corresponds to composing hypersequents:

\[
\frac{P \vdash G \quad Q \vdash H}{P \mid Q \vdash G \mid H}
\]

The rule on the right is the nullary version giving the empty process typed by
empty hypersequents just for completeness. Some rules such as cut can be
thought as having parallel composition baked-in, and can now be decoupled
using hypersequents:

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \mid \Delta, y : A^\perp}{\nu xy P \vdash \Gamma, \Delta}
\]

Hypersequents further enabled the reconstruction of the expected la-
belled transition system (LTS) semantics [Montesi and Peressotti, 2018],
an explanation of the hypersequent-based approach in linear logic [Kokke
et al., 2019a, 2018], and the expected metatheoretical results of session types
(session fidelity) and bisimilarity [Montesi and Peressotti, 2021].

LTS can be thought as a decomposition of reduction semantics. One ob-
serves that reduction always happens between two dual actions. For example
we have the following reduction rule in CP:

\[
\nu xy (x(x'). P \mid y[y']. Q) \rightarrow \nu xy \nu x'y' (P \mid Q)
\]

which specifies the reaction between sending \((y[y'])\) and receiving \((x(x'))\).
LTS decomposes it into three rules:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{x(x'), } P & \xrightarrow{x(x')} P, \\
\text{y[y'], } Q & \xrightarrow{y[y']} Q
\end{align*}
\]

where the first rule says that a process starting with the action \(x(x')\) would
just signal the label \(x(x')\) and transition into the continuation; similar for
\(y[y']\). The first two rules concerns only actions and are thus called action
rules, while the third rule bridge them together and are called communi-
cation rule, which we now explain. In the premise, we require a process \(R\)
to be able to simultaneously signal both sending and receiving labels, which
means it must contain at least two processes ready to send and receive. One
such \(R\) would be \(x(x'). P \mid y[y']. Q\). The conclusion says that if we connect \(x\)
6 CHAPTER 1. OVERVIEW

and $y$ of $R$, the two processes would be able to communicate; moreover, the
empty label $\tau$ indicates that the communication is not observable externally,
as the sending and receiving signal 'offset' each other. One can derive the
reduction semantics from the LTS semantics, if we think of $\Rightarrow$ as reduction.

LTS has several benefits over reduction. First of all, of course, it makes
available the existing toolbox with regards to behaviours such as bisimilarity.
Secondly, as a decomposition of reduction it is finer-grained and
better-behaved in many scenarios; for example, commuting conversion is no
longer needed. Recall the above process $\nu z (x[y].(P \mid Q) \mid R)$ which requires
commuting conversion; in LTS it can simply transition as

$$\nu z (x[y].(P \mid Q) \mid R) \xrightarrow{x[y]} \nu z (P \mid Q \mid R)$$

Note that the $x[y]$ action simply fires and signals a label, and does not block
the reaction between $P$ and $R$. Similarly, LTS is capable of specifying the
semantics of primitive effects whereas reduction cannot (chapter 3).

Another benefit of LTS is that it gives a natural notion of well-behaved
programs. Recall that a program that reduces infinitely is considered bad-
behaved; however, there are also programs such as servers that reduces
infinitely but produces information for each step, which is considered well-
behaved. The distinction is usually hard to formulate, but in LTS well-
behaved processes can simply be formulated as those that keep signaling
labels until it becomes the empty process $0$, with one exception: it should
not keep signaling $\tau$-labels infinitely as that produces no information.

The problem The deep connections with linear logic ensure that the re-
sulting concurrent systems enjoy good properties such as deadlock-freedom,
session-fidelity and livelock-freedom. However, all the systems mentioned
are ‘too well-behaved’ to model the chaotic nature of real world concur-
rent systems. To be exact, they are deterministic and in particular missing
common concurrency features such as thread, shared states and locks.

1.2 Proposals

The present thesis attempts to increase the expressivity of Classical Process
systems without compromising their good behavioral properties derived from
the close connections to linear logic. To that end, we formulate concurrency
primitives in the framework of linear logic, so that concurrency-related tran-
sitions correspond to logical implications. To better understand the point,
we need to establish some intuition about linear logic connectives. Following
1.2. PROPOSALS

are (slightly modified) rules for $\otimes$ and $\otimes$:

\[
\begin{array}{cc}
\Gamma, A_0 \mid \Delta, A_1 & \Gamma, A_0 \otimes A_1 \\
\Gamma, \Delta, A_0 \otimes A_1 & \Sigma, A_0 \perp A_1 \\
\end{array}
\]

For $\otimes$, in the premise $A_0$ and $A_1$ come from two sequents; recall that sequents in a hypersequent are disjoint from each other. For the dual rule, $A_0^\perp$ and $A_1^\perp$ come from the same sequents and are thus connected.

Server/Client One could cut $A_0 \otimes A_1$ and $A_0^\perp \otimes A_1^\perp$. While $A_0$ and $A_1$ are not connected directly, they are now respectively connected to $A_0^\perp$ and $A_1^\perp$ which are connected and are therefore connected indirectly now. We find this phenomenon nicely models the interaction between a client pool and a server. One can think $A_0$ and $A_1$ to be the interfaces of two clients respectively, and $A_0^\perp \otimes A_1^\perp$ to be the interfaces of the corresponding server that serves the two clients. Moreover, the analysis beforehand means that the clients are connected not directly, but indirectly via the server; this nicely fits our intuition about server/client interactions. Note that we should think $A_0$ and $A_1$ to be the same type with the subscription only for identification, which reflects that in real life server often provides the same service to several clients. We now apply the server/client interpretation to the logical implication:

\[
A_0 \otimes A_1 \rightarrow A_1 \otimes A_0
\]

and find that it swaps the ordering of two clients. Moreover, the implication is bidirectional, meaning the swapping is reversible. Note either ordering will cut with $A_0^\perp \otimes A_1^\perp$ as $A_0$ and $A_1$ are the same type. This nicely models one aspect of non-determinism of client/server interaction; namely, clients race to get accepted by the server. The idea is developed in detail in chapter 2.

Effects Consider the two dual propositions (right associative):

\[
A \otimes B^\perp \otimes C \quad A^\perp \otimes B \otimes C^\perp
\]

In the first proposition, $A$ is disjoint from both $B^\perp$ and $C$, the two of which are connected. Vice versa for the second proposition. We find this nicely models the interaction between an effectful computation and a handler, where $A$ is a request, $B$ is a response, and $C$ is the return value of the effectful computation. Most notably, the request $A$ is disjoint from the continuation $B \otimes C$, as there is no causation between them; however, once we cut the two together, the request $A$ will be connected to the continuation indirectly via the handler. That means there is causation between
request and continuation only via the handler. Apply the interpretation to the following logical implication:

\[(A_0 \otimes B_0^\perp \otimes C_0) \otimes (A_1 \otimes B_1^\perp \otimes C_1) \rightarrow A_0 \otimes B_0^\perp \otimes (C_0 \otimes (A_1 \otimes B_1^\perp \otimes C_1))\]

and we find that it propagates the effect of the first computation out of two parallel computations. There is a symmetric implication that propagates the effects of the second computation. Together the two rules allow racing for effects among two parallel computations. Moreover, both implications are unidirectional, meaning that the outcome of the race cannot be reversed. This idea is developed in detail in chapter 3.

**Fixed Points** In both server/client and effects, there are several desired generalizations in regards to quantity. In the former, one hopes that a client pool can contain any number of clients. In the latter, one hopes that an effectful computation that can emit effects any number of times; moreover, any number of effectful computations should be able to race in parallel. The apparent infinite nature of the generalized settings leads us to the concept of least and greatest fixed points, which is ubiquitous in functional programming languages and corresponds to inductive and coinductive data. They are introduced to Classical Process by Lindley and Morris [2016] and correspond to inductive and coinductive sessions. Inductive sessions are finite, while coinductive sessions are potentially infinite. The two are specified to be dual and will communicate; moreover, the communication terminates because the inductive side is finite and terminates, forcing the coinductive side to terminate as well. Our works are based on theirs, but with significant alterations along the way. First, our extensions are based on hypersequents. Second, our rules and their semantics are specialized to the particular functors, and therefore simpler. Thirdly, our semantics allow non-determinism to better model concurrency, while being logically equivalent to the original fixed points and preserving nice properties of the base system.

**1.3 Related Works**

In this section we discuss related works in general; those more particular to our work are discussed in the corresponding chapters.

**Expressivity in Classical Processes** Based on CP, GV Wadler [2014] as well as later systems [Fowler et al. 2019, Lindley and Morris 2015] allows forking of processes. However, the child process runs in isolation with a single channel connected to the parent. This is essentially a Cut and does not increase expressivity. Lindley and Morris [2016] introduces inductive and coinductive sessions to CP. It is adapted from Baelde [2012], which introduces least and greatest
fixed points to classical linear logic. A categorical semantics is given by Ehrhard and Jafarrahmani [2021]. All mentioned works including ours on least and greatest fixed point break the subformula property, as the greatest fixed point requires an internal state which could be arbitrary type and generally not a subformula of the greatest fixed point type. In another strand of work, Toninho et al. [2014] introduces coinduction in a system of session types based on Intuitionistic Linear Logic (ILL); see Lindley and Morris [2016, §§1, 7] for a comparison. Derakhshan and Pfenning [2020] gives a linear metalogic with least and greatest fixed point and proves strong progress for binary session-typed processes in the metalogic.

In addition to least and greatest fixed points, there are other ways to allow variable quantity when seeking extra expressivity. Most related works to be discussed below introduced new types with their own rules for specific use cases, and do not strictly correspond to any least and greatest fixed points. Some of them are not well-behaved, but it is unclear to what degree quantity variability contributes to that, as the systems are often coupled with non-determinism which brings chaos. In any case, in our opinion, quantity variability is not the central feature of concurrency, and we should focus on other aspects in the following discussion of related works.

Atkey et al. [2016] explores obtaining more power in CP by conflating dual connectives. Conflating $\&$ and $\oplus$ gives local non-deterministic choices which however cannot induce the racy behavior normally exhibited in the $\pi$-calculus [Kokke et al., 2019b, §2]. Conflating $?$ and $!$ gives to the notion of access point, a dynamic match-making communication service on a single endpoint. The rules look eerily close to the list-like formulation of our servers. Access points prove too powerful: they introduce stateful nondeterminism, racy communication, and general recursion. This impairs the safety of CP by introducing deadlock and livelock. Our works show that we can still safely obtain the former two features without introducing the third.

Carbone et al. [2017] introduces the standard local non-determinism into linear logic. Caires and Pérez [2017] presents a dual-context system based on CLL+Mix in which the same kind of nondeterministic local choice is expressed through a new set of modalities, $\odot$ and $\&$. These bear a similarity to the coexponential modalities presented in chapter 2, but they are used for nondeterminism instead. Their $\&$ modality has a monadic flavor, and hence can be used to encapsulate nondeterminism ‘in the monad’ in the usual manner in which we isolate effects.

Carbone et al. [2017] approaches multiparty session types through coherence proofs. The authors develop Multiparty Classical Processes, a version of CP with role annotations and the MCut rule. The latter is a version of the MultiCut rule annotated with a coherence judgment derived from Honda et al. [2016], which generalizes duality and ensures that roles match appro-

---

1This is an intentional clash with external and internal choice in Linear Logic.
10

CHAPTER 1. OVERVIEW

appropriately. MCP does not allow dynamic sessions with arbitrary numbers of participants and hence cannot model client-server interactions. MCP was later refined into the system of Globally-governed Classical Processes (GCP) by Carbone et al. [2016]. Unlike these calculi, our works do not require any consideration of coherence or local vs. global types.

Manifest sharing Close related to our work is the notion of manifest sharing [Balzer and Pfenning, 2017]. Their system is stratified into two layers, linear and shared, where the former behaves as ILL and the latter as IL. The sharing manifests in the types, in that one can tell the layer from the look of each type. Two modalities shift between the two layers [Reed, 2009] and are computationally interpreted as acquire and release. Similar to the common notion of locking, the two operations are blocking and might cause deadlocks, in particular when there are circular dependencies. Balzer et al. [2019] adds priorities to types to prevent circularity and thus recover deadlock-freedom.

Among the two extensions of ours, manifest sharing is probably closer to effects, as both allow multiple sequential accesses to the shared state. Our works attempt to solve the expressivity problem of LL-based session types beginning from Curry-Howard: we seek the minimal extension to linear logic that models client/server and effects. Unlike manifest sharing, we remain committed to CLL and its duality. As a result, our systems have simpler rules, avoid the notions of linear and shared channels, and avoid the lock-like primitives used to introduce modalities by Balzer and Pfenning [2017]. Moreover, we have remained committed to the goal of retaining the good properties ensured by cut elimination in CLL (e.g. deadlock freedom). A drawback of this approach is that our system inherits the linearity constraint from linear logic, and is thus unable to express circular structures (such as Dijkstra’s dining philosophers) without unsafe extension.

Type systems for the $\pi$-calculus There are many ways to equip the $\pi$-calculus with a type system. A large class of such systems is based on Kobayashi’s notion of channel usage [Kobayashi, 2003, 2002, 2006]. That work proceeds in the opposite direction: it begins with the $\pi$-calculus and tries to tame its expressive power through types that control the use of channels, thereby guaranteeing deadlock-freedom, lock-freedom, and so on. These systems can express some of the expected properties of client-server interaction, see e.g. Kobayashi [2003, Example 8]. Comparing these families of type systems for concurrent behavior is a difficult task, which has been undertaken by Dardha and Pérez [2015]. The main difference seems to be that our work tries to stick as closely as possible to the foundations of session types in linear logic. In addition, the usage-based type systems take a ‘channel-first’ approach, where all channels may be shared between pro-
cesses: this is in sharp contrast to session types [Kobayashi, 2003, §10]. Dardha and Gay [2018] have attempted to merge these two approaches through the formulation of Priority-based CP, a new calculus based on CLL which allows a controlled form of cyclic dependencies.

Session Types There is a nontrivial connection between our work and Multiparty Session Types [Honda et al., 2008, 2016, Coppo et al., 2016], which comprise a π-calculus and a behavioral type system specifying interaction between multiple agents. The kinds of protocols expressed by multiparty session types are ‘fully’ choreographed, and involve a fixed number of participants. As such, they cannot model interactions with an arbitrary number of clients; nor can they introduce a controlled amount of non-determinism. Some of these expressive limitations have been remedied in systems of Dynamic Multirole Session Types [Deniélou and Yoshida, 2011], which come at the price of introducing roles that parties can dynamically join or leave, and a notion of quantification over participants with a role. Our systems capture certain use-cases of roles using only tools from linear logic, with little additional complexity.

1.4 Future works

Termination and Readiness It would be interesting to establish a termination result for CSLL (chapter 2). This would prove that the resulting calculi do not generate livelock. We expect this proof to be somewhat involved, which is why most work on Linear Logic and session types either fails to produce proof or defers to Girard’s proof for CLL [Wadler 2014, Aschieri and Genco 2019]. Similarly, we want to establish readiness for CELL (chapter 3) without retry (section 3.5) by extending the proof in Montesi and Peressotti [2021]. Readiness can be understood as productivity and is more general than termination. This should not be hard, considering that the difficult part which is the quantity variability already exists in their system (namely, the exponentials).

Syntax The weak ‖ rule listed in section 2.2.2 is expressed by folding ⊗ over the set of formulas. It is less ‘native’ than the weak exponential rule where folding ⊗ can be simply represented as commas. And indeed, this big ⊗ obstructs a particular commuting conversion in cut elimination. Similarly, the presentation of the strong exponential and its computational interpretation is omitted due to its unsatisfactory rules. There are several other occurrences where sequent calculus syntax obstructs.

We believe these issues are due to the limitation of sequent calculus; in particular, a sequent is understood as a collection of formulas ⊓-together, and a hypersequent is understood as a collection of sequent ⊗-together.
and \( \otimes \) are not treated equally, although they should be dual. New syntax frameworks such as deep inference \cite{Tabella and Straßburger 2019} promised a better formulation, but our preliminary trials demand a deeper investigation.

**Additive Units** All languages in the CP family omit the additive units \((0\text{ and }\top)\); we believe they can model crashes \((\text{unrecoverable errors})\). Consider the rule for \(\top\):

\[
\text{Top} \\
\frac{}{\top, \Gamma}
\]

Or more intuitively: \(0 \rightarrow \Gamma\). One can view the above process as superficially exposing \(\Gamma, \top\) while being void internally. What happens when one tries to communicate to the \(\Gamma\)? This is given by the commutative case of cut elimination:

\[
\frac{\top, A, \Gamma}{\Gamma, \Delta, \top} \quad \frac{\top, \Delta}{\Gamma, \Delta, \top}
\]

We see that the crash propagates: \(\Delta, A^\perp\) which used to have real content, is not voided as well. We have an empty process still but with bigger types.

The fault \(\top\) once introduced cannot be hidden away: there is no rule for \(0\) to cut with \(\top\); the only way to acquire \(0\) is to use \(\text{Ax}\) rule, in which case we will just introduce another \(\top\). In terms of programming, that means one can ‘handle faults’, but the handler cannot suppress the faults: it has to be propagated. For example, we can have a type of term \((\top \oplus 2) \rightarrow (\top \oplus 2)\) which takes a possibly faulty boolean, and negate it; the result is again a possibly faulty boolean. However, we can not have a term of type \((\top \oplus 2) \rightarrow 2\) which suppresses the fault.

**Guarded Recursion** Greatest fixed points are potentially infinite but do not compromise readiness because they are always ready to produce a labeled transition. (Co)induction is however a rather regulated form of recursion, and one sometimes needs a more liberated one similar to general recursion \((\text{self-reference})\) in functional programming. Recursive types, as well as recursive processes, are formulated in \cite{Montesi and Peressotti 2021}, while unsurprisingly breaking readiness. A possible future exploration is to borrow ideas from guarded recursion in functional programming \cite{Birkedal et al. 2017} to linear logic, so one can define a wider range of programs with recursion while preserving readiness.
Chapter 2

Client-Server Sessions in Linear Logic

This chapter is based on Qian et al. [2021], but I removed part of section 2.1 that is general to classical processes, which has been incorporated into section 1.1. I also removed part of section 2.6 that is general to classical processes, which has been incorporated into section 1.3. I also reformatted the text to fit the new paper size.

2.1 Introduction

2.1.1 The Problem

Caires and Pfenning [2010] proposed a Curry-Howard correspondence in which Intuitionistic Linear Logic is used as a type system for the $\pi$-calculus Milner et al. [1992]. This correspondence allows one to interpret formulas of linear logic as session types, i.e., as specifications of disciplined communication over a named channel. A few years later Wadler [2014] extended this interpretation to Classical Linear Logic (CLL). Wadler’s system, which is called Classical Processes (CP), perfectly corresponds to Girard’s original one-sided sequent system for CLL [1987a]. Its typing judgments are of the form $P \vdash \Gamma$, where $P$ is a $\pi$-calculus process, and $\Gamma$ is a list $x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n$ of name-session type pairs, with $A_i$ a formula of Classical Linear Logic. The operational semantics of CP led Wadler to the following interpretation of the connectives.

- $\otimes$ output
- $\otimes$ input
- $\&$ offer a choice
- $\oplus$ make a choice
- $!$ server
- $?$ client

We follow a convention by which the multiplicative connectives $\otimes$, $\&$ associate to the right. Thus a type like $A \otimes B \otimes C$ is $A \otimes (B \otimes C)$ and can be
read as: output a (channel of type) \( A \), then input a (channel of type) \( B \), and proceed as \( C \).

While the interpretation of the first four connectives is intuitive, something seems to have gone awry with the exponentials [Wadler, 2014, §3.4]. We claim that the computational behaviour of exponentials in CP does not in fact accommodate what we would think of as client-server interaction. To begin, we consider the following aspects to be the main characteristics of a client-server architecture [van Steen and Tanenbaum, 2017, §§2.3, 3.4]:

(i) There is a server process, which repeatedly provides a service.

(ii) There is a pool of client processes, each of which requests the said service.

(iii) There is a unique end point at which the clients may issue their requests to the server.

(iv) The underlying network is inherently unreliable: clients may be served out-of-order, i.e., in a nondeterministic manner.

While Wadler’s interpretation faithfully captures (i) and (iii), it does not immediately enable the representation of (ii). Because of its deterministic behaviour, CP is incapable of modelling (iv).

A CP term \( S \vdash x : !A \) can indeed ‘serve’ sessions of type \( A \) over the channel \( x \). However, the reading of a term \( C \vdash y : ?A \) as a process which behaves as a pool of clients along channel \( y \) is not so crisp. Recall the three rules of \( ? \), namely weakening, dereliction, and contraction. In CP:

\[
\frac{Q \vdash \Gamma}{Q \vdash \Gamma, x : ?A}^{\text{?w}} \quad \frac{Q \vdash \Gamma, y : A}{x[\text{use}], yQ \vdash \Gamma, x : ?A}^{\text{?d}} \quad \frac{Q \vdash \Gamma, x : ?A, y : ?A}{Q[x/y] \vdash \Gamma, x : ?A}^{\text{?c}}
\]

Wadler interprets these rules as client formation. Weakening stands for the empty case of a pool of no clients. Dereliction represents a single client following session \( A \). Given that \( Q[x/y] \) denotes the term obtained by renaming all free occurrences of \( y \) in \( Q \) to \( x \), contraction enables the aggregation of two client pools: two sessions of type \(?A\) can be collapsed into one.

We argue that, of those interpretations, only the one for dereliction is tenable. In the case of weakening, we see that at least one process is involved in the premise. Hence, the ‘pool’ formed has at least one client in it, albeit one that does not communicate with the server. Likewise, contraction does not combine different clients, but different sessions owned by the same client. Beginning with a single process \( P \vdash x : A, y : A \) we can use dereliction twice followed by contraction to obtain \( w[\text{use}], xw[\text{use}], yP \vdash w : ?A \). This process will ask for two channels that communicate with session \( A \). Nevertheless, the result is still a single process, and not a pool of clients. Dually, the type \(!A\) merely connotes a shared channel: a non-linearized, non-session
channel which is used to spawn an arbitrary number of new sessions, each one of type $A$ [Caires and Pfenning, 2010, §3].

More alarmingly, there is no way to combine two distinct processes $P \vdash z : A$ and $Q \vdash w : A$ into a single process $\textbf{pool}(x; z, P, w, Q) \vdash x : ?A$ communicating along a shared channel. As a remedy, Wadler introduces the Mix rule:

$$\text{Mix} \quad \begin{array}{c} P \vdash \Gamma \\ Q \vdash \Delta \end{array} \quad \frac{}{P \mid Q \vdash \Gamma, \Delta}$$

Mix was carefully considered for inclusion in Linear Logic, but was rejected [Girard, 1987a, §V.4]. Informally, it allows two completely independent, non-intercommunicating processes to run ‘in parallel.’ We may then use contraction to merge them into a single client pool:

$$\begin{array}{c} P \vdash z : A \\ x[\text{use}], zP \vdash x : ?A \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} Q \vdash w : A \\ y[\text{use}], wP \vdash y : ?A \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Mix} \\ P \mid Q \vdash \Gamma, \Delta \end{array} \quad \frac{}{x[\text{use}], zP \mid x[\text{use}], wQ \vdash x : ?A}$$

The operational semantics of the Mix rule in CP are studied by Atkey et al. [2016]. To formulate them correctly one needs also to add the rule

$$\text{Mix0} \quad \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \quad \frac{}{0 \vdash .}$$

Mix0 has a flavour of inconsistency to it, but it is otherwise useful. On the technical level, it lets us show that the operational semantics, which adds a reaction $P \mid Q \rightarrow P' \mid Q$ whenever $P \rightarrow P'$, is well-behaved (terminating, deadlock-free, and deterministic). In terms of computational interpretation, Mix0 represents a stopped process. This solves the second problem we pointed out above, viz. the formation of a vacuously empty client pool:

$$\begin{array}{c} \end{array} \quad \frac{}{0 \vdash .} \quad \text{Mix0} \quad \frac{}{0 \vdash x : ?A ?w}$$

Nevertheless, Mix and Mix0 are unbecoming rules. To begin, they are respectively equivalent to $\bot \rightarrow 1$ and $1 \rightarrow \bot$, and thereby conflate the two units. Moreover, it is well-known [Bellin, 1997, Girard, 1987a, Abramsky et al, 1996, Wadler, 2014, Atkey et al, 2016] that Mix is equivalent to

$$A \otimes B \rightarrow A \otimes B \quad (*)$$
where \( C \rightarrow D := C^\perp \otimes D \).

Admitting this implication is unwise. At first glance, (2.1) merely weakens the separation between these connectives, and hence damages the interpretation of \( \otimes \) as output. However, we argue that deeper problems lurk just beneath the surface. Abramsky et al. [1996, §3.4.2] describe a perspective on CLL which reads \( A \otimes B \) as connected concurrency (information necessarily flows between \( A \) and \( B \) [Girard, 1987, §V.4]) and \( A \otimes B \) as disjoint concurrency (no information flow between \( A \) and \( B \) whatsoever). The implication (2.1) makes \( \otimes \) a special case of \( \otimes \). Hence, flow between the components of \( A \otimes B \) is permitted, but not obligatory [Abramsky and Jagadeesan, 1994, §3.2]. Thus, (2.1) allows us to pretend that there is flow of information between two clients. Nevertheless, generating the actual flow of information is seemingly impossible. Using \textsc{Mix} we can put together two clients \( C_i \vdash c_i : A \), and get a single process \( C_0 \begin{array}{c} \vdash c_0 : A, \end{array} C_1 \vdash c_1 : A \). As the comma stands for \( \otimes \), we can only cut this with a server \( S \vdash s : A^+ \otimes A^\perp \). But, by the interpretation of \( \otimes \) as disjoint concurrency, we see that the two client sessions will be served by disjoint server components. In other words, the server will not allow information to flow between clients, which does not conform to our usual conception of a stateful server! To enable this kind of flow, a server must use \( \otimes \). As we cannot cut a \( \otimes \) (in the server) with another \( \otimes \) (in the client pool), we are compelled to also accept the converse implication \( A \otimes B \rightarrow A \otimes B \) in order to convert one of the two \( \otimes \)'s to \( \otimes \). This forces \( \otimes = \otimes \), which inescapably leads to deadlock [Atkey et al., 2016, §4.2].

Requiring \( \otimes = \otimes \), a.k.a. compact closure [Barr, 1991], Abramsky et al. [1990], is often deemed necessary for concurrency. In fact, Atkey et al. [2016] argue that this conflation of dual connectives (\( 1 = \bot, \otimes = \otimes \)), and so on) is the source of all concurrency in Linear Logic. The objective of this paper is to argue that there is another way: we aim to augment the Caires-Pfenning interpretation of propositions-as-sessions with a certain degree of concurrency without adding \textsc{Min}. We also wish to introduce just enough nondeterminism to convincingly model client-server interactions in a style that satisfies points (i)--(iv).

We shall achieve both of these goals with the introduction of coexponentials.\footnote{This is evident in the Abramsky-Jagadeesan game semantics for MLL+MIX: a play in \( A \otimes B \) projects to plays for \( A \) and \( B \), but the Opponent can switch components at will. The fully complete model consists of history-free strategies, so there can only be non-stateful Opponent-mediated flow of information between \( A \) and \( B \).}

\footnote{The word ‘coexponential’ was used in Lafont and Streicher [1991, §6.4] to refer the \( ? \) connective.}

\footnote{\[This is evident in the Abramsky-Jagadeesan game semantics for MLL+MIX: a play in \( A \otimes B \) projects to plays for \( A \) and \( B \), but the Opponent can switch components at will. The fully complete model consists of history-free strategies, so there can only be non-stateful Opponent-mediated flow of information between \( A \) and \( B \).\]}

\footnote{The word ‘coexponential’ was used in Lafont and Streicher [1991, §6.4] to refer the \( ? \) connective.}
2.2. EXPONENTIALS, FIXED POINTS, AND COEXPONENTIALS

2.1.2 Roadmap

First, in section 2.2 we discuss the expression of the usual exponential modalities of linear logic (!!) as least and greatest fixed points. This leads us to a different definition of !, which we call the strong exponential. By taking a ‘multiplicative dual’ of these fixed point expressions, we reach two novel modalities, the strong coexponentials, for which we write ¡ and ¿. We refine coexponentials back into a weak form that is similar to the usual exponentials, and show that they coincide with weak exponentials in the presence of Mix and the Binary Cut rule.

Following that, in section 2.3 we introduce a process calculus with strong coexponentials, which we call CSLL (Client-Server Linear Logic). This new system is in the style of Kokke et al. [2019a], which replaces the one-sided sequents with hypersequents. It is argued that coexponentials enable the collection of an arbitrary number of clients following session A into a client pool, which communicates on a channel that follows session ¡A. Conversely, the rules for ¡ express the formation of a server, which can be cut with a client pool to serve its requests.

In section 2.4 we present an extended example that illustrates the computational behaviour of coexponentials, namely an implementation of the Compare-and-Set (CAS) synchronization primitive. Our system neatly encapsulates the racy yet atomic behaviour implicit in such operations.

In section 2.5 we explore the implications of coexponentials in a session-typed functional language. We extend Wadler’s GV with constructs for client-server interaction, and translate them to coexponentials in CSLL. We take advantage of the higher-level notation to give several examples that would be tedious to program directly in CSLL.

We survey related work in section 2.6.

2.2 Exponentials, Fixed Points, and Coexponentials

2.2.1 Exponentials as Fixed Points

The exponential (‘of course’) modality of linear logic ! is used to mark a replicable formula. While describing a combinatory presentation of linear logic, Girard and Lafont [1987, §3.2] noticed that !A can potentially be expressed as the fixed point

\[ !A \equiv 1 \& A \& (!A \otimes !A) \]

The three additive conjuncts on the RHS correspond to the three rules of the dual connective ?, namely weakening, dereliction, and contraction. As
& is a negative connective, the choice of conjunct rests on the ‘user’ of the formula, who may pick one of the three conjuncts at will.

One may thus be led to believe that, were we to allow fixed points for all functors, we could obtain \( !A \) as the fixed point of a functor. Baelde [2012, §2.3] discusses this in the context of a system of higher-order CLL with least and greatest fixed points. Using the functors

\[
F_A(\mathcal{X}) := 1 \& A \& (\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{X}) \quad G_A(\mathcal{X}) := \bot \oplus A \oplus (\mathcal{X} \otimes \mathcal{X})
\]

equation one defines

\[
!A := \nu F_A \quad ?A := \mu G_A
\]

where \( \mu \) and \( \nu \) stand for the least and greatest fixed point respectively. Just by expanding the fixed point rules, one then obtains certain derivable rules. While those for \( ? \) are the usual ones—weakening, dereliction, and contraction—the rule for \( ! \) is radically different:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{StrongExp} \\
\Gamma, B \vdash \vdash B^\perp, 1 \quad \vdash B^\perp, A \quad \vdash B^\perp, B \otimes B
\end{array}
\]

\( \vdash \Gamma, !A \)

As foreshadowed by the use of a greatest fixed point, this rule is coinductive. To prove \( !A \) from context \( \Gamma \) one must use it to construct a ‘seed’ value (or ‘invariant’) of type \( B \). Moreover, this value must be discardable (\( \vdash B^\perp, 1 \)), derelictable (\( \vdash B^\perp, A \)), and copyable (\( \vdash B^\perp, B \otimes B \)). This is eerily reminiscent of the free commutative comonoids used to build certain categorical models of Linear Logic [Mellière, 2009, §7.2]. Because of the arbitrary choice of ‘seed’ type \( B \), the system using this rule does not produce good behaviour under cut elimination: the normal forms do not satisfy the subformula property [Baelde, 2012, §3]: not all detours are eliminated. We call the modality introduced by \textbf{StrongExp} the strong exponential.

Baelde shows that the standard \( ! \) rule can be derived from \textbf{StrongExp}. But while the strong exponential can simulate the standard exponential, it also enables a host of other computational behaviours under cut elimination. Put simply, the standard exponential ensures uniformity: each dereliction of \( !A \) into an \( A \) must be reduced to the very same proof of \( A \) every time. This makes sense in at least two ways. First, when we embed intuitionistic logic into linear logic through the Girard translation, we expect that in a proof of \( (A \to B)^o := !A^o \to B^o \) each use of the antecedent \( !A \) produces the same proof of \( A \). Second, we know that one way to construct the exponential in many ‘degenerate’ models of linear logic [Barr, 1991, Mellière et al., 2018] is through the formula

\[
!A := \&_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A^{\otimes n} / \sim_n
\]

\footnote{Also known as external choice. In the language of game semantics, the opponent.}
where $A^\otimes n := A \otimes \cdots \otimes A$, and $A^\otimes n/\sim_n$ stands for the equalizer of $A^\otimes n$ under its $n!$ symmetries. Decoding the categorical language, this means that we take one $\&$ component for each multiplicity $n$, and each component consists of exactly $n$ copies of the same proof of $A$.

In contrast, the $!$ rules derived from their fixed point presentation merely create an infinite tree of occurrences of $A$, and not all of them need be proven in the same way.

### 2.2.2 Deriving Coexponentials

Both exponentials (qua fixed points) are given by a tree where each fork is marked with a connective ($\otimes$ for $!$, $\&$ for $?$). The leaves of the tree are either marked with $A$, or with the corresponding unit. Turning this process on its head leads to two dual modalities, which we call the coexponentials.

More concretely, we define two functors by dualising the connective that adorns forks. We must not forget to change the units accordingly: we swap $1$ (the unit for $\otimes$) with $\bot$ (the unit for $\&$). Let

$$H_A(X) := \bot \& A \& (X \& X) \quad K_A(X) := 1 \oplus A \oplus (X \otimes X)$$

The strong coexponentials are then defined by

$$i^! A := \nu H_A \quad i_! A := \mu K_A$$

We define $(i^! A)^\perp := i_! A^\perp$, and vice versa. This gives the following derived rules.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma, A &\vdash \Gamma, i^! A \\
\Gamma, i_! A &\vdash \Gamma, i^! A \\
\Gamma, A &\vdash \Gamma, i_! A \\
\Gamma, \Delta, i_! A &\vdash \Gamma, i^! A \\
\Gamma, B &\vdash B^\perp, \bot \\
\Gamma, B^\perp, A &\vdash B^\perp, B \otimes B \\
\Gamma, i^! A &\vdash \Gamma, i_! A \\
\Gamma, i_! A &\vdash \Gamma, i^! A \\
\Gamma, i^! A &\vdash \Gamma, i_! A
\end{align*}
\]

The rules for $i^!$ are distributed forms of the structural rules, while the $i_!$ rule gives a strong coexponential, analogous to the strong version of $!$ described in the previous section. The corresponding ‘weak’ coexponential is given by replacing the above $i$ rule with

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma, A &\vdash \bigotimes i^! \Gamma, A \\
\Gamma, i_! A &\vdash \bigotimes i^! \Gamma, A
\end{align*}
\]

$i^\Gamma$ stands for the context obtained by applying $i^!$ to every formula in $\Gamma$, and $\bigotimes$ folds this context with a tensor. Unfortunately, the presence of this folding operation means that this rule is not well-behaved in proof-theoretic terms.
2.2.3 Exponentials vs. Coexponentials under Mix and Binary Cuts

In fact, we can show that, in the presence of additional rules, (weak) exponentials and (weak) coexponentials are interderivable up to provability. This is not merely a theoretical result: it demonstrates that, under the bonnet, Wadler’s use of Mix for the formation of a client pool (which we sketched in section 2.1.1) secretly introduces the coexponential modalities proposed here.

The requisite rules are \( \text{Mix} \) and one of the binary cut or multicut rules:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{BiCut} & : \vdash \Gamma, A, B \quad \vdash \Delta, A^\perp, B^\perp \\
\text{MultiCut} & : \vdash \Gamma, A_1, \ldots, A_n \quad \vdash \Delta, A_1^\perp, \ldots, A_n^\perp \\
\end{align*}
\]

\( \text{BiCut} \) cuts two formulas at once, and \( \text{MultiCut} \) an arbitrary number. These rules were first proposed in the context of Linear Logic by Abramsky [1993] in the compact setting \( \otimes = \& \). They are logically equivalent, but only the second one satisfies cut elimination [Atkey et al., 2016, §4.2]. We recall some folklore facts regarding the interderivability of certain formulas and \( \text{Mix} \)-like inference rules. Recall that \( C \multimap D := C^\perp \otimes D \). Some form of the following lemma may be found across the relevant literature Girard [1987a], Abramsky et al. [1996], Bellin [1997], Wadler [2014], Atkey et al. [2016].

**Lemma 1.** The following rules are logically interderivable.

(i) The axiom \( 1 \multimap \bot \) and the \( \text{Mix0} \) rule.

(ii) The axiom \( \bot \multimap 1 \) and the \( \text{Mix} \) rule.

(iii) The axiom \( A \otimes B \multimap A \& B \) and the \( \text{Mix} \) rule.

(iv) The axiom \( A \& B \multimap A \otimes B \) and the \( \text{BiCut} \) rule.

(v) \( \text{BiCut} \) and \( \text{MultiCut} \).

Moreover, \( \text{Mix0} \) is derivable from the axiom rule \( \vdash A^\perp, A \) and \( \text{BiCut} \).

Armed with this, we can prove that:

**Theorem 2.** In CLL with \( \text{Mix} \) and \( \text{BiCut} \), exponentials and coexponentials coincide up to provability. That is: if we replace \( ? \) and \( ! \) in the rules for the exponentials with \( \tilde{\lambda} \) and \( \tilde{!} \) respectively, the resultant rule is provable using the coexponential rules, and vice versa.

This theorem confirms that exponentials and coexponentials are indeed symmetric with respect to multiplicativity. It also explains why exponentials can represent client-server interactions after introducing Mix [Wadler, 2014, Kokke et al., 2019a]. Finally, the theorem extends to strong exponentials vs. strong coexponentials; the proof there is even simpler: under \( \text{Mix} \) and \( \text{BiCut} \) we have \( \otimes = \& \), so \( F_A, H_A \) and \( G_A, K_A \) are pairwise logically equivalent.
2.3. Processes

In the rest of the paper we will argue that the logical observations we made in section 2.2 have a computational interpretation as client-server interaction. To this end we will introduce a process calculus for CLL equipped with a bespoke form of strong coexponentials. Our system shall introduce a certain amount of nondeterminism, yet it will remain \textit{Mix}-free.

We first explain how the coexponentials capture the intuitive shape of client pool formation (section 2.3.1). Following that, we briefly discuss three technical design decisions that pertain to the coexponentials used in our system (section 2.3.2, section 2.3.3, section 2.3.4). Finally, we introduce the system in section 2.3.5, and its metatheory in section 2.3.6.

2.3.1 \(\dual\) Means Client, \(\intro\) Means Server

Recall the three rules for \(\dual\), namely

\[
\begin{align*}
\vdash \dual A & \quad \vdash \Gamma, A \\
\vdash \dual A & \quad \vdash \Gamma, \dual A \\
\vdash \Gamma, \dual A & \quad \vdash \Delta, \dual A \\
\vdash \Gamma & \quad \vdash \Delta & \quad \vdash A
\end{align*}
\]

We can read \(\dual A\) as the session type of a channel shared by a pool of clients.

- \(\dual w\) allows the vacuous formation of a empty client pool.
- \(\dual d\) allows the formation of a client pool consisting of exactly one client.
- \(\dual c\) can be used to aggregate two client pools together.

The last point requires some elaboration. Each premise of \(\dual c\) can be seen as a client pool with an external interface (\(\Gamma\) and \(\Delta\) respectively). The rule allows us to combine these into a single process. This new process still behaves as a client pool, but it also retains both external interfaces. In contrast, the \(\dual c\) rule only allowed us to collapse two shared channels that belonged to a single process. Moreover, it did not allow us to mix two external interfaces—one had to use \textit{Mix} for that.

Finally, the ‘weak’ \(\intro\) rule, i.e.,

\[
\vdash \bigotimes \intro \Gamma, A \\
\vdash \bigotimes \intro \Gamma, \intro A
\]

can be read as the introduction rule for a dual server session type. It states that a process serving \(A\), and all of whose other interactions have a client role (\(\dual\)) with respect to a set of non-interacting (\(\otimes\)) services, can itself be ‘co-promoted’ to a server \(\intro A\).

Note that our intuitive explanations are almost identical to those of Wadler \cite{Wadler14}; the difference is that our rules have the right branching structure to support the underlying intuition.
2.3.2 Design Decision #1: Server State and The Strong Rules

The first change with respect to the above is the switch to the strong rule, namely

\[
\Gamma, B \vdash B^\bot, \bot \quad \vdash B^\bot, A \quad \vdash B^\bot, B \otimes B
\]

\[
\vdash \Gamma, iA
\]

This rule evokes the structure of a ‘stateful’ server serving A’s, with external interface Γ. Within the server there exists an internal server protocol B. This comes with four ingredients: a process that provides a B, interacting along Γ (initialization); a way to silently consume B (finalization); a way to ‘convert’ a B to an A (serving a client); and a way to fork one B into two connected B’s (forking two subservers).

We use this strong rule in order to avoid the uniformity property that was discussed in section 2.2.1: the weak coexponential rule gives trivial servers providing identical A’s to all clients. In contrast, this rule will allow a server to provide a different A each time it is called upon to do so.

2.3.3 Design Decision #2: Replacing Trees with Lists

The strong coexponential rule arose by taking the greatest fixed point of

\[
H_A(X) := \bot \& A \& (X \& X)
\]

As discussed in section 2.2.1 and section 2.2.2, this rule represents a tree-like structure. Nothing stops us from replacing it with a list-like structure. We use the functors

\[
H'_A(X) := \bot \& (A \& X) \quad K'_A(X) := 1 \oplus (A \otimes X)
\]

and acquire the strong server rule derived from \(H'_A\), viz.

\[
\Gamma, B \vdash B^\bot, \bot \quad \vdash B^\bot, A \otimes B
\]

\[
\vdash \Gamma, iA
\]

The main benefit is that the resulting system more closely reflects the pattern of client-server interaction: clients form a queue rather than a tree, and servers no longer have to fork subprocesses. This rule also requires fewer ingredients: an initialization of the internal protocol, a finalization, and a component that spawns a session to serve one additional client.

\footnote{It is worth noting that Girard considered list-like exponentials \cite[§V.5(ii)]{Girard1987}, but rejected them as they were not able to reproduce contraction. This is not a requirement for modelling client-server interaction.}
To optimize this further, we make the $\otimes$ implicit, and replace $\bot$ with a general $\Delta$ in the finalization:

\[
\text{Server} \quad \vdash \Gamma, B \quad \vdash B^\bot, \Delta \quad \vdash B^\bot, A, B
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, \downarrow \Gamma
\]

This second rule can be immediately derived from the first one:

\[
\vdash \Gamma, B \quad \vdash B^\bot, \Delta \quad \vdash B^\bot, A, B
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, B \otimes B^\bot
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, B \otimes B^\bot
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, \otimes B \otimes B^\bot
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, \otimes B \otimes B^\bot
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, \downarrow \Gamma
\]

There is a surreptitious twist here: the ‘new’ internal server protocol is not $B$, but $B \otimes B^\bot$. This leads to internal back-and-forth communication in the server. $\Gamma$ is consumed to produce a $B$. This is ‘passed’ to each process serving each client. Finally, it is reflected back to the initialization process, and ‘finalized’ into a $\Delta$. The $\bot$ rule is invertible, so instantiating $\Delta := \bot$ in Server gives back the preceding rule. Hence, these two rules are logically equivalent.

### 2.3.4 Design Decision #3: Nondeterminism through Permutation

Using list-shaped rules for $\downarrow$ forces us to revise the rules for $\downarrow$. To define a cut elimination procedure the rules must now match the dual functor $K^\prime_A$, and hence become

\[
\vdash \Gamma, \downarrow A
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, \downarrow A
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, \downarrow A
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, \downarrow A
\]

The cut elimination procedure for these rules leads to a confluent dynamics. This is unsatisfactory from the perspective of client-server interaction: a proper model requires some nondeterminism in the order in which clients are served. There are many ways to introduce this kind of behaviour. We choose the simplest one: we identify derivations up to permutation of client formation in pools. That is, we quotient them under the least congruence generated from

\[
\vdash \Gamma, \downarrow A
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, A
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, A
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, A
\]

This amounts to quotienting lists up to permutation. Thus, when a client pool interacts with a server, the cut elimination procedure may silently choose to serve any of the constituent clients.
CHAPTER 2. CLIENT-SERVER SESSIONS IN LINEAR LOGIC

Trees and nondeterminism  The careful reader might notice that the original, tree-like ‘distributed contraction’ rule $\diamondsuit c$ inherently supported a certain amount of nondeterminism: if we were to quotient derivations up to permutation of the premises of $\diamondsuit c$, then the cut elimination procedure would have some choice of whether to serve the left or right subtree first. Switching to list-like functors forbids this move, and seemingly imposes a much stricter discipline.

Nevertheless, the tree structure is awkward and rigid in another way. For example, consider a client pool whose tree structure is informally $$[[c_0, c_1], [c_2, c_3]]$$. As nondeterministic choices are only made at each node, the clients cannot be served in any order. For example, if $c_0$ is served first then $c_1$ must be served next—as it is in the same subtree. From a conventional client-server perspective this is arguably not a sufficient amount of nondeterminism. In contrast, our formulation allows full permutations of the client pool.

2.3.5 Introducing CS::

Based on the above considerations, we introduce the system CSLL of Client-Server Linear Logic.

Following recent presentation of CLL-based systems of session types Kokke et al. [2019a], CSLL is structured around hyperenvironments. Thus the logical system underlying CSLL is not one-sided sequent calculus like CP, but a hypersequent system Avron [1991]. In this kind of presentation process constructors are more finely decoupled. For example, the original CP output/constructor $x[y]. P | Q$ is a combination of a parallel composition with an output prefix. Hypersequent systems allow us to separately type these two constructs, and bring the language closer to $\pi$-calculus.

One-sided sequent systems for CLL—such as Girard’s original presentation [1987a]—use sequents of the form $\Gamma \vdash \Gamma$ where $\Gamma$ is an environment, i.e., an unordered list of formulas. We assign distinct names to each formula. The environment $\Gamma = x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n$ stands for $A_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes A_n$. Hence, a comma stands for $\otimes$. Environments are identical up to permutation. We write $\emptyset$ for the empty one.

A hyperenvironment adds another layer: it is an unordered list of environments. We separate environments by vertical lines. If each environment $\Gamma_i$ stands for the formula $A_i$, the hyperenvironment $\mathcal{G} = \Gamma_1 | \cdots | \Gamma_n$ stands for the formula $A_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes A_n$. Hence, $|$ stands for $\otimes$. Hyperenvironments are identical up to permutation, and we write $\emptyset$ for the empty one. We also stipulate that variable names be distinct within and across environments.

The syntax and the type system of CSLL are defined in fig. [2.1]. The types are the formulas of CLL. Note that the choice between curly braces, parantheses and brackets in the syntax of processes is merely typographical, and does not bear formal meaning. However, curly braces are meant to evoke parameters, whereas parantheses and brackets evoke bindings in
2.3. PROCESSES

\[A, B, \ldots ::= 1 \mid \bot \mid A \& B \mid A \oplus B \mid A \& B \mid \Delta, \Delta : \bot \mid A \mid \Delta, \bot : \bot \mid \Delta, \Delta : \bot \mid A \mid \Delta, \bot : \bot\]

\[\Gamma, \Delta, \ldots ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : A \quad \text{(environments)}\]

\[G, H, \ldots ::= 0 \mid G \mid \Gamma \quad \text{(hyperenvironments)}\]

\[P, Q, \ldots ::= 0 \quad \text{(terminated process)}\]

\[x \leftrightarrow y \quad \text{(link between \(x\) and \(y\))}\]

\[\nu xy \quad \text{(connect \(x\) and \(y\))}\]

\[P | Q \quad \text{(parallel composition)}\]

\[y \cdot \text{case\{L:P, R:Q\}} \quad \text{(receive choice over \(y\))}\]

\[y[l].P \mid y[r].P \quad \text{(send choice over \(y\))}\]

\[y(x).P \mid y[x].P \quad \text{(receive/send \(x\) over \(y\))}\]

\[\nu \cdot x[].P \quad \text{(receive/send end-of-session at \(y\))}\]

\[\nu \cdot x[y].P \quad \text{(create new client interface \(x\))}\]

\[\nu \cdot x\{z', w', y'.Q\}(z, w).P \quad \text{(send client interface \(y\) over \(x\))}\]

\[x[\text{disp}].P \mid x[\text{use}].yP \mid x[\text{dup}](y_0).y_1P \quad \text{(weakening, dereliction and contraction)}\]

\[\nu \cdot x\{y\}.P \quad \text{(promotion)}\]

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{HMIX0} & \text{HMIX2} & \text{CUT} \\
0 \vdash \emptyset & P \vdash G & P \vdash G, \Gamma, x : A \mid \Delta, y : A^\bot \\
& P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, \Delta & \nu xy \vdash P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, \Delta
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Ax} \\
\frac{x \leftrightarrow y \vdash x : A^\bot, y : A}{x \leftrightarrow y \vdash x : A^\bot, y : A}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{PAR} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : A, y : B}{y(x).P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, y : A \& B}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{PLUSL} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : A}{x[l].P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : A \oplus B}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{PLUSR} \\
\frac{Q \vdash G \mid \Gamma, y : B}{y[r].Q \vdash G \mid \Gamma, y : A \oplus B}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{WITH} \\
\frac{P \vdash G, \Gamma, x : A}{Q \vdash G, \Gamma, x : A}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{M-FALSE} \\
\frac{x[].P \vdash G \mid \Gamma}{x[].P \vdash G \mid x : \bot}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{M-TRUE} \\
\frac{x[].P \vdash G \mid \Gamma}{x[].P \vdash G \mid x : \bot}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{WHYNOTW} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma}{x[\text{disp}].P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : ?A}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{WHYNOTD} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, y : A}{x[\text{use}].yP \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : ?A}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{WHYNOTC} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, y_0 : ?A, y_1 : ?A}{x[\text{dup}](y_0).y_1P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : ?A}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{OF COURSE} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : \bot}{!x\{\overline{y} \cdot P\} \vdash \overline{y} : \overline{\bot} \cdot x : !A}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{QUEW} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : ?A}{\nu \cdot x[].P \vdash G \mid x : ?A}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{QUEA} \\
\frac{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : ?A}{P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, x : ?A}
\end{array}
\]
CHAPTER 2. CLIENT-SERVER SESSIONS IN LINEAR LOGIC

continuations. A generic judgment of the type system has the shape \( P \vdash G \) where \( P \) is a process, and \( G \) is a hyperenvironment.

Most typing rules are identical to HCP, and in the interest of brevity we only discuss the important ones. Hyperenvironment components are introduced by the nullary and binary hypermix rules, \( \text{HMix}_0 \) and \( \text{HMix}_2 \). These are ‘Mix’ rules only in name. \( \text{HMix}_2 \) forms the disjoint parallel composition of two processes: their environments are joined with \( \mathbf{\mid} \), which stands for \( \otimes \). \( \text{HMix}_0 \) is the stopped process; its hyperenvironment is the empty one, which stands for the unit of \( \otimes \), namely \( \mathbf{1} \).

The \( \text{Cut} \) and \( \text{Tensor} \) rules eliminate hyperenvironment components. The premises of \( \text{Cut} \) ensure that the two variables that are being connected—viz. \( x \) and \( y \)—are in different ‘parallel components’ of \( P \). Notice that the external environments of these two components, namely \( \Gamma \) and \( \Delta \), are then brought together in the conclusion. A similar pattern permeates the \( \text{Tensor} \) and \( \text{M-True} \) rules. It is instructive to follow the derivation of the original CP rules for \( \otimes \) and \( \mathbf{1} \), which we will silently use:

\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \Gamma, y : A & Q & \vdash \Delta, x : B \\
\frac{}{P \mid Q \vdash \Gamma, y : A \mid \Delta, x : B} & x \mid y & P \mid Q \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, x : A \otimes B & 0 \vdash \emptyset & x \mid 0 & \vdash x : \mathbf{1}
\end{align*}
\]

The exponential rules \( \text{WhyNotW} \), \( \text{WhyNotD} \), \( \text{WhyNotC} \) and \( \text{OfCourse} \) are formulated in the style of Kokke et al. \[2019\]. In \( \text{OfCourse} \) we use vector notation (\( \vec{\cdot} \)) as a shorthand for lists of names and types. Note that—in contrast to all previous systems—we notate \( P \) as a parameter rather than as the continuation in the process \( \mathbf{!x{\vec{y}}P} \). This because \( P \) does not behave like a continuation. For example, it has its own distinct commuting conversion.

The coexponential rules \( \text{QueW} \), \( \text{QueA} \) and \( \text{Claro} \) follow the patterns described in section 2.3.1, section 2.3.2, section 2.3.3, section 2.3.4. The rule \( \text{QueW} \) (W stands for ‘weaken’) constructs an empty client pool. The rule \( \text{QueA} \) (A stands for ‘absorb’) combines a client and a pool into a slightly larger pool. The interfaces of the client pool and the client are necessarily disjoint, as they are separated by a \( \mathbf{\mid} \) in the premise. All the processes in the resultant pool race to communicate with a server at the single endpoint \( x \).

Correspondingly, \( \text{Claro} \) constructs a process that offers a service at the single endpoint \( y \). Its continuation \( P \) functions as both the initialization and the finalization of the server, over channels \( i \) and \( f \) respectively. This rule is similar to the \( \text{Server} \) rule of section 2.3.3, but in the interest of brevity it combines the premises \( \vdash \Gamma, B \) and \( \vdash B \vdash \Delta \) into one process. However, these functionalities continue to be logically disjoint components of \( P \), as their
interfaces are separated by a \( | \) in the premise. The process \( Q \) is a ‘worker’ process which is spawned every time a client is to be served.

In all process constructs that involve a dot that is not within curly braces, e.g. \( y(x).P \), we call the part that precedes it the prefix of the process \( (y(x) \) in this case), and the part that succeeds it the continuation \( (P \) in this case).

The bound names \( \text{BN}(P) \) of a process \( P \) are defined as follows:

- \( x \) and \( y \) are bound in \( P \) within \( 
\nu xy P \).
- \( x \) is bound in \( P \) within \( y(x). P \) and \( y[x]. P \).
- Within \( \{ y(z, z', y').Q \}(i, f). P \) we have that \( i \) and \( f \) are bound in \( P \), while \( z, z' \), and \( y' \) are bound in \( Q \). Note that \( y \) is not bound, but rather ‘exported.’
- \( x \) is bound in \( P \) within \( \partial y[x]. P \).
- \( x_0 \) and \( x_1 \) are bound in \( P \) within \( x[\text{dup}](x_0). x_1 P \).
- \( x \) is bound in \( P \) within \( x'[\text{use}]. x P \).

In all other cases the set of bound names is empty. We define the free names \( \text{FN}(P) \) of a process \( P \) to be the set of sets corresponding to the names occurring in the typing judgment of \( P \). For example, the hyperenvironment \( \mathcal{G} := x : A, y : B \mid z : C, w : D \) determines the set of sets \( [\mathcal{G}] = x, y \mid z, w := \{ \{ x, y \}, \{ z, w \} \} \). Kokke et al. [2019a] call this the name partition corresponding to a hyperenvironment. Thus, if \( P \vdash \mathcal{G} \) we define \( \text{FN}(P) := [\mathcal{G}] \). We will sometimes abusively write \( \text{FN}(P) \) to mean the union of the name partition, i.e. the complete set of free names that occur in it. As is usual, processes are identified up to \( \alpha \)-equivalence.

We write \( \pi_y \) for an arbitrary prefix communicating on channel \( y \), and \( \text{BN}(\pi_y) \) for the variables that it binds in its continuation. For example, \( \pi_y \) could be \( y(x) \), and in this case \( \text{BN}(\pi_y) = \{ x \} \).

Finally, notice that the typing cannot be inferred from the terms alone. For example, in \( \text{M-FALSE} \) the term \( x() \). \( P \) does not specify in which environment \( \Gamma \) within its hyperenvironment the unit \( \bot \) should be introduced. This has an impact on the name partition \( \text{FN}(P) \) of a process \( P \).

2.3.6 Operational Semantics and Metatheory

Definition 1. Canonical terms are defined by the following clauses.

- \( \pi_x. P \) is canonical whenever \( P \) is.
- \( P \mid Q \) is canonical if both \( P \) and \( Q \) are canonical.
- \( 0 \) and \( x \leftrightarrow y \) are canonical.
\[ P | 0 \equiv P \]  
(Par-Unit)

\[ P | Q \equiv Q | P \]  
(Par-Comm)

\[ P | (Q | R) \equiv (P | Q) | R \]  
(Par-Assoc)

\[ x \leftrightarrow y \equiv y \leftrightarrow x \]  
(Link-Comm)

\[ \nu x y (P | Q) \equiv P | \nu x y Q \ (x, y \not\in \text{Fn}(P)) \]  
(Res-Par)

\[ \nu x y \nu z w P \equiv \nu z w \nu x y P \]  
(Res-Res)

\[ \pi x. (P | Q) \equiv P | \pi x. Q \ (\text{BN}(\pi x) \cap \text{Fn}(P) = \emptyset) \]  
(Pre-Par)

\[ \nu x y \pi z. P \equiv \pi x. \nu y x P (z \neq x, y \text{ and } \pi z \text{ and } \nu x y \text{ not cross } \text{Fn}(P)) \]  
(Res-Pre)

\[ \pi x. \pi y. P \equiv \pi y. \pi x. P \]  
(Pre-Pre)

\[ (x \neq y, y \not\in \text{BN}(\pi x), x \not\in \text{BN}(\pi y), \pi x \text{ and } \pi y \text{ not cross } \text{Fn}(P)) \]

extended with

\[ \nu x [x_0], \nu x [x_1]. P \equiv \nu x [x_1], \nu x [x_0]. P \]  
(Que-Que)

Figure 2.2: The structural equivalence of CSLL processes.

- \( y.\text{case}\{l:P,r:Q\} \) and \( !x\{\bar{y},P\} \) are canonical.

In particular, \( \nu x y P \) is not canonical; it is a cut.

The above notion of canonicity is not definitive. For example, \( \pi x. P \) could have been considered canonical regardless of the canonicity of \( P \) (similar to weak head normal form for \( \lambda \)-calculus). However, we choose to react \( P \) further to make the ‘final result’ of an interaction visible in later examples. In addition, we could require terms such as \( P \) and \( Q \) in \( y.\text{case}\{l:P,r:Q\} \) be canonical for the whole term to be canonical, but we choose not to so as to reduce the number of reaction rules.

We define the notion of structural equivalence \( P \equiv Q \) to be the least congruence between processes induced by the clauses in fig. 2.2. Furthermore, we define the reaction relation \( P \rightarrow Q \) between processes to be the least relation induced by the clauses in fig. 2.3.

The structural equivalence and the reaction semantics largely mirror the notions of the same name in the \( \pi \)-calculus. Those that differ are justified via linear logic. The clauses 2.3.6 and 2.3.6 can be seen as identifications arising from proof nets, in which the corresponding proofs would be graphically identical. Note that the commuting prefixes are required to not ‘cross’ the name partition in order to preserve typing. As a counterexample, if \( P \vdash x : A, y : B | z : C, w : D \), then \( x(w).y[z].P \vdash x : A \otimes D, y : B \otimes C \) while \( y[z].x(w).P \) is ill-typed. To avoid this, we say that \( x(w) \) and \( y[z] \)
2.3. PROCESSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ParL</th>
<th>Res</th>
<th>Pre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( P \to P' )</td>
<td>( P \to P' )</td>
<td>( P \to P' )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( P \parallel Q \to P' \parallel Q )</td>
<td>( \nu xy P \to \nu xy P' )</td>
<td>( \pi_y P \to \pi_y P' )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{EQ} \\
\frac{P \equiv P'}{P \to Q \quad Q \equiv Q'}
\end{array} \]

\[ \nu xy \left( z. \text{case}\{ t: P_0, \tau: P_1 \} \mid Q \right) \to z. \text{case}\{ t: \nu xy (P_0 \mid Q), \tau: \nu xy (P_1 \mid Q) \} \]

(With-Comm)

\[ \nu xy \left( !z[x\overline{\nu}, P] \mid !y[\overline{\nu}, Q] \right) \to !z[\overline{\nu}, \nu xy (P \mid !y[\overline{\nu}, Q])] \]

(OfCourse-Comm)

\[ \nu xy (z \leftrightarrow x \mid Q) \to Q[z/y] \]

(Link)

\[ \nu xy (x[]). P \mid y(). Q \to P \mid Q \]

(One-Bot)

\[ \nu xy (x[z]. P \mid y(w). Q) \to \nu xy \nu zw (P \mid Q) \]

(Tensor-Par)

\[ \nu xy (x[1]. P \mid y. \text{case}\{ t: 0_0, \tau: 0_1 \}) \to \nu xy (P \mid Q_0) \]

(PlusL-With)

\[ \nu xy (x[0]. P \mid y. \text{case}\{ t: 0_0, \tau: 0_1 \}) \to \nu xy (P \mid Q_1) \]

(PlusR-With)

\[ \nu xy (i[], C \mid y[z, z', y'. Q](i, f). P) \to C \mid \nu f P \]

(Claro-QueW)

\[ \nu xy (\overline{x}[x']. C \mid y[z, z', y'. Q](i, f). P) \to \nu xy \nu x'y'(C \mid R) \]

\[ \text{where } R := y[z, z', y'. Q](z', f). (\nu z (P \mid Q)) \]

(Claro-QueA)

\[ \nu xy (x[\text{disp}]. P \mid y[\z, Q]) \to \z[\text{disp}]. P \]

(ExpW)

\[ \nu xy (x[\text{use}]. x'. P \mid y[\z, Q]) \to x'y'(P \mid Q) \]

(ExpD)

\[ \nu xy (x[\text{dup}](x_0). x_1 P \mid y[\z, Q]) \to \z[\text{dup}](\z_0). \z_1 \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (P \mid R) \]

\[ \text{where } R := y_1[\z_1. Q[\z_1 y_1/\z]] \mid y_0[\z_0. Q[\z_0 y_0/\z]] \]

(ExpC)

Figure 2.3: The operational semantics of CSLL processes.
cross the name partition \( \text{FN}(P) = x, y \mid z, w \), and hence that this commutation is forbidden. Formally, ‘crossing’ is defined as follows.

**Definition 2.** We first define two sets of names \( X_{\pi_x} \) and \( Y_{\pi_y} \) indexed by prefixes. Note they are defined for only some prefixes.

\[
X_{\pi_x} := f_{x_0, x_1} \quad Y_{\pi_y} := f_{y_0, y_1}
\]

Now, \( \pi_x \) and \( \pi_y \) cross the name partition \( |G| \) just if any of the following cases apply.

- In the binary case, we require the following: \( X_{\pi_x} \) and \( Y_{\pi_y} \) is defined for \( \pi_x \) and \( \pi_y \) respectively; write \( X_{\pi_x} = \{x_0, x_1\} \) and \( Y_{\pi_y} = \{y_0, y_1\} \); there are \( \Gamma, \Delta \in |G| \) such that \( x_0, y_0 \in \Gamma \) and \( x_1, y_1 \in \Delta \).

- In the nullary case, we require all the following to hold:
  - \( \pi_x \) is \( x() \) or \( x[\text{DISP}] \)
  - \( \pi_y \) is \( y[\text{}] \) or \( \text{\textsl{\textbar}x[\text{}]} \).
  - \( |G| \) is \( \emptyset \)

Moreover, \( \pi_x \) and \( \nu y_0 y_1 \) cross the name partition \( |G| \) if the following holds: \( X_{\pi_x} \) is defined for \( \pi_x \); write \( X = \{x_0, x_1\} \) and there is \( \Gamma, \Delta \in |G| \) such that \( x_0, y_0 \in \Gamma \) and \( x_1, y_1 \in \Delta \).

The structural equivalence 2.3.6 allows us to commute the position of two clients in the pool, thereby imitating racing—as discussed in section 2.3.4. In order fully exploit the nondeterminism induced by 2.3.6, the other structural equivalences are necessary. For example, the two clients in \( \text{\textsl{\textbar}x[x_0], y(y'), \text{\textsl{\textbar}x[x_1]}} \). \( P \) cannot be permuted without using 2.3.6 first. Indeed, this is the major motivation for 2.3.6, as the latter is not needed for our metatheoretic results. Note that 2.3.6 is the one and only source of nondeterminism in the system.

Some commuting conversions appear as structural equivalences, and some as reaction rules. 2.3.6 and 2.3.6 are commuting conversions for OfCOURSE and WITH respectively. 2.3.6 with 2.3.6 combine into a kind of commuting conversion for prefixes. We take the former as reaction rules, and the latter as structural equivalences. This choice makes structural equivalence preserve canonicity. For example, in 2.3.6 the LHS is not canonical, but the RHS is.

The overwhelming majority of these commuting conversions is used in previous works on the relationship between linear logic and \( \pi \)-calculus to obtain cut elimination \([Wadler, 2014, \S3.6]\) \([Bellin and Scott, 1994, \S3]\).

Perhaps the only exception is 2.3.6, which allows us to swap any two non-interfering prefixes. It can be justified computationally as an observational
2.4. AN EXAMPLE: COMPARE-AND-SET

2.4 An example: Compare-and-Set

We now wish to demonstrate the client-server features of CSLL. To do so we produce an implementation of the quintessential example of a synchronization primitive, the Compare-and-Set operation (CAS) \cite{Herlihy2012, §5.8}. Higher-level examples are given in section 2.5.

A register that supports compare-and-set comes with an operation \texttt{Cas}(\textit{e}, \textit{d}) which takes two values: the \textit{expected} value \textit{e}, and the \textit{desirable} value \textit{d}. The function compares the expected value \textit{e} with the register. If the two differ, the value of the register remains put, and \texttt{Cas}(\textit{e}, \textit{d}) returns false. But if they are found equal, the register is updated with the desirable value \textit{d}, and \texttt{Cas}(\textit{e}, \textit{d}) returns true. When multiple clients are trying to perform CAS operations on the same register they must be performed \textit{atomically}. The
CHAPTER 2. CLIENT-SERVER SESSIONS IN LINEAR LOGIC

CAS operation is very powerful: an asynchronous machine that supports it can implement all concurrent objects in a wait-free manner.

We follow previous work \cite{Girard1987a, Abramsky1993b, Atkey2016, Kokke2019a} and define the type of Boolean sessions to be \(2 := 1 \oplus 1\). We have the following derivable constants:

\[
\text{tt}_z := z[l].z[].0 \vdash z : 2 \quad \text{ff}_z := z[r].z[].0 \vdash z : 2
\]

Moreover, we obtain the following derivable ‘elimination’ rule (we write derivable rules in blue):

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma}{z(). P \vdash z : \bot, \Gamma} \quad \frac{Q \vdash \Gamma}{z(). Q \vdash z : \bot, \Gamma}
\]

Hence, we can eliminate a Boolean channel in any environment \(\Gamma\). The induced reactions are

\[
\nu xy (\text{tt}_x \mid \text{if}(y; P; Q)) \to^* 0 \mid P \equiv P \quad \nu xy (\text{ff}_x \mid \text{if}(y; P; Q)) \to^* 0 \mid Q \equiv P
\]

We can now implement a register with a CAS operation. To begin, each client communicates with the register along a channel of type

\[
A := 2 \otimes 2 \otimes 2 \bot \otimes 1
\]

Thus, a client outputs three channels. On the first two it shall send the expected and desirable values. On the third it will input a boolean, namely the success flag of the CAS operation. Following that, it will accept an end-of-session signal. Curiously, this last step is necessary for our implementation to type-check.

As a minimal example we will construct a pool of two racing clients, one performing \(\text{CAS}(\text{ff}, \text{tt})\), and the other one \(\text{CAS}(\text{tt}, \text{ff})\). Initially \(x_1\) is ahead in the client pool.

\[
C_0 := x_0[x_e].x_0[x_d].(\text{ff}_x \mid \text{tt}_x \mid x_0 \leftrightarrow r_0) \vdash x_0 : 2 \otimes 2 \otimes 2 \bot \otimes 1, r_0 : 2 \otimes \bot
\]

\[
C_1 := x_1[x_e].x_1[x_d].(\text{tt}_x \mid \text{ff}_x \mid x_1 \leftrightarrow r_1) \vdash x_1 : 2 \otimes 2 \otimes 2 \bot \otimes 1, r_1 : 2 \otimes \bot
\]

\[
\text{clients} := \xi x[x_1].\xi x[x_0].\xi x[].(C_0 \mid C_1)
\]

\[
\vdash x : \xi \left(2 \otimes 2 \otimes 2 \bot \otimes 1\right), r_0 : 2 \otimes \bot, r_1 : 2 \otimes \bot
\]

Note that each client forwards the result it receives to an individual channel \(r_i\). By the \(\text{QueA}\) rule these two channels are preserved in the final interface of the pool.

Next we define the CAS register process, for which we use the \(\iota\) connective. This requires two components: the initialization and finalization
process $P$, and the worker process $Q$ that serves one client. To begin, we pick the internal server state to be $B := 2$. We initialize the register to false, and forward the final state of the register to $u$.

$$P := (ff \mid f \leftrightarrow u) \vdash i : 2 \mid f : 2 \perp, u : 2$$

Finally, we define $Q$. We begin by receiving the input and output channels from a client, and do a case analysis on the current state of the register:

$$Q := y'(y_e).y'(y_d).if(z; R_1; R_0) \vdash z : 2 \perp, y' : 2 \perp \otimes 2 \perp \otimes 2 \otimes \bot, z' : 2$$

We have carefully named the channels so that $y_e : 2 \perp$ and $y_d : 2 \perp$ carry the expected and desirable values. $z'$ and $w'$ carry the internal register, before and after the operation. The continuations $R_0$ and $R_1$ do a case analysis on the expected and desired value:

$$R_1 := if(y_e; if(y_d; S_{111}; S_{110}); if(y_d; S_{101}; S_{100}))$$
$$\vdash y_e : 2 \perp, y_d : 2 \perp, y' : 2 \otimes \bot, z' : 2$$

$$R_0 := if(y_e; if(y_d; S_{011}; S_{010}); if(y_d; S_{001}; S_{000}))$$
$$\vdash y_e : 2 \perp, y_d : 2 \perp, y' : 2 \otimes \bot, z' : 2$$

Two further case analyses lead to an exhaustive eight cases, each of which is handled by a separate process $S_{ijk}$. We only give $S_{110}$ here, the rest being analogous:

$$S_{110} := y'[y_e].(tt_{y_e} \mid y'(\_).ff_{y'}) \vdash y' : 2 \otimes \bot, z' : 2$$

In this case, the expected value (true) matches the register state (true), so the process outputs true to the result channel $y_r$ (the CAS operation succeeds), and the register is set to the desired value (false). We must not forget to receive an end-of-session signal on $y$, as required by the session type. We let $server := i y\{z, z', y', Q\}(i, f). P \vdash y : i (2 \perp \otimes 2 \perp \otimes 2 \otimes \bot), u : 2$,
and cut:

\[ \nu xy (\text{clients} \mid \text{server}) \]
\[ = \nu xy (\nu x[x_1]. \nu x[x_0]. \nu x[]. (C_0 \mid C_1) \mid \text{server}) \]
\[ \equiv \nu xy (\nu x[x_0]. \nu x[x_1]. \nu x[]. (C_0 \mid C_1) \mid \text{server}) \]
\[ (x_0 \text{ preempts } x_1 \text{ using } 2.3.6) \]
\[ \rightarrow \nu xy \nu x_0 y' (C_0 \mid \nu x[x_1]. \nu x[]. C_1 \mid y\{z, z', y'. Q\}(z', f). (\nu z (P \mid Q))) \]
\[ (C_0 \text{ is accepted}) \]
\[ \rightarrow^* r_0[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_0(). \nu xy (\nu x[x_1]. \nu x[]. C_1 \mid y\{z, z', y'. Q\}(z'', f). P')) \]
\[ (C_0 \text{ performs CAS}) \]
\[ \rightarrow r_0[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_0(). \nu x_0 y' (C_1 \mid \nu x[]. 0 \mid y\{z, z', y'. Q\}(z', f). (\nu z'' z (P' \mid Q))) \]
\[ (C_1 \text{ is accepted}) \]
\[ \rightarrow^* r_0[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_0(). r_1[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_1(). \nu xy (\nu x[]. 0 \mid y\{z, z', y'. Q\}(z'', f). P''))) \]
\[ (C_1 \text{ performs CAS}) \]
\[ \rightarrow r_0[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_0(). r_1[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_1(). (0 \mid \nu z'' f P''))) \]
\[ (\text{server starts to finalize}) \]
\[ \rightarrow^* r_0[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_0(). r_1[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_1(). ff_u)) \vdash r_0 : 2 \otimes \bot, r_1 : 2 \otimes \bot, u : 2 \]
\[ (\text{server finalizes}) \]

where \( P' = tt_{z''} \mid f \leftrightarrow u \) and \( P'' = ff_{z''} \mid f \leftrightarrow u \). This corresponds to the scenario where \( C_0 \) wins the first race, and hence the CAS operation of both clients succeeds. There is another reaction sequence: if \( C_1 \) wins the first race, we end up with \( r_1[y_r]. (ff_{y_r} \mid r_1(). r_0[y_r]. (tt_{y_r} \mid r_0(). tt_u)). \)

The coexponentials play a central rôle here: \( i \) is used to represent the fact that this register provides a server session at a unique end point, and \( j \) is used to collect requests for a CAS operation to this single end point. We see that every feature of client-server interaction, as described in points (i)–(iv) of section 2.1.1, is modelled.

The fact we are able to implement a synchronization primitive like CAS shows that the client-server rules also provide an additional safeguard, namely that server acceptance is atomic. While the actual CAS is not an atomic operation—as many things
are happening in parallel—the causal flow of information ensures that the state implicitly remains atomic.

To illustrate the type of atomicity we have, consider an alternative reaction sequence where the two clients are immediately accepted before any other reaction. Fig. 2.4 shows the process topology of the scenario where \( C_0 \) is accepted immediately before \( C_1 \). Each client is connected to the one of the two worker processes \( Q \) with client protocol \( A \), and the worker processes are connected to each other and \( P \) with internal server protocol \( B \). Which specific worker process a client connects to is determined by the client’s position in the queue, before the coexponential reaction 2.3.6 takes place. The clients’ positions in the layout also determine the final result of the reaction up to structural equivalence, even before the computation of the output takes place.

### 2.5 A session-typed language for client-server programming

As the example of the previous section shows, CSLL is a particularly low-level language. This is a feature of essentially all variants of linear logic as used for session typing, including Kokke et al.’s HCP [2019a, Example 2.1], and Wadler’s CP [Atkey, 2017, §2.1] [Atkey et al., 2016, §3.1]. Consequently, the need for higher-level notation to help us write richer examples arises. These in turn will help us illustrate the degree of channel sharing allowed by CSLL. We follow the lead of Wadler [2014, §4] and introduce a higher-level, session-typed functional language, which we call CSGV.

CSGV is a linear \( \lambda \)-calculus augmented with session types and communication primitives. It is based on the influential work of Gay and Vasconcelos [2010]. Over the past decade many variations of this language have been proposed; see e.g. Lindley and Morris [2013, 2016, 2017] and Fowler et al. [2019]. CSGV extends Wadler’s version with primitives for client-server interaction. Like the approach in loc. cit. we do not directly endow CSGV with a semantics. Instead, we formulate a type-preserving translation into CSLL, which indirectly provides an execution mechanism. Naturally, the client-server primitives translate to the coexponential rules of CSLL.

#### 2.5.1 Source Language and the Translation

**Types** The types of CSGV consist of standard functional types and session types. While the former are used to classify values, the latter are used to describe the behaviour of channels. Compared to Wadler [2014] we have
added sum types, and session types for client-server shared channels.

\[
T, \ldots ::= \quad T \rightarrow T \mid T \rightarrow T \mid T + T \mid T \otimes T \mid \text{Unit} \mid T_S
\]

\[
T_S, \ldots ::= \quad !T.T_S \quad \text{(output value of type } T, \text{ then behave as } T_S) \]

\[
\mid ?T.T_S \quad \text{(input value of type } T, \text{ then behave as } T_S) \]

\[
\mid T_S \oplus T_S \quad \text{(select from options)} \]

\[
\mid T_S \& T_S \quad \text{(offer choice)} \]

\[
\mid \text{end}_r \mid \text{end}_l \quad \text{(end-of-session)} \]

\[
\mid \langle T_S \quad \text{(request } T_S \text{ session)} \]

\[
\mid \rangle T_S \quad \text{(serve } T_S \text{ session)} \]

Both the functional types and the session types of CSGV are translated to the linear types of CSLL. The functional part closely follows \cite{Wadler96} in using the ‘call-by-value’ embedding of intuitionistic logic into linear logic \cite{Benton96, Maraist95, Maraist99}. The session types are translated as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket !T.T_S \rrbracket &:= [T] \otimes [T_S] \\
\llbracket ?T.T_S \rrbracket &:= [T] \otimes [T_S] \\
\llbracket T_S \oplus U_L \rrbracket &:= [T_S] \oplus [U_L] \\
\llbracket T_S \& U_L \rrbracket &:= [T_S] \& [U_L] \\
\llbracket \text{end}_r \rrbracket &:= \bot \\
\llbracket \langle T_S \rrbracket &:= \iota [T_S] \\
\llbracket \rangle T_S \rrbracket &:= \iota [T_S] \\
\end{align*}
\]

As noted by \cite{Wadler14}, the connectives translate to the dual of what one might expect. The reason is that channels are used in the opposite way. Consider the session type \( !T.S \): sending a value in CSGV is translated as inputting a channel on which you can send it in CSLL. Similarly, \( \langle S \) does not represent a channel that the server provides, but rather a channel that the server consumes. It is therefore a channel that the client pool provides, and hence it is translated to a client in CSLL.

**Duality**  We define duality on session types in the standard way; it is obviously an involution.

\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket !T.T_S \rrbracket &:= ?T.T_S \\
\llbracket ?T.T_S \rrbracket &:= !T.T_S \\
\llbracket T_S \oplus U_L \rrbracket &:= T_S \& U_L \\
\llbracket T_S \& U_L \rrbracket &:= T_S \oplus U_L \\
\llbracket \iota T_S \rrbracket &:= \langle T_S \rangle \\
\llbracket \langle T_S \rangle \rrbracket &:= \iota T_S \\
\end{align*}
\]

The translation is a homomorphism of involutions:

**Lemma 6.** \( [T_S] = [T_S]^\perp \).

Thus, connecting channels in CSGV will be translated to cuts in linear logic.

**Definition 3.** The set of *unlimited types* is defined inductively as follows.

- \( 1 \) and \( T \rightarrow U \) are unlimited.
2.5. A SESSION-TYPED LANGUAGE FOR CLIENT-SERVER PROGRAMMING

- \( T + U \) and \( T \otimes U \) are unlimited whenever \( T \) and \( U \) are.

All other types are linear.

Values of unlimited types can be discarded and duplicated, because they are translated to CSLL types that admit weakening and contraction. Categorical considerations \cite{Melliès2009, §6.5} lead us to consider \( T \otimes U \) unlimited whenever \( T \) and \( U \) are, which is finer-grained than loc. cit.

**Terms**  CSGV is a linear \( \lambda \)-calculus, extended with constructs for sending and receiving messages.

\[
L, M, N ::= \ x \mid \ast \mid \lambda x. N \mid M \ N \mid (M, N) \mid \text{let } (x, y) = M \text{ in } N \\
\mid \text{inl } M \mid \text{inr } M \mid \text{match } L \text{ with } x.\{M, N\} \\
\text{(functional fragment)} \\
\mid \text{send } M \ N \mid \text{recv } M \\
\mid \text{select}_L \ M \mid \text{select}_R \ M \mid \text{case } L \text{ of } x.\{M, N\} \\
\mid \text{terminate } M \\
\mid \text{connect}(x.\{M; y. N\}) \\
\mid \text{eof}_x \\
\mid \text{fork}_x x'. M \\
\mid \text{serve } y\{L, z. M, f. N\} \\
\text{(send and receive)} \\
\text{(select options)} \\
\text{(terminate)} \\
\text{(connect to y of N)} \\
\text{(end client pool)} \\
\text{(extract client interface)} \\
\text{(server construction)}
\]

**Typing rules**  The environments of CSGV are given by \( \Gamma, \ldots ::= \bullet \mid \Gamma, x : T \). The translation of types is extended to environments pointwise.

Selected typing rules of CSGV are given in fig. 2.5 and fig. 2.6. Most rules follow \cite{Wadler2014, §4.1} to the letter, and are therefore omitted. In the interest of economy we also give the translation to CSLL at the same time. The translation is defined by induction on the typing derivations of CSGV. As the purpose of a CSGV program is the computation of a value of a distinguished type, the translation must privilege a single name over which this value will be returned. Thus, given a choice of name \( z \) and a typing derivation \( \Gamma \vdash M : T \), we write \( \llbracket \Gamma \vdash M : T \rrbracket[z] \) for its translation into CSLL. Somewhat abusively we will sometimes also write \( \llbracket M \rrbracket[z] \vdash \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket[z], z : \llbracket T \rrbracket \) for the translated term. This slight abuse of notation also reveals the intended typing.

The novelty here is in the CSGV rules for client-server interaction, and their translation into CSLL. A name of shared client type \( \uplus T_S \) can be seen as a form of ‘capability’ for talking to the server. \textcolor{green}{ReqW} discards this capability, signalling the end of the client pool. \textcolor{green}{ReqA} uses it to spawn a fresh channel \( x' \) on which a client \( M \) will talk to a server, and returns the capability back to the caller. The client \( M \) itself has type \textcolor{green}{end}; it does not return valuable information, but uses values and channels found in \( \Gamma \).
Figure 2.5: CSGV Typing Rules and Translation to CSLL: linear session part
2.5. A SESSION-TYPED LANGUAGE FOR CLIENT-SERVER PROGRAMMING

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{REQW} & \quad x : \ddagger T_S \vdash \text{eof}_x : \text{end}, \\
& \quad [z] := \frac{0 \vdash 0}{\ddagger x \vdash x : \ddagger [T_S]^\perp} \\
\text{REQA} & \quad \Gamma, x' : T_S \vdash M : \text{end}, \\
& \quad \Gamma, x : \ddagger T_S \vdash \text{fork}_x x'. M : \ddagger T_S, \\
& \quad [z] := \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
& \nu_{uv} ([M]_u \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, x' : [T_S]^\perp, u : \perp, v], \Gamma \vdash 1) \\
& \nu_{uv} ([M]_z \vdash v], \Gamma \vdash 1) \\
& \ddagger x \vdash z \vdash x : \ddagger [T_S]^\perp, z : \ddagger [T_S] \\
& \ddagger x', (\nu_{uv} (z], \Gamma \vdash 1) \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, x' : \ddagger [T_S]^\perp, z : \ddagger [T_S] \\
& \text{HMix2 + QueA} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{SERV} & \quad \Delta \vdash L : T, y : T_S \vdash M : T, \\
& \quad \Delta, x : \ddagger T_S \vdash \text{serve } y \{L, z, M, f, N\} : U, \\
& \quad [u] := \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
& \nu_{uv} ([L]_i \vdash [\Delta]^\perp, i : [T] \quad [N]_u \vdash [\Sigma]^\perp, f : [T]^\perp, u : [U] \\
& \nu_{uv} ([L]_z \vdash [\Delta]^\perp, i : [T] \quad [N]_u \vdash [\Sigma]^\perp, f : [T]^\perp, u : [U] \\
& \nu_{uv} ([M]_z \vdash z : [T]^\perp, y : [T_S]^\perp, z' : [T] \\
& \nu_{uv} ([y]_z \vdash [\Delta]^\perp, y : [T_S]^\perp, [\Sigma]^\perp, u : [U] \\
& \text{Claro} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 2.6: CSGV Typing Rules and Translation to CSLL: shared session part
Dually, \( \Sigma_S \) is the type of a server channel. \( \texttt{Serv} \) constructs a server from three components. \( L \) computes the initial state of the server. Given the current state in \( z \), and a client channel \( y \), \( M \) serves the client listening on \( y \), and then returns the next state of the server. \( N \) finalizes the server. Note that the so-called server ‘state’ here could well be a channel itself, enabling bidirectional interleaving communication—a design we will explore in section 2.5.5.

The \( \texttt{Serv} \) typing rule is quite restrictive, in that it does not allow anything from the environments \( \Delta \) and \( \Sigma \) to be used in the term \( M \) which computes the next state of the server. Fortunately, the following derivable rule allows us to weave some non-linear values of types \( \vec{V} \) in the server.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta \vdash L : T & \quad \vec{v} : \vec{V}, z : T, y : \Sigma_S \vdash M : T & \quad \Sigma, f : T \vdash N : U \\
\text{\( \vec{V} \) unlimited} & \\
\text{serve } y \{ (\vec{v}, L), z', \text{let } (\vec{v}, z) = z' \text{ in } (\vec{v}, M), f', \text{let } (\vec{v}, f) = f' \text{ in } N \} : U \\
\text{serve' } y \{ L, z, M, f, N \}
\end{align*}
\]

We will make crucial use of this derivable rule in a couple of our examples. We also also adopt the common shorthands let \( x = M \) in \( N := (\lambda x. N)M \) and let \( z = M \) in \( N := (\lambda z. N)M \) for fresh \( z : \star \).

### 2.5.2 Functional Data Structure Server

Our primitives can be used to protect a shared functional data structure. Without loss of generality, we consider a server whose state is a purely functional queue \( T \) with operations

\[
\begin{align*}
enq : T \otimes A & \to T & \quad \text{deq} : T \to T \otimes (\text{Unit} + A) & \quad \text{empty} : T
\end{align*}
\]

In particular, \( \text{deq} \) could return \( \text{Unit} \) if the queue is empty. The server will talk to a client via a channel of type \( \Sigma_S := (\forall A. \text{end}_{\Sigma}) \& (\forall (\text{Unit} + A). \text{end}_{\Sigma}) \). One client receives an \( A \) along \( r_0 \), and enqueues it. The other one dequeues an element, and sends it along \( r_1 \).
2.5. A SESSION-TYPED LANGUAGE FOR CLIENT-SERVER PROGRAMMING

\[ L := \text{empty} \]
\[ M_{\text{enq}} := \text{let } (v, y'') = \text{recv } y' \text{ in} \]
\[ \quad \text{let } _{= \text{ terminate } y'' \text{ in } \text{enq}(z, v)} \]
\[ M_{\text{deq}} := \text{let } (v, z') = \text{deq } z \text{ in} \]
\[ \quad \text{let } _{= \text{ terminate } (\text{send } v y') \text{ in } z'} \]
\[ M := \text{case } y \text{ of } y'.f.M_{\text{enq}}, M_{\text{deq}} \]

\[ C_0 := \text{let } (v, r'_0) = \text{recv } r_0 \text{ in} \]
\[ \quad \text{let } _{= \text{ terminate } r'_0 \text{ in}} \]
\[ \quad \text{let } x'_0 = \text{send } v (\text{select}_L x_0) \text{ in } x'_0 \]
\[ C_1 := \text{let } (v, x'_1) = \text{recv } (\text{select}_R x_0) \text{ in} \]
\[ \quad \text{let } _{= \text{ terminate } (\text{send } v r1) \text{ in } x'_1} \]
\[ \text{clients} := \text{let } x = \text{fork}_x x_0. C_0 \text{ in} \]
\[ \quad \text{let } x = \text{fork}_x x_1. C_1 \text{ in } \text{eof}_x \]

We then define server := serve \( y\{L, z, M, f \cdot f\} \), and see that
\[ r_0 : ?A.\text{end}_x, r_1 : !(\text{Unit + A}).\text{end}_x \vdash \text{connect}(x, \text{clients}; y, \text{server}) : T \]

### 2.5.3 Nondeterminism

Unsurprisingly, the races in our system suffice to implement nondeterministic choice. We define \( \mathbb{B} := \text{Unit + Unit} \). We implement \texttt{tt} and \texttt{ff} by the obvious injections, and the conditional by
\[
\Gamma \vdash B : \mathbb{B} \quad \Delta \vdash M : V \quad \Delta \vdash N : V \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{if } B \text{ then } M \text{ else } N \vdash \text{match } B \text{ with } x\{M, N\} \vdash V + E
\]
(for \( x \) fresh). The clients \( C_0, C_1 \) respectively send \texttt{ff} and \texttt{tt} over a channel. We also define a server with a pair of Booleans as internal state. The first component records whether the server has ever received a value. When a value is received it is stored in the second component, and any further values received are discarded.

\[ C_0 := \text{send } \texttt{ff} x_0 \quad M := \text{let } (z_0, z_1) = z \text{ in} \]
\[ C_1 := \text{send } \texttt{tt} x_1 \quad \text{let } (v, y') = \text{recv } y \text{ in} \]
\[ \text{clients} := \text{let } x = \text{fork}_x x_0. C_0 \text{ in} \quad \text{let } _{= \text{ terminate } y' \text{ in}} \]
\[ \quad \text{let } x = \text{fork}_x x_1. C_1 \text{ in} \quad \text{if } z_0 \text{ then } z \text{ else } (\texttt{tt}, v) \]
\[ \text{eof}_x \quad N := \text{let } (f_0, f_1) = f \text{ in } f_1 \]
We define a server := serve \( y \{(ff, ff), z, M, f, N\} \) beginning from \( (ff, ff) \). We then have that

\[
\vdash \text{flip} := \text{connect}(x, \text{clients}; y, \text{server}) : \mathbb{B}
\]

This program is translated to \( [[\text{flip}]]_y \vdash y : 2 \), with reactions \( [[\text{flip}]]_y \rightarrow^* ff_y \) and \( [[\text{flip}]]_y \rightarrow^* tt_y \). We can use this to implement a nondeterministic choice operator:

\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \Gamma \\
Q & \vdash \Gamma \\
\text{choose}(P, Q) := \nu x y ([[\text{flip}]]_y | \text{id}(x; P; Q)) & \vdash \Gamma
\end{align*}
\]

such that \( \text{choose}(P, Q) \rightarrow^* P \) and \( \text{choose}(P, Q) \rightarrow^* Q \).

### 2.5.4 Fork–Join Parallelism

Fork–join parallelism \cite{Conway1963} is a common model of parallelism in which child processes are forked to perform computation simultaneously. Once they have finished, they are joined by the parent process, which collects their work and produces the final result. We assume a ‘heavyweight’ function \( h : A \rightarrow B \) that will run on forked processes, and a relatively less expensive function \( g : B \rightarrow B \rightarrow B \) that will combine their answers. We also assume an initial value \( g_0 : B \), and a list of ‘tasks’ \( xs : [A] \) to process. Of course, \([A]\) is the type of lists of \( A \), and is supported by the operations:

\[
\begin{align*}
nil : [A] & \\
\text{cons} : A \rightarrow [A] \rightarrow [A] & \\
\text{fold}_C : C \rightarrow (C \rightarrow A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow [A] \rightarrow C
\end{align*}
\]

Let

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{clients} & := \text{let } y = \text{fold}_{\nu T_S} c (\lambda x. \lambda v. \text{fork}_x x'. (\text{let } v' = h v \text{ in } \text{send } v' x')) \, xs \text{ in } \\
\text{eof}_y & \\
M & := \text{let } (v, y') = \text{recv}_y \text{ in } \text{let } _ = \text{terminate } y' \text{ in } g z v
\end{align*}
\]

The client protocol is \( T_S := !B.\text{end} \). To form the client pool, we begin with a shared client channel \( c : \nu T_S \). We fold over the list \( xs : [A] \), adding a forked process for each ‘task’ \( v : A \) to the client pool. Each one of these forked processes will compute \( h v : B \), and send it over its fresh channel \( x' : T_S \). We have \( c : \nu T_S \vdash \text{clients} : \text{end} \).

We let server := serve’ \( y\{g_0, z, M, f, f\} \). The server begins with internal state \( g_0 : B \). It nondeterministically receives the result of a computation of \( h \) from each client, and ‘merges’ it into its state using \( g \). In the end, it returns the result. We have \( z : B, y : T_S \vdash M : B \), and thus \( y : [T_S] \vdash \text{server} : B \). We use serve’ to pass unlimited parameters to the server internals.

Putting this system together, we get

\[
\vdash \text{fork-join}(h, g_0, g, xs) := \text{connect}(x, \text{clients}; y, \text{server}) : B
\]
2.5. A SESSION-TYPED LANGUAGE FOR CLIENT-SERVER PROGRAMMING

The fork-join paradigm is often used in industrial parallelization frameworks [Dagum and Menon, 1998, Reinders, 2007, Blumofe et al., 1995, Leijen et al., 2009]. The background languages and type systems usually do not use any logical devices for concurrency. In particular, concurrent behaviour is not controlled by the type system, as it is here. Note that fork-join requires each spawned process to be independent of each other and only communicate with the parent process, which is precisely captured by the linearity restriction of our system.

Another parallel computation model is that of async-finish. It is more expressive than fork-join, as it allows spawned processes to spawn further processes. The whole tree is then joined at the root process, with no regard to the spawning thread of each child. Our system(s) does not support that: in the $\texttt{ReqA}$ rule, the spawned process $M$ is only given a channel $x' : T_S$, which cannot be used to spawn further processes in the same pool. However, it is well-known that nested parallelism is still possible, but each child has to spawn its own instance of a fork-join computation, which does not interfere with the root process.

An even more expressive model is that of futures [Halstead, 1984]. A future is a first-class value that represents a computation running in parallel to the current process. At any point it can be forced to obtain its result; if it has not finished an error may be returned, or the process forcing it may block. While fork-join or async-finish spawned processes are independent of each other, futures may be passed around freely (in any reasonably expressive language) and introduce rich interactions. This seems to be in violation of the linearity restriction of our system(s), and thus cannot be expressed. Nevertheless, the $\texttt{Conn}$ rule can be seen as a very restricted form of future, where the spawned process can only communicate with the parent process. More discussions about the difference between these models is given by Acar [2016].

2.5.5 Keynes’ Beauty Contest

Until this point we have seen only relatively simple examples of client-server interaction. In all cases, the ‘internal server protocol’ we have used has consisted of an unlimited type, the values of which we can replicate or discard. This leads to the false impression that clients access the server one-by-one in a sequential manner, so that clients that connect later are unable to influence the information observed by the earlier ones. In this section we present an example that shows this to be untrue. In particular, if the ‘internal server protocol’ consists of a session type itself, then we witness bidirectional, interleaving behaviour. This distinguishes our systems from those based on manifest sharing [Balzer and Pfenning, 2017].

We present a server implementing the umpire in a Keynesian beauty contest [Keynes, 1936, §12]. Keynes’ beauty contest works as follows. A
newspaper runs a beauty contest in which readers have to pick the prettiest faces from a set of photographs. The competitors are not those pictured, but the readers themselves: if they pick the faces which are judged to be the prettiest by the majority, they will win a prize. Thus, the readers are incentivized to estimate the aesthetics of the majority.

We will implement a restricted version of this scenario, where a pool of clients votes for a Boolean value. The server then counts the votes, and awards a payoff of 0 or 1 (represented by \( \text{ff} \) and \( \text{tt} \) respectively) to each client, indicating whether they voted for the winner. This is obviously impossible if the server handles requests sequentially. In fact, the server will be implemented by spawning a network of interconnected processes, each of which will handle one vote.

We first define the following derived rule. Informally, this rule expresses that a process that uses a channel of type \( T_S \) is also exposing a channel of dual type \( T_S \).

\[
\frac{\Gamma, x : T_S \vdash M : \text{end}, \quad y : T_S \vdash y : T_S}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inv}_x(M) := \text{connect}(x, M; y, y) : T_S}
\]

The client session type is \( C_S := \text{!B.?B.end}_1 \), and the internal server protocol is \( T_S := ?(\mathbb{N} \otimes \mathbb{N}).\text{!B.end}_2 \), where \( \mathbb{N} \) is the type of natural numbers. We assume a bunch of standard functions:

\[
\text{zero} : \mathbb{N} \quad \text{succ} : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \quad \leq : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \to \text{B} \quad \text{eq} : \text{B} \to \text{B} \to \text{B}
\]
where \texttt{eq} checks Boolean values for equality. We let
\[
L := \begin{align*}
&\text{let } w' = \text{send}(\text{zero, zero}) w \text{ in} & \text{(send initial state)} \\
&\text{let } (\_, w'') = \text{recv } w' \text{ in } w'' & \text{(receive final value)}
\end{align*}
\]
\[
N := \begin{align*}
&\text{let } (s, f') = \text{recv } f \text{ in} & \text{(receive final count)} \\
&\text{let } (n_0, n_1) = s \text{ in} & \text{(unpack state)} \\
&\text{let } f'' = \text{send}(n_0 \leq n_1) f' \text{ in} & \text{(compute winner and notify the last worker process)} \\
&\text{terminate } f'' & \text{(close channel)}
\end{align*}
\]
\[
M := \begin{align*}
&\text{let } (s, z') = \text{recv } z \text{ in} & \text{(get state)} \\
&\text{let } (n_t, n_f) = s \text{ in} & \text{(unpack state)} \\
&\text{let } (b, y') = \text{recv } y \text{ in} & \text{(receive a vote)} \\
&\text{let } s' = \text{if } b \text{ then } (\text{succ } n_t, n_f) \text{ else } (n_t, \text{succ } n_f) \text{ in} & \text{(increment the right counter)} \\
&\text{let } w' = \text{send } s' w \text{ in} & \text{(pass new state to next worker process)} \\
&\text{let } (b', w'') = \text{recv } w' \text{ in} & \text{(receive winner from next worker process)} \\
&\text{let } \_ = \text{terminate } (\text{send } (\text{eq } b \ b') y') \text{ in} & \text{(tell competitor if they won, close channel)} \\
&\text{let } \_ = \text{terminate } (\text{send } b' z') \text{ in} & \text{(forward winner on, close channel)} \\
&\_ &
\end{align*}
\]

We define \texttt{server} := \texttt{serve}(y(\text{inv}_w(L), z.\text{inv}_w(M), f. N)} . The components are typed as
\[
\begin{align*}
w : T_S \vdash L : \text{end} & \quad f : T_S \vdash N : 1 \\
w : T_S, z : T_S, y : C_S \vdash M : \text{end} & \quad y : T_S \vdash \text{server} : 1
\end{align*}
\]

The details of this protocol are subtle. The construct \texttt{inv}_x(-) allows us to use programs which only have side-effects as internal server state, by inverting the polarity of one of the channels. The server is initialized by \texttt{L}, which sets the state to be (0, 0). It then listens on the same channel to receive the winner, which it promptly discards. The server finalization \texttt{N} receives the final tally of the votes, computes the winner, sends back the result, and closes the channel.

The component \texttt{M} is used to communicate with each competitor. It receives the state of the server, the competitor’s vote, and increments the appropriate tally. It then passes on this new state to the next worker process \texttt{M}, which will communicate with the next competitor. This sets up an entire network of worker processes \texttt{M}, one to serve each competitor. When the competitors have all cast their votes, \texttt{N} computes the winner, and sends
it back to the last worker process. This process then tells the competitor whether they won, closes the channel to the competitor, and passes on the result to the worker process serving the previous competitor, and so on. At the very end, the winner is passed to the initialization process $L$.

We can then define a number of competitors $x_i : !\mathbb{B}. ?\mathbb{B}. \text{end}_i \vdash C_i : \text{end}_i$ who will cast their votes by sending a Boolean value and receive a payoff along $x_i$. These can be combined into a client pool, much in the same way as in previous examples.

If we have two such competitors $C_0$ and $C_1$ merged in a pool, and we connect them to server, we will obtain a process topology of the form illustrated in the schematic diagram of fig. 2.7. Compared with fig. 2.4 this diagram is intuitive but loose on accuracy. Details such as end$_i$ and end$_j$ are left out. We have also spelled out the protocols internals. For example, the server internal protocol $T_S$ is indicated by a forward arrow $N \otimes N$ and a backward arrow $B$.

### 2.6 Related work

In addition to the general related works as discussed in chapter 1, following are ones more particular to the present extension.

**Clients and Servers in Linear Logic** Typing client-server interaction has been a thorn in the side of session types and Linear Logic. All previous attempts rely on some version of the Mix rule. Both Wadler [2014, §3.4] and Caires and Pérez [2017, Ex. 2.4] use Mix to combine clients into client pools. Kokke et al. implicitly use Mix to type an otherwise untypable client pool in HCP [Kokke et al., 2019a, Ex. 3.7]. Remarkably, none of these calculi demonstrate stateful server behaviour, as we predicted using a semantic argument in section 2.1.1.

The present extension centers around the idea that client pool should be represented as a collection of disjoint processes, while the corresponding server internally connected. The same idea was independently developed.

---

![Figure 2.7: Layout of the Keynesian beauty contest, after coexponential reactions but before other reactions. Boxes represents processes whose names are at the center of the boxes. Arrows represents directed messages between processes with types of the data annotated. Labels on edges of boxes are the names of the channels to the processes.](image)

---

7This has been confirmed to us by the authors.
2.6. RELATED WORK

by Kokke et al. [2019b]. They drew inspiration from Bounded Linear Logic [Girard et al., 1992] to formulate a system for nondeterministic client-server interaction. They use types of the form ?ₙA (standing for \( n \) copies of \( A \) delimited by \( \otimes \)) and !ₙA (standing for \( n \) copies of \( A \) delimited by \( \otimes \)). !ₙA represents a pool of \( n \) disjoint clients with protocol \( A \), and ?ₙA a server that can serve exactly \( n \) clients with protocol \( A \). While this is consistent with disjoint-vs.-connected concurrency, their system is limited to serving a specific number of clients in each session. Thus, it fails to satisfy criterion (i) in section 2.1.1, and does not form a satisfactory model.

Differential Linear Logic The rules for \( \otimes \) given in §2.2.2 are almost the same as the coweakening, codereliction and cocontraction rules for \(!\) in Differential Linear Logic (DiLL) [Ehrhard, 2018]. DiLL is equipped with nondeterministic reduction and formal sums, and is believed to have something to do with concurrency. Ehrhard and Laurent [2010] have produced an embedding of the finitary π-calculus into DiLL, though that encoding has been criticized [Mazza, 2018]. A type of client-server interactions—namely the encoding of ML-style reference cells into session types—has been encoded by Castellan et al. [2020] in a system based on the rules of DiLL. This work relies on both the costructural rules and Mix, so it is not clear which device primarily augments expressive power. Our work shows that something akin to the costructural rules of DiLL arises from the wish to form client pools. The exact relationship between coexponentials and DiLL remains to be determined.
Appendices

2.A Coexponentials and Logical equivalences

We may derive the following logical equivalences about coexponentials, which are dual to similar laws for the exponentials.

\[ \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \]

\[ \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \quad \vdash \frac{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \]

**Theorem 7.** In CLL with Mix and BiCut, exponentials and coexponentials coincide up to provability. That is: if we replace ? and ! in the rules for the exponentials with \( \& \) and \( \cdot \) respectively, the resultant rule is provable using the coexponential rules, and vice versa.

**Proof.** We first show that the exponential rules are derivable using coexponential rules under the substitution \( ? \mapsto \& \). The weakening rule \( \vdash \Gamma, ?A \)

\[ \vdash \frac{\vdash \Gamma}{\vdash \emptyset, \emptyset A} \]

is mapped to the derivation \( \vdash \Gamma, \&A \). The dereliction rule \( \vdash \Gamma, ?A, ?A \)

is just \( \&d \), and the contraction rule \( \vdash \Gamma, ?A \)

\[ \vdash \frac{\vdash \Gamma, \&A, \&A}{\vdash \Gamma, \&A} \]

is mapped to

\[ \vdash \frac{\vdash \Gamma, \&A, \&A}{\vdash \Gamma, \&A} \]

\[ \vdash \frac{\vdash \Gamma, \&A, \&A}{\vdash \Gamma, \&A} \]

This leaves promotion. The forklores (iii–v) can be generalised to a biimplication

\[ A_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes A_n \rightarrow A_1 \otimes \cdot \ldots \otimes A_n \quad A_1 \otimes \cdot \ldots \otimes A_n \rightarrow A_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes A_n \]

49
and hence sequents \( \vdash \bigotimes \Delta^\perp, \bigotimes \Delta \) and \( \vdash \otimes \Delta^\perp, \Delta \) for any \( \Delta \). With these in hand, we can interpret the promotion rule \( \vdash ?\Gamma, A \vdash !\Gamma \) by the derivation

\[
\vdash \bigotimes ?\Gamma, \bigotimes !\Gamma \quad \vdash \bigotimes ?\Gamma, A \quad \text{Cut}
\]
\[
\vdash \bigotimes ?\Gamma, A \quad \vdash \bigotimes \otimes ?\Gamma, A \quad \text{Cut}
\]

In the opposite direction, we show that the coexponentials rules are derivable using exponentials rules under the substitution \( ? \mapsto \otimes \). As the folklores ensure Mix0 is derivable in this system, we can interpret the weakening rule \( \vdash \otimes A \vdash w \) by \( \vdash ?A \vdash w \). The dereliction rule \( ?d \) is simply \( \vdash \Gamma, ?A \vdash \Delta, ?A \) and the contraction rule \( \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, ?A \vdash ic \) is interpreted by the derivation

\[
\vdash \Gamma, ?A \quad \vdash \Delta, ?A \quad \text{Mix}
\]
\[
\vdash \Gamma, \Delta, ?A \quad \text{?c}
\]
\[
\vdash \bigotimes ?\Gamma, A
\]

Finally, the rule \( \vdash \bigotimes ?\Gamma, iA \vdash i \) is interpreted in a way similar to promotion, but with the cuts replacing \( \otimes \) with \( \otimes \) happening in the opposite order.

\[\Box\]

2.B Translation of CSGV to CSLL: Omitted rules

Of the functional fragment of CSGV the types are translated to CSLL:

\[
[T \to U] := [T]^\perp \otimes [U] \\
[T + U] := [T] \oplus [U] \\
[T \otimes U] := [T] \otimes [U] \\
[T \odot U] := !([T]^\perp \otimes [U]) \\
[\text{Unit}] := 1
\]

Omitted rules of CSGV with their translation into CSLL are shown in fig. 2.B.1, fig. 2.B.2 and fig. 2.B.3. Note that some translations use lemma 16.
2.B. TRANSLATION OF CSGV TO CSLL: OMITTED RULES

\[
\begin{cases}
\Gamma, x : T \vdash L : U \\
\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. L : T \rightarrow U
\end{cases}
\]
\[
[x] := \frac{[L]_x \vdash [\Gamma]^x, x : [T]^x, z : [U]}{z(x)}. [L]_x \vdash [\Gamma]^x, z : [T]^x \otimes [U]
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
\Gamma \vdash M : T \rightarrow U \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash M : N : U
\end{cases}
\]
\[
x] := \frac{[M]_x \vdash [\Gamma]^x, z : [T]^x \otimes [U] \quad [N]_{x'} \vdash [\Delta]^x, z' : [T] \\
x \leftrightarrow y \vdash x : [U], y : [U]^x \otimes \bigotimes \nu y \left((V)_{x}, y \leftrightarrow y)\right) \vdash [\Gamma]^x, [\Delta]^x, x : [U]
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
\overrightarrow{I} \\
\vec{V} \vdash L : T \rightarrow U \\
\vec{V} \text{ unlimited}
\end{cases}
\]
\[
[x] := \frac{[L]_x \vdash [\vec{V}]^x, z : ![T]^x \otimes [U]}{\nu \left((\vec{V})_{x}, x \leftrightarrow y) \vdash [\vec{V}]^x, z : ![T]^x \otimes [U]}
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
\overrightarrow{E} \\
\Gamma \vdash L : T \rightarrow U \\
\Gamma \vdash L : T \rightarrow U
\end{cases}
\]
\[
x] := \frac{[L]_x \vdash [\Gamma]^x, z : ![T]^x \otimes [U]}{y'(\text{use})., y x \leftrightarrow y \vdash x : [T]^x \otimes [U], y' : ![T] \otimes [U]^x \otimes \nu z y' \left((\vec{V})_{x}, y x \leftrightarrow y) \vdash [\Gamma]^x, x : [T]^x \otimes [U]
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
\vec{V} \vdash L : T \rightarrow U \\
\vec{V} \text{ unlimited}
\end{cases}
\]
\[
[x] := \frac{[L]_x \vdash [\Gamma]^x, z : ![T]^x \otimes [U]}{\nu \left((\vec{V})_{x}, x \leftrightarrow y) \vdash [\vec{V}]^x, z : ![T]^x \otimes [U]}
\]

Figure 2.B.1: Translation from CSGV to CSLL, functional fragments, Part one
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
\Gamma, x_0 : U, x_1 : L : T & U \text{ unlimited} \\
\Gamma, x : U \vdash L[x/x_0][x/x_1] : T
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ z := \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
L \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, x_0 : [U]^\perp, x_1 : [U]^\perp, z : [T] \\
x_0'[\text{use}], x_0x_1'[\text{use}], x_1[[L]_z \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, x'_0 : [U]_z^\perp, x'_1 : [U]_z^\perp, z : [T] \\
x'_0[\text{DUP}](x'_0), x'_0x_1'[\text{use}], x_0x_1'[\text{use}], x_1[[L]_z \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, x' : [U]_z^\perp, z : [T] \\
?x[x'].x'[\text{DUP}](x'_0), x'_0x_1'[\text{use}], x_0x_1'[\text{use}], x_1[[L]_z \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, x : [U]_z^\perp, z : [T] \\
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
\otimes I \\
\Gamma \vdash M : T \quad \Delta \vdash N : U \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash (M, N) : T \otimes U
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ z' := \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
[M]_z \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, z : [T] \\
[N]_z \vdash [\Delta]_z^\perp, z' : [U] \\
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ z'[z] : (([M]_z \mid [N]_z') \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, [\Delta]_z^\perp, z : [T] \otimes [U] \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
\otimes E \\
\Gamma \vdash M : T \otimes U \quad \Delta, x : T, y : U \vdash N : V \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{let } (x, y) = M \text{ in } N : V
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ z := \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
[M]_z \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, z' : [T] \otimes [U] \\
[N]_z \vdash [\Delta]_z^\perp, x : [T]_z^\perp, y : [U]_z^\perp, z : [V]
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ \nu z' y ([M]_z' \mid y(x), [N]_z) \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, [\Delta]_z^\perp, z : [V] \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
+I_L \\
\Gamma \vdash M : T \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } M : T + U
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ z := \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
[M]_z \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, z : [T] \\
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ z[z, [L], [M]_z \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, z : [T] \oplus [U] \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
+I_E \\
\Gamma \vdash L : T + U \quad \Delta, x : T \vdash M : V \quad \Delta, x : U \vdash N : V \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{match } L \text{ with } x. \{M, N\} : V
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]
\[ z := \]
\[
\left\lfloor \begin{array}{r}
[L]_y \vdash [\Gamma]_y^\perp, y : [T] \oplus [U] \\
[M]_z \vdash [\Delta]_z^\perp, x : [T]_z^\perp, z : [V] \\
[N]_z \vdash [\Delta]_z^\perp, x : [U]_z^\perp, z : [V] \\
x. \text{case } L. [M]_z, R. [N]_z \vdash [\Delta]_z^\perp, [T]_z^\perp \oplus [U]_z^\perp, z : [V] \\
\nu x y ([L]_y' \mid x. \text{case } L : [M]_z, R : [N]_z) \vdash [\Gamma]_z^\perp, [\Delta]_z^\perp, z : [V]
\end{array} \right\rfloor \]

Figure 2.B.2: Translation from CSGV to CSLL, functional fragments, Part two
2.C. CSLL: Metatheoretic Proofs

Proof of lemma \( \Box \). By induction on \( P \equiv Q \). We prove one direction, the other one being entirely analogous. Moreover, the congruence cases are trivial. \( P \mid 0 \equiv P \), commutativity, and associativity follow from the structure of hyperenvironments. Link-commutativity follows from the involutive property of \((-)^{\perp} \).

CASE(Res-Par).

Then \( P = \nu xy (R \mid S) \) and \( Q = R \mid \nu xy S \) where \( x, y \notin \text{EN}(R) \). We must then have that \( R \vdash H \) where \( x, y \notin H \) (using lemma \( \Box \)) and \( S \vdash \mathcal{I} \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid \Delta, y : A^{\perp} \), where \( \mathcal{G} = H \mid \mathcal{I} \mid \Gamma, \Delta \). Hence, we can derive that \( Q = R \mid \nu xy S \vdash \mathcal{G} \).

CASE(Res-Res).

Then \( P = \nu xy \nu zw R \) and \( Q = \nu zw \nu xy R \) for some \( R \). We must invert \( P \vdash \mathcal{G} \). This generates many cases: for example, it could be that \( R \vdash \mathcal{G}' \mid \Gamma, x : A, z : B \mid \Delta, y : A^{\perp} \mid \Sigma, w : B^{\perp} \), where \( \mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}' \mid \Gamma, \Delta, \Sigma \), whence \( Q = \nu zw \nu xy R \vdash \mathcal{G} \). The other cases are similar.

CASE(Res-Pre). We show the case for \( \nu xy z[w]. P \equiv z[w], \nu xy P \), with that
of other prefixes being similar. We have

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Sigma, y : C^\perp | \Gamma, z : A, x : C | \Delta, w : B}{z[w]. P \vdash \Sigma, y : C^\perp | \Gamma, z : B \otimes A, x : C, \Delta}
\]

and therefore

\[
\frac{\nu x y z[w]. P \vdash \Sigma, \Gamma, z : B \otimes A, \Delta}{\nu x y z[w]. P \vdash \Sigma, \Gamma, z : B \otimes A, \Delta}
\]

the other case has \(x, y, z, w\) in separate environments and are simpler.

**Case (Pre-Par).** We show the case for \(x[y]. (P \mid Q) \equiv P \mid x[y]. Q\), with that of other prefixes being similar. We have

\[
\frac{\nu x y P \vdash \Sigma, \Gamma, y : B}{x[y]. (P \mid Q) \vdash \Sigma, \Gamma, x : B \otimes A}
\]

and therefore

\[
\frac{\nu x y P \vdash \Sigma, \Gamma, z : B \otimes A, \Delta}{\nu x y P \vdash \Sigma, \Gamma, z : B \otimes A, \Delta}
\]

**Lemma 8.** If \(P \equiv Q\), then \(P\) is canonical if and only if \(Q\) is canonical.

**Proof.** Straightforward by induction on \(P \equiv Q\).

**Lemma 9** (Separation). If \(T \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1}\), then there exist \(T_i \vdash \Gamma_i\) for \(0 \leq i < n\) such that \(T \equiv T_0 \mid \cdots \mid T_{n-1}\). Moreover, if \(T\) is canonical, then every \(T_i\) is canonical.

**Proof.** We prove the first claim by induction on \(T \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1}\). We show only the following cases; all other cases are either trivial or similar.

**Case (HMix2).** Then \(T = P \mid Q\), and after appropriately reordering the hyperenvironment we have \(P \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{m-1}\) and \(Q \vdash \Gamma_m \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1}\) with \(m \leq n\). By the IH we have \(T_i \vdash \Gamma_i\) for \(0 \leq i < n\), with \(P \equiv T_0 \mid \cdots \mid T_{m-1}\), and \(Q \equiv T_m \mid \cdots \mid T_{n-1}\). We then have \(P \mid Q \equiv T_0 \mid \cdots \mid T_{n-1} \equiv T\), as \(\equiv\) is a congruence.
2.C. CSL: METATHEORETIC PROOFS

Case (Cut). Then $T = \nu xy \; P$, and after appropriately reordering the hyperenvironment we have

$$ P \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-2} \mid \Delta_0, x : A \mid \Delta_1, y : A' $$

where $\Gamma_{n-1} = \Delta_0, \Delta_1$. By the IH we have $P_i \vdash \Gamma_i$ for $0 \leq i < n - 1$, $P_{n-1} \vdash \Delta_0, x : A$, and $P_n \vdash \Delta_1, y : A'$, with $P \equiv P_0 \mid \cdots \mid P_n$. The result follows, as $\nu xy (P_{n-1} \mid P_n) \vdash \Gamma_{n-1}$. and by (Res-Par)

$$ \nu xy \; P \equiv \nu xy (P_0 \mid \cdots \mid P_{n-1} \mid P_n) \equiv P_0 \mid \cdots \mid \nu xy (P_{n-1} \mid P_n) $$

Case (Tensor). Then $T = x[y]. \; P$, and after appropriately reordering the hyperenvironment we have

$$ P \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \Gamma_{n-2} \mid \Delta_0, x : A \mid \Delta_1, y : B $$

where $\Gamma_{n-1} = \Delta_0, \Delta_1$. By the IH we have $P_i \vdash \Gamma_i$ for $0 \leq i < n - 1$, $P_{n-1} \vdash \Delta_0, x : A$ and $P_n \vdash \Delta_1, y : B$ with $P \equiv P_0 \mid \cdots \mid P_n$. The result follows, as $x[y], (P_{n-1} \mid P_n) \vdash \Gamma_{n-1}, x : B \otimes A$, and by ()

The second claim follows by lemma 8, and the fact subterms of canonical terms are canonical.

Lemma 10 (Local Progress). If $P \vdash \Gamma, x : A$ and $Q \vdash \Delta, y : A'$ and both $P$ and $Q$ are canonical, then there exists an $R$ such that $\nu xy (P \mid Q) \rightarrow R$.

Proof. By induction on $P$ and $Q$. Note the two are symmetric which we will exploit to omit some cases. The type judgment implies neither $P$ nor $Q$ can be $\bot$. They cannot be of the form $\nu xy \; S$ either, for they would not be canonical.

- If $P = P_0 \mid P_1$, then it must be that $P_1 = \bot$ without loss of generality. We have that $P_0 \mid \bot \equiv P_0$ by Par-Unr. Apply induction hypothesis on $P_0$ we get $\nu xy (P_0 \mid Q) \rightarrow R$. Use Eq we have $\nu xy (P \mid Q) \rightarrow R$. Similar when $Q = Q_0 \mid Q_1$.

- If $P = a \leftrightarrow b$, it must be that $x = b$, so we can reduce by Link. Similar for $Q$.

- The remaining scenarios are where $P = \pi_z. \; P'$, or $P = \; z. \text{case} \{ l : P_0, r : P_1 \}$ or $P = !z \{ \xi', P' \}$, and similarly $Q = \pi_w. \; Q'$, or $Q = \; w. \text{case} \{ l : Q_0, r : Q_1 \}$ or $Q = !w \{ \eta', Q' \}$. If $z = x$ and $w = y$, then one of the reaction axioms apply; otherwise we can assume WLOG that $z \neq x$ (and of course $z \neq y$), and take cases of $P$.

  - If $P = \pi_z. \; P'$, we have that $\nu xy (\pi_z. \; P' \mid Q) \equiv \nu xy \; \pi_z. \; (P' \mid Q) \equiv \pi_z. \; \nu xy \; (P' \mid Q)$, given by Pre-Par and Res-Pre accordingly. Note
that in the second equivalence, \( \pi_z \) and \( \nu x y \) do not cross \( \text{FN}(P' \mid Q) \) because the left hand side is well-typed. By induction hypothesis we have \( \nu x y \, (P' \mid Q) \rightarrow R \), we therefore have \( \nu x y \, (P \mid Q) \rightarrow \pi_z \, R \) by \( \text{PR} \) and \( \text{Eq} \).

- If \( P = z \, \text{case}\{1 : P_0, r : P_1\} \), the commuting conversion \( \text{Case-Comm} \) applies.

- If \( P = \nu y \, (z \, \{\bar{z}, P'\} \mid Q) \) where \( x \in \bar{z} \). We know \( x : A = \top B \) for some \( B \) and thus \( y : A^\bot = \top B^\bot \). We check if \( w = y \). If so, we have \( Q = \nu w \{\bar{w'}, Q'\} \) and thus \( \text{OfCourse-Comm} \) applies; otherwise, we know that \( Q \) cannot be of the form \( \nu w \{\bar{w'}, Q'\} \) where \( y \in \bar{w'} \) (because \( y : \top B^\bot \) breaks \( \text{OfCourse} \) requirement that \( w^\prime : \top \bar{B} \)), which means \( Q = \pi w Q' \) or \( Q = w \, \text{case}\{1 : Q_0, r : Q_1\} \) and can be handled similarly as the previous two cases.

\[ \square \]

**Theorem 11** (Progress). If \( R \vdash \mathcal{G} \) then either \( R \) is canonical, or there exists \( R' \) such that \( R \rightarrow R' \).

**Proof.** By induction on \( R \vdash \mathcal{G} \).

- If \( R = 0 \) or \( x \leftrightarrow y \), then it is canonical.

- Suppose \( R = P \mid Q \). If both \( P \) and \( Q \) are canonical, then so is \( R \). Otherwise, if \( P \) is not canonical, then by the IH we have \( P \rightarrow P' \) for some \( R' \), and thus \( P \mid Q \rightarrow P' 
\mid Q \) by \( \text{PARL} \). Similarly for \( Q \).

- Suppose \( R = \pi y \, P \). If \( P \) is canonical then so is \( R \). Otherwise \( P \) is not canonical, and by the IH \( P \rightarrow P' \), and thus \( \pi y \, P \rightarrow \pi y \, P' \) for some \( P' \) by \( \text{PRE} \).

- Suppose \( R = y \, \text{case}\{l : P, r : Q\} \) or \( R = \nu y \{\bar{w'}, P\} \), then it is canonical.

- Suppose \( R = \nu x y \, P \), with \( P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid \Delta, y : A^\bot \). If \( P \) is not canonical then by the IH we have \( P \rightarrow P' \) for some \( P' \), and thus \( \nu x y \, P \rightarrow \nu x y \, P' \) by \( \text{Res} \). If \( P \) is canonical, by lemma 10 we have that \( P \equiv P_0 \mid \cdots \mid P_n \mid P_{n+1} \) where \( P_n \vdash \Gamma, x : A \) and \( P_{n+1} \vdash \Delta, y : A^\bot \). Note that both \( P_n \) and \( P_{n+1} \) are canonical. Hence we have \( R \equiv \nu x y \, (P_0 \mid \cdots \mid P_{n+1}) \). By \( \text{Res-PAR} \) and lemma 12 we obtain \( R \equiv P_0 \mid \cdots \mid P_{n-1} \mid \nu x y \, (P_n \mid P_{n+1}) \). Local progress (lemma 10) yields \( \nu x y \, (P_n \mid P_{n+1}) \rightarrow R' \), which gives \( R \rightarrow P_0 \mid \cdots \mid P_{n-1} \mid R' \) by \( \text{PARL} \).

\[ \square \]

**Lemma 12.** If \( P \vdash \mathcal{G} \), then \( \text{FN}(P) = \text{FN}() \).
2.C. CSLL: METATHETORETIC PROOFS

Proof. Straightforward by induction on \( P \vdash G \).

\[\text{Lemma} \ 13. \text{ If } P \vdash G \ | \ G, y : A \text{ and } x \notin G, \Gamma, \text{ then } P[x/y] \vdash G \ | \ G, x : A. \]

Proof. Straightforward by induction on \( P \vdash G \ | \ G, y : A \).

\[\text{Theorem} \ 14 \ (\text{Preservation}). \text{ If } P \vdash G \text{ and } P \rightarrow Q, \text{ then } Q \vdash G. \]

Proof. By induction on \( P \rightarrow Q \). We show the nontrivial cases of top-level cuts, and the commuting conversions.

\[\text{Case (Eq). Suppose } P \equiv P' \rightarrow Q' \equiv Q. \text{ Then the result follows by the IH and two applications of lemma } 13\]

\[\text{Case (Case-Comm). The redex is } vxy (z \text{.case} \{l:P_0, r:P_1\} | Q) \text{ and typed.}\]

\[
P_0 \vdash \Gamma, x : C, z : A \quad P_1 \vdash \Gamma, x : C, z : B
\]

\[
z \text{.case} \{l:P_0, r:P_1\} \vdash \Gamma, x : C, z : A \& B \quad Q \vdash \Delta, y : C^\perp
\]

\[
vxy (z \text{.case} \{l:P_0, r:P_1\} | Q) \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, z : A \& B
\]

and therefore

\[
vxy (P_0 | Q) \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, z : A \quad vxy (P_1 | Q) \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, z : B
\]

\[
z \text{.case} \{l:vxy (P_0 | Q), r:vxy (P_1 | Q)\} \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, z : A \& B
\]

\[\text{Case (OfCourse-Comm). The redex is } vxy (l \{x \overline{w}. P \} | !y(\overline{v}. Q)) \text{ and typed.}\]

\[
P \vdash \overline{w} : ?\overline{B}, z : A, x : \?C
\]

\[
l \{x \overline{w}. P \} \vdash \overline{w} : ?\overline{B}, z : !A, x : \?C
\]

\[
vxy (l \{x \overline{w}. P \} | !y(\overline{v}. Q)) \vdash \overline{w} : ?\overline{B}, z : ?A, \overline{v} : ?\overline{D}
\]

and therefore

\[
P \vdash \overline{w} : ?\overline{B}, z : A, x : \?C
\]

\[
l \{x \overline{v}. Q \} \vdash \overline{v} : ?\overline{D}, y : \?C^\perp
\]

\[
vxy (P | !y(\overline{v}. Q)) \vdash \overline{w} : ?\overline{B}, z : A, \overline{v} : ?\overline{D}
\]

\[
l \{x \overline{v}. vxy (P | !y(\overline{v}. Q))\} \vdash \overline{w} : ?\overline{B}, z : ?A, \overline{v} : ?\overline{D}
\]

\[\text{Case (Link). Then the redex is } vxy (z \leftrightarrow x | P) \text{ and the last steps of the typing derivation must have been} \]

\[
z \leftrightarrow x \vdash z : A^\perp, x : A
\]

\[
P \vdash G \ | \ G, y : A^\perp
\]

\[
z \leftrightarrow x \vdash P \vdash z : A^\perp, x : A \vdash G \ | \ G, y : A^\perp
\]

\[
vxy (z \leftrightarrow x | P) \vdash G \ | \ G, z : A^\perp
\]

and therefore \( P[z/y] \vdash G \ | \ G, z : A^\perp \) by lemma 13 because \( z \notin \text{Fn}(P) \).

(otherwise the redex would not be well-typed)
Case (One-Bot). Then the redex is \( \nu xy \ (x, P | y[]. Q) \) and the last steps of the typing derivation must have been

\[
\begin{align*}
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma & \quad Q \vdash \mathcal{H} \\
x[]. P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, x : \bot & \quad y[]. Q \vdash \mathcal{H} | y : \bot \\
\nu xy (x[]. P | y[]. Q) \vdash \mathcal{G} | \mathcal{H} | \Gamma
\end{align*}
\]

Hence, we have

\[
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma \\
Q \vdash \mathcal{H} \\
P | Q \vdash \mathcal{G} | \mathcal{H} | \Gamma
\]

Case (Tensor-Par). Then the redex is \( \nu xy x[z]. P | y(w). Q, \) and the last steps of the typing derivation must have been

\[
\begin{align*}
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, z : A | \Delta, x : B & \quad Q \vdash \mathcal{H} | \Sigma, w : A^\bot, y : B^\bot \\
x[z]. P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, \Delta, x : A \otimes B & \quad y(w). Q \vdash \mathcal{H} | \Sigma, y : A^\bot \otimes B^\bot \\
\nu xy (x[z]. P | y(w). Q) \vdash \mathcal{G} | \mathcal{H} | \Gamma, \Delta, \Sigma
\end{align*}
\]

so that \( \mathcal{G} = \Gamma, \Delta, \Sigma. \) Therefore, we can infer that

\[
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, z : A | \Delta, x : B \\
Q \vdash \mathcal{H} | \Sigma, w : A^\bot, y : B^\bot \\
\nu xy \nu zw (P | Q) \vdash \mathcal{G} | \mathcal{H} | \Gamma, \Delta, \Sigma
\]

Case (PlusL-With). Then the redex is \( \nu xy (x[l]. P | y. \text{case}\{l:Q_l, r:Q_r\}), \) and the last steps of the typing derivation must have been

\[
\begin{align*}
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, x : A & \quad Q_l \vdash \Delta, y : A^\bot \\
x[l]. P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, x : A \otimes B & \quad Q_r \vdash \Delta, y : B^\bot \\
\nu xy (x[l]. P | y. \text{case}\{l:Q_l, r:Q_r\}) \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, \Delta
\end{align*}
\]

Hence,

\[
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, x : A \\
\nu xy (P | Q_l) \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, \Delta
\]

Case (Claro-QueW). This is the case of an empty client pool. The redex must be

\[
\nu xy (\langle i \rangle[]. S | \langle y\{z, z', y'. Q\}(i, f) \rangle P)
\]

and the last steps in the typing derivation must have been

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{D} \vdash \mathcal{G} | x : \langle i \rangle A \\
P \vdash \mathcal{H} | \Delta, i : B | \Sigma, f : B^\bot & \quad Q \vdash z : B^\bot, z' : B, y' : A^\bot \\
\nu xy (\mathcal{D} | \langle y\{z, z', y'. Q\}(i, f) \rangle P) \vdash \mathcal{G} | \mathcal{H} | \Delta, \Sigma
\end{align*}
\]

CLARO

\[
\text{Cut}
\]

\[
\text{Cut}
\]
2.C. CSLL: METATHEORETIC PROOFS

where $D := \{x\}. S \vdash g \mid x : A$. Hence,

$$
S \vdash S \vdash P \vdash H \mid \Delta, i : B \mid \Sigma, f : B^\perp \\
\nu \phi P \vdash H \mid \Delta, \Sigma
$$

$S \mid \nu \phi P \vdash g \mid H \mid \Delta, \Sigma$

Case (Claro-QueA). Then the redex is

$$
\nu xy(\iota[x]. S \mid \nu y\{z, z', y\} Q(i, f). P)
$$

The last few steps in the typing derivation must have been

$D \vdash g \mid \Gamma, \Gamma', x : \iota A$

$P \vdash H \mid \Delta, i : B \mid \Sigma, f : B^\perp \quad Q \vdash z : B^\perp, z' : B, y' : A^\perp$

$\nu xy(D \mid \nu y\{z, z', y\} Q(i, f). P) \vdash g \mid H \mid \Gamma, \Gamma', \Delta, \Sigma$

where

$$D := \{x\}. S \vdash g \mid \Gamma, x : \iota A \mid \Gamma', x' : A$$

Therefore,

$$
S \vdash g \mid \Gamma, x : \iota A \mid \Gamma', x' : A \\
D \vdash H \mid \Delta, y' : A, \Sigma, y : \iota A^\perp \\
\nu xy \nu x' y' (S \mid D) \vdash g \mid H \mid \Gamma, \Gamma', \Delta, \Sigma
$$

where $D$ is

$$
\nu y (P \mid Q) \vdash H \mid \Delta, z' : B, y' : A^\perp \mid \Sigma, f : B^\perp \\
Q \vdash z : B^\perp, z' : B, y' : A^\perp \\
\nu y\{z, z', y\} (z', f). (\nu y (P \mid Q)) \vdash H \mid \Delta, y' : A^\perp, \Sigma, y : \iota A^\perp
$$

Case (OfCourse-WhyNotW).

$$
P \vdash g \mid \Gamma \quad Q \vdash \varepsilon : \varepsilon B, y : A^\perp \\
\nu xy (x[\text{disp}]. P \mid \nu y\{z, Q\} \mid \varepsilon B, y) : \varepsilon B^\perp \\
\nu xy (x[\text{disp}]. P \mid \nu y\{z, Q\}) \vdash g \mid \Gamma, \varepsilon : \varepsilon B$$

and therefore

$$
P \vdash g \mid \Gamma \quad \varepsilon [\text{disp}]. P \vdash g \mid \Gamma, \varepsilon : \varepsilon B$$
CHAPTER 2. CLIENT-SERVER SESSIONS IN LINEAR LOGIC

Case (OfCourse-WhyNotD).

\[
\frac{P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x' : A}{x[\text{use}], x' P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : ?A} \quad \frac{Q \vdash \hat{z} : ?B, y : A^\perp}{!y(\hat{z}, Q) \vdash \hat{z} : ?B, y : !A^\perp}
\]

\[\nu xy (x[\text{use}], x' P \mid !y(\hat{z}, Q)) \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \hat{z} : ?B\]

and therefore

\[
\frac{P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x' : A}{\nu x' y (P \mid Q) \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \hat{z} : ?B}\]

Case (OfCourse-WhyNotC).

\[
\frac{P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x_0 : ?A, x_1 : ?A}{x[\text{dup}] (x_0), x_1 P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : ?A} \quad \frac{Q \vdash \hat{z} : ?B, y : A^\perp}{!y(\hat{z}, Q) \vdash \hat{z} : ?B, y : !A^\perp}
\]

\[\nu xy (x[\text{dup}] (x_0), x_1 P \mid !y(\hat{z}, Q)) \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \hat{z} : ?B\]

and therefore

\[
\frac{D \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, \hat{z}_0 : ?B, \hat{z}_1 : ?B}{\nu \hat{z}_0 [\text{dup}] (\hat{z}_0). \nu \hat{z}_1 D \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \hat{z} : ?B}\]

where \(\mathcal{D}\) is

\[
\frac{Q[z_0/z][y_0/y] \vdash \hat{z}_0 : ?B, y_0 : A^\perp}{!y_0(\hat{z}_0, Q[z_0/z][y_0/y]) \vdash \hat{z}_0 : ?B, y_0 : !A^\perp}
\]

\[
\frac{!y_1(\hat{z}_1, Q[z_1/z][y_1/y]) \vdash \hat{z}_1 : ?B, y_1 : !A^\perp}{\nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (P \mid !y_1(\hat{z}_1, Q[z_1/z][y_1/y]) \mid !y_0(\hat{z}_0, Q[z_0/z][y_0/y])) \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \hat{z}_0 : ?B, \hat{z}_1 : ?B}
\]

\[\square\]

Lemma 15. \(\llbracket T_S \rrbracket = \llbracket T_S \rrbracket^\perp\).

Proof. By simple induction. \(\square\)

Lemma 16. If \(T\) is unlimited, we have the following derivable rule in CSLL.

\[\text{Positive}\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x' : \llbracket T \rrbracket^\perp}{\exists x[x'], P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : \llbracket T \rrbracket^\perp}
\]
The above lemma means that all unlimited types enjoy contraction and weakening. Some session types, such as end?, also enjoy such properties: see e.g. [Gay and Vasconcelos, 2010, §5]. However, in order to retain the good properties of termination and deadlock-freedom, we insist that all channels are used linearly, and carefully closed at the end.

**Proof.** It is given by the well-known fact that !A, 1 and 0 are always positive, that ⊗, ⊕ preserve positivity, and that our system (without server and client) is equivalent to linear logic in terms of expressivity [Kokke et al., 2019a, §2.3]. More concretely, we derive the rule by induction on \( T \).

- If \( T \) is Unit we have
  \[
  \frac{y \{ ], 0 \} \vdash y : \mathbf{1}}{\vdash x \{ ] \} !y \{ ], 0 \} \vdash y : \mathbf{1}, x : \bot}
  \]
  Cut \( y \) of this with \( x' \) of \( P \) and we are done.

- If \( T \) is \( U \rightarrow V \), we have
  \[
  \frac{y \leftrightarrow x \vdash y : ([U] \otimes [V]^\perp), x : ?([U]^\perp \otimes [V])}{\vdash !y \{ x, y \leftrightarrow x \} \vdash y : !([U] \otimes [V]^\perp), x : ?([U]^\perp \otimes [V])}
  \]
  Cut \( y \) of this with \( x' \) of \( P \) and we are done.

- If \( T \) is \( U + V \), and both \( U \) and \( V \) are unlimited. First we apply lemma 8 on \( P \) and acquire \( P_0 \vdash \mathcal{G} \) and \( P_1 \vdash \Gamma, x : ?([U]^\perp \& [V]^\perp) \), and we have \( \mathcal{D}_U \) defined as
  \[
  \frac{y \leftrightarrow x \vdash y : [U], x : [U]^\perp}{\vdash x'[\text{use}], y \leftrightarrow x \vdash y : [U] \oplus [V], x : [U]^\perp}
  \]
  and similarly for \( \mathcal{D}_V \). Finally we have
  \[
  \frac{\mathcal{D}_U \vdash y : !([U] \oplus [V]), x : [U]^\perp}{x . \text{case}\{ L : \mathcal{D}_U, R : \mathcal{D}_V \} \vdash y : !([U] \oplus [V]), x : [U]^\perp \& [V]^\perp}
  \]
  Cut \( y \) of this with \( x' \) of \( P_1 \) then combine with \( P_0 \) and we are done.

- If \( T \) is \( U \otimes V \), and both \( U \) and \( V \) are unlimited, we have
  \[
  \frac{v \leftrightarrow v' \vdash v' : [V], v : [V]^\perp}{\vdash v' \{ u \leftrightarrow u' \} \vdash v' : [U] \otimes [V], u : [U]^\perp, v : [V]^\perp}
  \]
  and
  \[
  \frac{u'' \{ use, uu' \{ use, vv'' \{ use, vv'' \{ use \} \} \} \} \vdash v' : [U] \otimes [V], u'' : ?[U]^\perp, v'' : ?[V]^\perp}{v(u). \mathcal{U}[u']. \mathcal{U}[v''. ![u, v, uu', uu', vv'', vv', vv', v'. ![v', u'. ![u', v', v'. ![v''']}
  \]
  }
Cut \( v' \) of this with \( x \) of \( P \), rename \( v \) to \( x \) and we are done.

\[ \square \]

## 2.D More Examples

### 2.D.1 Compare-And-Set

We now recover the example of CAS server/client in CSGV. We define the server-client protocol to be \( T_S := \text{!B.!!B.?B.end} \). The choice of \text{end} vs. \text{end} is purely driven by well-typedness.

\[
\begin{align*}
C_0 := & \text{let } x_d = \text{send ff } x_0 \text{ in} \\
& \text{let } x_r = \text{send tt } x_d \text{ in} \\
& \text{let } (r, x') = \text{recv } x_r \text{ in} \\
& \text{let } \_ = \text{terminate } (\text{send } r, r0) \text{ in} \\
& x' \\
C_1 := & \ldots \\
\text{clients} := & \text{let } x = \text{fork } x_0. C_0 \text{ in} \\
& \text{let } x = \text{fork } x_1. C_1 \text{ in} \\
& \text{eof}_x \\
L := & \text{ff} \\
M := & \text{let } (\text{exp}, y') = \text{recv } y \text{ in} \\
& \text{let } (\text{des}, y'') = \text{recv } y' \text{ in} \\
& \text{if } \text{exp} = w \text{ then} \\
& \text{let } \_ = \text{terminate } (\text{send tt } y'') \text{ in } \text{des} \\
& \text{else} \\
& \text{let } \_ = \text{terminate } (\text{send ff } y'') \text{ in } w \\
N := & z \\
\text{server} := & \text{serve } y\{L, w, M, z, N\}
\end{align*}
\]
typed as:

\[
\begin{align*}
x_0 : T_S, r_0 : !\mathbb{E}.\text{end}\vdash C_0 : \text{end} \\
x_1 : T_S, r_1 : !\mathbb{E}.\text{end}\vdash C_1 : \text{end} \\
x : ?T_S, r_0 : !\mathbb{E}.\text{end}, r_1 : !\mathbb{E}.\text{end}\vdash \text{clients} : \text{end}
\end{align*}
\]

\[\vdash L : \mathbb{E} \quad w : \mathbb{B}, y : ?\mathbb{B}.?\mathbb{E}.\text{end}\vdash M : \mathbb{B} \quad z : \mathbb{E} \vdash N : \mathbb{E} \quad y : \square T_S \vdash \text{server} : \mathbb{E} \]

where \( T_S = ?\mathbb{B}.?\mathbb{E}.!\mathbb{E}.\text{end}\). Finally we have

\[r_0 : !\mathbb{E}.\text{end}, r_1 : !\mathbb{E}.\text{end}\vdash \text{connect}(x.\text{clients}; y.\text{server}) : \mathbb{E}\]

### 2.D.2 List Shuffling

We use the racing behaviour of clients to shuffle a list. We define server/client protocol to be \( T_S := !A.\text{end}\), meaning each client sends a value of \( A \) and ends the session. Each clients are defined the same way: they simply take the value \( A \) from the environment and send it over the channel. Clients are forked by folding the list. The server simply receives values from clients and reforms the list.

\[
C := \text{send } v x' \\
\text{clients} := \text{let } y = \text{fold}_{T_S} x \lambda x. \lambda v. (\text{fork}_x x', C) \text{ in} \\
\text{eof}_y \\
L := \text{nil} \\
M := \text{let } (v, y') = \text{recv } y \text{ in} \\
\text{let } _ = \text{terminate } y' \text{ in} \\
\text{cons } v z' \\
N := z \\
\text{server} := \text{serve } y\{L, z', M, z, N\}
\]

and we have the following typing

\[
\begin{align*}
v : A, x' : T_S \vdash C : \text{end} \\
z' : [A], y : \square T_S \vdash M : [A] \\
l : [A], x : ?T_S \vdash \text{clients} : \text{end} \\
z : [A] \vdash N : [A] \\
\vdash L : [A] \\
y : \square T_S \vdash \text{server} : [A]
\end{align*}
\]

and finally we define shuffling as

\[l : [A] \vdash \text{connect}(x.\text{clients}; y.\text{server}) : [A]\]
2.D.3 Merge Sort

Using fork-join, we can define parallel merge sort. We first have to assume general recursion (and therefore not expressible in the vanilla CSGV), and two functions on lists of $A$. $\text{split}$ splits a list of $A$ into several (supposedly two) lists, and $\text{merge}$ merges several sorted lists into one list. $\text{isend}$ returns $\text{tt}$ if the list is empty or singleton.

$$
\begin{align*}
\vdash \text{split} &: [A] \rightarrow [[A]] \\
\vdash \text{merge} &: [[A]] \rightarrow [A] \\
\vdash \text{isend} &: [A] \rightarrow B
\end{align*}
$$

And we define merge sort as follows. We first check if the list $l$ is too short to sort; if not we split the list and sort each of the sub-lists. The sorted sub-lists are collected into $l'$ which we will merge. Note that the racing behaviour of client/server means $l'$ could be any ordering, which does not matter for merge sort. For scenarios where it does matter, each sub-result should be accompanied by its index to get re-ordered.

$$
\begin{align*}
\text{sort } l := & \ \text{if isend } l \ \text{then } l \\
& \text{else} \\
& \text{let } l' = \text{fork-join}(\text{sort}, \text{cons}, \text{nil}, (\text{split } l)) \text{ in} \\
& \text{merge } l'
\end{align*}
$$

which gives us

$$
\vdash \text{sort} : [A] \rightarrow [A]
$$

2.D.4 Map-Reduce

The purpose of the map-reduce model is to transform input of type $[A]$ into output of type $[D]$ using two functions (using the functorial formulation given by Hinrichsen et al. [2019]). Take the example of counting the frequency of each word in an article which contains several paragraphs $[A]$.

The $\text{map}$ function $f$ counts the frequency $C$ of each word $B$ in a paragraph. The $\text{reduce}$ function $g$ takes a word $B$ and its frequency $[C]$ in all paragraphs and simply returns the word with the sum frequency $D := B \otimes C$. In the end we hope to get $[D]$.

$$
\begin{align*}
& f : A \rightarrow [B \otimes C] \\
& g : B \otimes [C] \rightarrow D
\end{align*}
$$

We first define parallelized flatMap with fork-join:

$$
\vdash \text{flatMap}_{A,B} := \lambda f. \lambda l. \text{fork-join}(f, \text{nil}, \text{concat}, l) : (A \rightarrow [B]) \rightarrow [A] \rightarrow [B]
$$

where $\text{concat}$ is the standard function that concatenate two lists. Based on this we define map-reduce:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \vdash \text{map-reduce} := (\text{flatMap}_{B \otimes [C], D} \ g) \circ \text{group}_{B,C} \circ (\text{flatMap}_{A,B \otimes C} \ f) \\
& : [A] \rightarrow [D]
\end{align*}
$$
where $\vdash \text{group}_{B,C} : [B \otimes C] \rightarrow [B \otimes [C]]$ is the standard function that groups list of pairs by their keys.

There is a notable difference between our version of map-reduce and the version in \cite{Hinrichsen} (and other related literatures). Usually a fixed number of threads (that usually corresponds to the number of cpu cores/nodes) are spawned, who will then repeatedly retrieve tasks from and send result to the main thread. In our version, however, the number of threads is the number of tasks, and each thread will handle one task only. The former approach seems lower-level, allowing optimizing the number of threads according to the hardware reality. Our language is higher-level, and it is up to the implementation to coordinate threads with cores/nodes. Implementing it at a lower-level seems to be difficult because of the linearity constraints.

### 2.D.5 Interleaving clients

Another interleaving clients example (but simpler than the beauty contest example) is one where each client submits a boolean to the server, who calculates the XOR of all the submissions and sends the result back to all clients. The internal protocol of the server, as well as the server interface, will be $T_S := ?B!B.end$. We define

$$L := \begin{align*}
\text{let } w' &= \text{send } ff \text{ in} \\
\text{let } (_, w'') &= \text{recv } w' \text{ in} \\
\end{align*}
$$

(send initial value)

$$M := \begin{align*}
\text{let } (s, z'') &= \text{recv } z' \text{ in} \\
\text{let } (b, y') &= \text{recv } y \text{ in} \\
\text{let } s' &= \text{xor}(s, b) \text{ in} \\
\text{let } w' &= \text{send } s' \text{ w in} \\
\text{let } (f, w'') &= \text{recv } w' \text{ in} \\
\text{let } _ &= \text{terminate} (\text{send } f \text{ z''}) \text{ in} \\
\end{align*}
$$

(recv the last value)

$$N := \begin{align*}
\text{let } (f, z') &= \text{recv } z \text{ in} \\
\text{let } z'' &= \text{send } f \text{ z'} \text{ in} \\
\text{terminate } z'' \text{ in} \\
\end{align*}
$$

(simply send it back)

$$\text{server} := \text{serve } y\{\text{inv}_w(L), z', \text{inv}_w(M), z, N\}$$
where ⊢ \text{xor} : \mathbb{B} \otimes \mathbb{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{B} is the standard xor function on booleans.

\[ w : T_S \vdash L : \text{end}, \quad w : T_S, z' : T_S, y : T_S \vdash M : \text{end}, \quad z : T_S \vdash N : \text{Unit} \]

\[ \text{xor}, y : \text{i} T_S \vdash \text{server} : \text{Unit} \]

We omit defining the clients as they will be very similar to the ones in previous examples.

### 2.D.6 Symbol Generator

Another simple scenario is where server acts like a generator of unique symbols (essentially natural numbers \( \mathbb{N} \)) and clients race to acquire those symbols. The server protocol is \(!N.\text{end}\), meaning the server simply sends an number to the client and ends the session; the server internal state is \( \mathbb{N} \).

\[
\begin{align*}
L & := \text{zero} \quad \text{(starts with zero)} \\
M & := \text{let } _ = \text{terminate (send } z' y \text{) in} \\
& \quad \text{succ } z' \quad \text{(send the counter to client)} \\
N & := z \quad \text{(increase the counter)} \\
\text{server} & := \text{serve } y \{L, z', M, z, N\} \quad \text{(output the final counter)}
\end{align*}
\]

typed as

\[
\begin{align*}
\vdash L : \mathbb{N} & \quad z' : \mathbb{N}, y : !N.\text{end} \vdash M : \mathbb{N} & \quad z : \mathbb{N} \vdash N : \mathbb{N} \\\ny : \text{i}(!N.\text{end}) & \vdash \text{server} : \mathbb{N}
\end{align*}
\]

We omit defining the clients as they would be similar to previous ones; but we note that it is impossible for a process to act as multiple clients and aggregate two symbols. The reason is that informally speaking, in our system clients are not allowed to communicate with each other besides via the server as indicated by the functor. More concretely, supposed we are to define a process acting as multiple clients, it would be typed as \( \Gamma, x_0 : ?N.\text{end}, x_1 : ?N.\text{end} \vdash K : T \); but there is no way in CSGV to combine \( x_0 \) and \( x_1 \).
Chapter 3

Concurrent Effects in Linear Logic

This chapter is based on Qian et al. [2022], but I removed part of section 3.1 that is general to classical processes, which has been incorporated into section 1.1. I also removed part of section 3.8 that is general to classical processes, which has been incorporated into section 1.3. I also reformatted the text to fit the new paper size.

Qian et al. [2022] requires a small but fundamental change on top of Montesi and Peressotti [2021]. It was omitted in Qian et al. [2022] due to oversight. In this chapter, we describe this change in section 3.2. Most meta-theoretic results still hold and are proved from scratch in section 3.6.

3.1 Introduction

Among concurrency features missing in Classical Process, the arguably most recognizable one is probably that of shared effects, which can be characterized as follows. Each process emits effects in sequence, in the sense that emissions of later effects depend on the results of earlier effects; moreover, multiple processes can emit effects in a sharing manner.

Many have tried to model shared effects, each with their shortcomings. Balzer and Pfenning [2017] formulates a type system stratified into linear and non-linear layers, which are bridged by locks: processes race to acquire locks guarding the linear layer where actual accesses are performed. Unfortunately, the system introduces deadlocks unless one adopts a more complex type system [Balzer et al. 2019], that is not logically justified. Rocha and Caires [2021] extends Wadler [2014] with cells that can be shared among racing processes. However, they can only store positive values, which is a severe constraint in the context of session-based concurrency: they cannot store sessions. Also, their typing rules are ad-hoc for positive cells instead of driven by logic.
Towards concurrent classical effects

This paper is the first attempt to model concurrent classical effects based on classical linear logic, in the hope of finding a theory that is general, simple, and logical. We now outline some of the key ideas of our approach.

First recall that $\otimes$ represents disjointness while $\&$ represents connectedness. We start with some simple candidates of modelling (sequences of) effects. Let $E$ be the type of an effect. First we consider $E \otimes E \otimes \cdots$, which cannot work because $\otimes$ means effect emissions of effects are disjoint from each other. Consequently, results of previous effects cannot be passed to the emissions of following effects, which breaks sequentiality. We then consider $E \& E \& \cdots$, which cannot work either, because the state on the dual side would have type $E^\perp \otimes E^\perp \otimes \cdots$, which means effect handlings are disjoint from each other. Consequently, handling of earlier effects cannot influence the handling of later effects, which means the handling is stateless.

With the two simple candidates ruled out, we move to more complex ones. Consider

$$A \otimes (B^\perp \& (A \otimes (B^\perp \& \cdots))$$

where an effect $E$ is decomposed into two parts: sending request $A$ and receiving response $B$ (and thus negated). Only the response is connected to the rest of the emitting via $\&$, which is sufficient for sequentiality. Dually, the handling would have type

$$A^\perp \& (B \otimes (A^\perp \& (B \otimes \cdots))$$

where the response is disjoint from the rest of the handling via $\otimes$. This is fine, because we do not expect either of them to influence the other. Note that the received request $A$ can influence both the response $B$ to be sent and the rest of the handling.

The above definition also admits sharing by the simple linear logic implication (subscripts only for identification):

$$\to A_0 \otimes B_0^\perp \& \cdots \& C \otimes (A_1 \otimes B_1^\perp \& \cdots \& D)$$

$$\to A_0 \otimes B_0^\perp \& ((\cdots \& C \otimes (A_1 \otimes B_1^\perp \& \cdots \& D)))$$

where the lhs (left-hand side) has two disjoint emission sequences each ready to emit an effect, while the right-hand side (rhs) has an effect already propagated outside of the first sequence. Intuitively, the first sequence won the race. There is a symmetric version where the second sequence wins. Note that the implication is one-directional—the outcome of the race cannot be reversed.

The above informal definition leads to a formal one based on least and greatest fixed point in linear logic [Baelde, 2012, Lindley and Morris, 2016].
from which typing rules and a transition semantics can be derived. We call the resulting system \textsc{Cell}. Good properties such as deadlock freedom and session fidelity follow. In particular, the handling of effects requires an internal state type \( S \) and a process of type (subscripts are only for identification):

\[
(A \otimes S_{\text{old}}) \rightarrow (B \otimes S_{\text{new}}) \tag{3.1}
\]

We can also let \( T_{\text{new}} = S_{\text{old}}^\perp \) and \( T_{\text{old}} = S_{\text{new}}^\perp \) and rewrite the above as

\[
A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow T_{\text{old}}) \rightarrow T_{\text{new}} \tag{3.2}
\]

The formulas remind one of algebraic effects [Pretnar, 2015], where section 3.1 reminds one of runners [Uustalu, 2015] and section 3.1 of handlers [Pretnar and Plotkin, 2013]. The two are well-known to be dual [Plotkin and Power, 2008; Power and Shkaravska, 2004], and thus not surprising [Hasegawa, 2002, §8] to collide in linear logic. We can utilize this fact and express both in our system.

Contributions

- We extend \( \pi \text{LL} \)[Montesi and Peressotti, 2021] with effects and obtain \textsc{Cell}: a process calculus with linear logic types and effects. Processes can emit effects in sequence and multiple processes can race for effects. Effects are handled by another (dual) process. In addition, we introduce a primitive for inter-process synchronization via effects at the cost of livelocks.

- We give a labeled transition system semantics for effects and prove meta-theoretic results such as erasure, session fidelity, deadlock-freedom, and the partial diamond property.

- We introduce \textsc{CEGV} a functional language with session-typed communication primitives and effects, based on GV [Wadler, 2014]. Both handlers and runners are available in the system, and the duality is made explicit. Thin translations to \textsc{Cell} are given. We give examples such as effect translation and escaping instances. Racing is also lifted to \textsc{CEGV}, which is used to express concurrency examples such as worker-pool servers and dining philosophers.

- Based on our \textsc{LTS}, we prove several desired bisimilarity results. For example, that handling of different effects does not interfere; that the monadic interface for effectful computation is indeed monadic; and that spawned processes race with their continuation.
3.2 Base system

In this section we briefly recall the basics of $\pi$LL [Montesi and Peressotti 2021]. For conciseness, we omit from this sections features related to replicable processes/exponentials and polymorphism/logical quantifiers since these are orthogonal to the developments of this work and can be readily incorporated.

Processes Programs in $\pi$LL are processes $(P,Q,R)$. Processes communicate over binary sessions using names $(x,y,z)$ representing session endpoints. The process terms of $\pi$LL are given by the following grammar.

$$
P, Q, R := x[y]. P \quad \text{output } y \text{ on } x \text{ and continue as } P
$$

$$
x(y). P \quad \text{input } y \text{ on } x \text{ and continue as } P
$$

$$
x[]. P \quad \text{output (empty message) on } x \text{ and continue as } P
$$

$$
x(). P \quad \text{input (empty message) on } x \text{ and continue as } P
$$

$$
x[l]. P \quad \text{select left (output label } l \text{) on } x \text{ and continue as } P
$$

$$
x[r]. P \quad \text{select right (output label } r \text{) on } x \text{ and continue as } P
$$

$$
y. \text{case}\{l:P, r:Q\} \quad \text{offer on } x \text{ a choice to continue as } P \text{ and } Q
$$

$$
0 \quad \text{terminated process}
$$

$$
P | Q \quad \text{parallel composition of } P \text{ and } Q
$$

$$
\nu xy P \quad \text{session with endpoints } x \text{ and } y \text{ in } P
$$

$$
x \leftrightarrow y \quad \text{forwarding of } x \text{ and } y
$$

Term $x[y]. P$ allocates a new endpoint with fresh name $y$ (bound in the continuation $P$), outputs a connection request for $y$ over $x$, and then proceeds as $P$. Dually, $x(y). P$ allocates a new endpoint $y$ (bound in $P$) and awaits for a connection request on $x$ before continuing as $P$. The result of synchronising these actions is the creation of a new session. Terms $x[]. P$ and $x(). P$ respectively output and input messages with no content—essentially a handshake. Terms $x[l]. P$, $x[r]. P$, and $x. \text{case}\{l:P, r:Q\}$ represent the selection and offering of a binary choice: $x[l]. P$ and $x[r]. P$ output over $x$ the labels $l$ and $r$ before continuing as $P$; dually, $x. \text{case}\{l:P, r:Q\}$ continues as $P$ when the it receives $l$ over $x$ and as $Q$ when it receives $r$.

In the reminder, we use $\pi$ to range over term prefixes $x(y)$, $x[y]$, $x()$, $x[]$, $x(l)$, $x(r)$. We write $\text{Fn}(P)$, $\text{Bn}(P)$, and $\text{N}(P)$ for the set of free, bound, and all endpoint names in $P$, respectively, and likewise for prefixes. We write $P =_\alpha Q$ if $P$ and $Q$ are $\alpha$-equivalent.

Types and environments Types in $\pi$LL $(A, B, ...)$ are propositions in classical linear logic and are interpreted as protocols for single endpoints.

$$
A, B := A \otimes B \quad \text{send } A, \text{ continue as } B \quad | \quad A \otimes B \quad \text{receive } A, \text{ continue as } B
$$

$$
1 \quad \text{send close, unit for } \otimes \quad | \quad \bot \quad \text{receive close, unit for } \otimes
$$

$$
A \oplus B \quad \text{select } A \text{ or } B \quad | \quad A & B \quad \text{offer } A \text{ or } B
$$
### 3.2. BASE SYSTEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HMIX0</td>
<td>$P \vdash \emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HMIX</td>
<td>$P \vdash G$ $Q \vdash H$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>$P \vdash G$ $\Gamma, x : A$ $\Delta, y : A^\perp$ $\nu xy P \vdash G$ $\Gamma, \Delta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ax</td>
<td>$x \leftrightarrow y \vdash x : A^\perp$, $y : A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tensor</td>
<td>$P \vdash \Gamma, y : A$ $\Delta, x : B$ $x[y] \vdash P \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, x : A \otimes B$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>$P \vdash \emptyset$ $\vdash x : 1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Par</td>
<td>$P \vdash \Gamma, y : A, x : B$ $x(y) \vdash P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \otimes B$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOT</td>
<td>$P \vdash \Gamma$ $\vdash x : \bot$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PlusL</td>
<td>$P \vdash \Gamma, x : A$ $Q \vdash \Gamma, x : B$ $x[\bot] \vdash P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \oplus B$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PlusR</td>
<td>$P \vdash \Gamma, x : B$ $x[\bot] \vdash P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \oplus B$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1:** $\pi$LL typing rules (multiplicative and additive fragment) [Montesi and Peressotti 2021].

Types on the left-hand column are for output actions and types on the right-hand for inputs. Under this interpretation, the notion of duality of linear logic relates the matching input/output actions of two endpoints interacting over a shared session (connectives on the same row are respective duals, e.g., $\otimes$ and $\otimes$). We write $A^\perp$ for the dual of $A$.

Typing environments $(\Gamma, \Delta, \ldots)$ associate endpoint names to types and hyperenvironments $(G, H, \ldots)$ are unordered collections of environments that do not share endpoint names:

$$\Gamma, \Delta := x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n$$

Intuitively, endpoints within the same environment can have sequential or concurrent implementations whereas endpoints from different environments are guaranteed to have parallel, independent implementations. We write $\cdot$ and $\bot$ for the empty environment and the empty hyperenvironments, respectively; $N(\Gamma)$ and $N(G)$ for the set of endpoint names in $\Gamma$ and $G$, respectively.

**Typing** Typing judgements have form $P \vdash G$ and indicate that the process uses its endpoints as specified by the hyperenvironment. The rules for deriving these judgements are reported in fig. [1] These rules associate types to endpoint names by looking at how they are used in process terms. We refer the interested reader to [Montesi and Peressotti 2021] for more details on these rules.

We range over typing derivations with letters $D, E$. We write $\text{proc}(D)$ and $\text{env}(D)$ for the process and typing environment in the conclusion of $D$, respectively.
Like the internal $\pi$-calculus, $\piLL$ recovers the $\pi$-calculus primitive for outputting free names as syntactic sugar $x(y).P := x[z].(y \leftrightarrow z \mid P)$. In the remainder we use also abbreviate $0_x := x[]$. 0 and $P_{y \otimes v}^x Q := w(x).v[y].(P \mid Q)$. This syntactic sugar induces the (derivable) typing rules.

\[
P \vdash \Gamma, x : B \\
x(y).P \vdash \Gamma, x : A^1 \otimes B, y : A \\
0_x \vdash x : 1 \\
P \vdash x : A, y : B \\
Q \vdash w : C, v : D \\
P_{y \otimes v}^x Q \vdash w : A \otimes C, v : B \otimes D
\]

**Operational Semantics** The dynamics of $\piLL$ processes is specified as a labelled transition system (lts) for typing derivations following the application of the Structural Operational Semantics (SOS) style to typing derivations as originally proposed by Montesi and Peressotti [2018]. Under this approach, we view:

1. typing rules as operations of a (sorted) signature;
2. typing derivations as terms generated by this signature;
3. transformations of derivations as transitions;
4. and a specifications of rules for deriving these transformations as an SOS specification.

As an example consider a derivation terminating with an application of $\text{Bot}$, like the one displayed below on the left of the transition. Under this approach, rule $\text{Bot}$ is regarded as a unary operator applied to the derivation $D$. This operator corresponds to $x()$ in the syntax of processes which, in this example, takes $P$ as its continuation (the proof term of $D$). In the $\pi$-calculus, the semantics of terms of this form is given by transitions where the target (or derivative) is the operation argument (the continuation) and the transition label is the prefix representing the action. This translates to the following transition rule for $\text{Bot}$.

\[
D \\
P \vdash \Gamma \\
x().P \vdash \Gamma, x : \bot \text{Bot} \\
\xrightarrow{x() \text{Bot}} \\
P \vdash \Gamma
\]

In the sequel, we will omit names of derivations in the presentation of transition rules to save space.

Following the same methodology, Montesi and Peressotti [2021] define an SOS specification for $\piLL$—which we include in section 3.A. From this SOS specification and lts of derivations, they systematically derive two additional
3.2. BASE SYSTEM

SOS specifications and transition systems: one for process terms and one for type environments. The first is obtained by erasing all information about types and the second by erasing process terms. Applying this procedure applied to the transition rule for $\text{Bot}$ yields the following rules for processes and typing environments.

$$
x() \cdot P \xrightarrow{x()} P 
\Gamma, x : \bot \xrightarrow{x()} \Gamma
$$

We report the SOS specification for the lts of processes and environments in fig. 2, fig. 3—we denote that sets $S$ and $S'$ are disjoint by writing $S \# S'$.

We make one small but fundamental change over Montesi and Peressotti [2021]. In the original work, labels could be $\tau$, an action, or two actions in parallel. In our system, labels are generalized to multisets of parallel actions, where $\tau$ stands for the empty set. This allows three or more parallel actions in a label, and enables the rule $\text{BoCW}$ in section 3.4. The change preserves most properties including erasure and session fidelity, which are proved from scratch again in section 3.C. Some properties such as serialization might still hold after reformulation, which we leave to future works.

Coherence between these systems is captured by properties of erasure and session fidelity. Erasure states that the semantics of processes does not rely on runtime information about their types.

**Theorem 17** (Erasure). For any derivation $\mathcal{D}$ and label $l$:

- if $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l} \mathcal{D}'$, then $\text{proc}(\mathcal{D}) \xrightarrow{l} \text{proc}(\mathcal{D}')$;
- if $\text{proc}(\mathcal{D}) \xrightarrow{l} P'$, then $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l} \mathcal{D}'$ for some $\text{proc}(\mathcal{D}') = P'$.

Session fidelity states that processes perform only actions allowed by their typing environment.

**Theorem 18** (Session Fidelity). If $P \vdash \mathcal{G}$ and $P \xrightarrow{l} P'$, then $P' \vdash \mathcal{G}'$ and $\mathcal{G} \xrightarrow{l} \mathcal{G}'$ for some $\mathcal{G}'$.

$\pi\text{LL}$ supports the expected notion of bisimulation.

**Definition 4.** A relation $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S \times T$ is a strong bisimulation for two lts $(S, L, \to)$ and $(T, L, \to)$ when $s \mathcal{R} t$ implies that:

- if $s \xrightarrow{l} s'$ then $t \xrightarrow{l} t'$ for some $t'$ such that $s' \mathcal{R} t'$;
- if $t \xrightarrow{l} t'$ then $s \xrightarrow{l} s'$ for some $s'$ such that $s' \mathcal{R} t'$.

Strong bisimilarity is the largest relation $\sim \subseteq S \times T$ that is a strong bisimulation. The saturation of an lts $(S, L, \to)$ is the $(S, L, \Rightarrow)$ where $\Rightarrow$ is the smallest relation such that: $s \xrightarrow{\tau\Rightarrow} s$ for all $s \in S$ and if $s_1 \xrightarrow{\tau\Rightarrow} s_2$, $s_2 \xrightarrow{l} s_3$, ...
Figure 2: \(\pi LL\), transition rules for processes \cite{Montesi2021}.
3.2. BASE SYSTEM

\[ x : 1 \xrightarrow{x} \emptyset \quad \Gamma, x : \bot \xrightarrow{\bot} \Gamma \quad \Gamma, \Delta, x : A \otimes B \xrightarrow{x[x')} \Gamma, x : B \mid \Delta, x' : A \]

\[ \Gamma, x : A \otimes B \xrightarrow{x[x']} \Gamma, x : B, x' : A \]

\[ \Gamma, x : A \oplus B \xrightarrow{x[n]} \Gamma, x : A \quad \Gamma, x : A \otimes B \xrightarrow{x[n]} \Gamma, x : A \]

\[ \Gamma, x : A \oplus B \xrightarrow{x[n]} \Gamma, x : A \quad \Gamma, x : A \otimes B \xrightarrow{x[n]} \Gamma, x : A \]

\[ x : A^\perp, y : A \xrightarrow{x\leftrightarrow y} \emptyset \]

\[ \text{Par0} \quad G \xrightarrow{\perp} G' \quad \text{Par1} \quad H \xrightarrow{\perp} H' \]

\[ \frac{G \xrightarrow{\perp} G' \quad H \xrightarrow{\perp} H'}{G \mid H \xrightarrow{\perp} G' \mid H'} \]

Figure 3: \( \pi LL \), transition rules for typing environments \cite{Montesi and Pernosotti 2021}.
and $s_3 \xRightarrow{\tau} s_4$, then $s_1 \xRightarrow{\tau} s_4$. A relation $R \subseteq S \times T$ is a \textit{bisimulation} for $(S, L, \rightarrow)$ and $(T, L, \rightarrow)$ when $R$ is a strong bisimulation for their saturations. \textit{Bisimilarity} is the largest relation $\approx \subseteq S \times T$ that is a bisimulation.

We write $P \xrightarrow{\perp} Q$ if $P \xrightarrow{\perp} P'$ and $P' \approx Q$ for some $P'$.

Interestingly, erasure establishes a strong bisimulation between derivations and processes, and session fidelity establishes a strong simulation from processes to environments.

### 3.3 Classical Effects

This section extends the base system with effects. Since we work in classical linear logic, effects have to conform to duality. Thus we introduce two dual connectives $\Box$ and $\Diamond$; the former represents an emitter that emits effects, while the latter represents a coemitter that handles effects.

Recall that in the Introduction, the emitter was informally parameterized by a pair: a \textit{request type} $A$ and \textit{response type} $B$. It is natural to generalize the emitter to support multiple kinds of effects. To this end, we introduce the notion of an effect environment, which is a mapping from effect names (such as $i$) to a pair of request and response types.

\textbf{Effect environments} are generated by the following grammar; $\bullet$ is empty effect environment.

$$\Theta ::= \bullet \mid i : (A : B), \Theta$$

The dual $\Theta^\perp$ of an effect environment $\Theta$ is defined by dualising each binding $i : (A : B)$ to $i : (A^\perp : B^\perp)$.

We now set out to capture formally the (co)inductive nature of the emitter and the coemitter as informally exhibited in Introduction, by defining some functors of which we will take the least and greatest fixed points [Baelde, 2012]. For an effect environment $\Theta$ and some type $C$, we define $F^\Theta_C$ and $G^\Theta_C$ by induction on $\Theta$:

$$F^\Theta_C(X) := C$$
$$F^\Theta_{(A : B), \Theta}(X) := F^\Theta_C(X) \oplus (A \otimes B \otimes X)$$
$$G^\Theta_C(X) := C$$
$$G^\Theta_{(A : B), \Theta}(X) := G^\Theta_C(X) \& (A \& B \& X)$$

Note that $F^\Theta_C$ is dual to $G^{\Theta^\perp}_C$, in the sense that $(F^\Theta_C(X))^\perp = G^{\Theta^\perp}_C(X^\perp)$. We can now define

$$\Box^\Theta C := \mu F^\Theta_C \quad (\text{emitter}) \quad \Diamond^\Theta C := \nu G^\Theta_C \quad (\text{coemitter})$$

The intuition is that $\Box^\Theta C$ is allowed to emit effects in $\Theta$ and returns $C$, while $\Diamond^\Theta C$ is capable of handling effects in $\Theta$ and returns $C$. We further specify the duality

$$(\Box^\Theta C)^\perp = \Diamond^{\Theta^\perp} C^\perp$$
$$(\Diamond^\Theta C)^\perp = \Box^{\Theta^\perp} C^\perp$$
The duality together with \( \text{Cut} \) means that an emitter and a coemitter can interact if the former is allowed to emit only the effects that the latter is capable of handling, a.k.a. effect safety. Note that they have dual views of the effect environment, since whatever is ‘sent’ from the emitter will be ‘received’ by the coemitter, and vice versa. Similarly, their return types must be dual as well.

The typing rules of effects are given in fig. 4, all of which directly derived from the fixed point rules of Baelde [2012], Lindley and Morris [2016]. We proceed to comment on each of the rules. Weakening \( \text{BoW} \) gives an emitter without any effect. Absorption \( \text{BoA} \) gives an emitter with a \( i \)-effect of request \( A \) and response \( B \), and the continuing emitter \( \sqcap i \Theta C \). Rule \( \text{Di} \) constructs a coemitter: given the internal state type \( S \), process \( P \) provides the initial internal state at \( i \); for each effect \( i : (A : B) \in \Theta \) we have \( Q^i \) providing a response and new internal state at \( z' \) given old one at \( z \) and request at \( a' \); finally, \( R \) takes the final internal state at \( f \) and terminates the handler by returning at \( y \).

The LTS of effect is given in fig. 5. For clarify we also list the LTS projected to processes in fig. 6 and environments in fig. 3.B.1 in section 3.B. We will comment on fig. 5. An emitter has internal choice as it knows whether to end or to emit, depending on whether it is constructed by \( \text{BoW} \) or \( \text{BoA} \). In \( \text{BoWW} \), the emitter signals the label \( \sqcap x[] \), indicating it will no longer emit effects. In \( \text{BoAA} \), the emitter signals the label \( \sqcap x'[a] \), indicating an emission of \( i \)-effect and request at \( a \). In both cases, it transitions into the continuation \( P \).

On the other hand, a coemitter relies on external choice, depending on which it can either end or handle. In \( \text{DiW} \), the coemitter signals the label \( \diamond y() \), indicating that it will no longer take effects, and transitions into the return value \( C \) by connecting initialization and finalization. In \( \text{DiA} \), the coemitter signals the label \( \diamond y'(a') \), indicating handling of a \( i \)-effect and
\[\llbracket x \rrbracket, P \vdash \Gamma, x : \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\text{BoW}} P \vdash \Gamma, x : C\]

\[\llbracket x \rrbracket, P \vdash \Delta, \Gamma, x : \mathbb{E}^{(A \vdash B)} \mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\text{BoAA}} P \vdash \Delta, a : A \mid \Gamma, x : B \ovv{\mathbb{E}^{(A \vdash B)} \mathbb{C}}\]

\[\Diamond y[i, P, za', Q, f, R] \vdash \Gamma, y : \Diamond \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\text{DiW}} \nu i f(P \mid R) \vdash \Gamma, y : C\]

\[\llbracket y \rrbracket, i \vdash \Gamma, i : S\]
\[\forall i : (A : B) \in \Theta, Q_i \vdash z : S_i, a' : A, z' : B \otimes S\]
\[R \vdash f : S_i, y : C\]

\[\Diamond y[i, P, za', Q, f, R] \vdash \Gamma, y : \Diamond \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\text{DiA}}\]

\[\llbracket y \rrbracket, i' \vdash \Gamma, i' \leftrightarrow i, za', Q, f, R] \vdash i' : S_i, y : \Diamond \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C}\]

where \(T := \Diamond y[i, i' \leftrightarrow i, za', Q, f, R] \vdash i' : S_i, y : \Diamond \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C}\)

\[P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C} \mid \Delta, y : \Diamond \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\text{DiA}} P' \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : C \mid \Delta, y : C' \]

\[\nu xy P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, \Delta \xrightarrow{\nu xy} \nu xy P' \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, \Delta\]

\[\text{BoA-DiA}\]

\[P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, x : \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C} \mid \Delta, y : \Diamond \mathbb{E} \mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\text{DiA}} P' \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma_0, a : A \mid \Gamma_1, x : B \ovv{\mathbb{E} \mathbb{C}} \mid \Delta, a' : A' \mid \nu y P' \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \Delta\]

\[\nu xy P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \Delta \xrightarrow{\nu x y} \nu x y P' \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \Delta\]

Figure 5: Effects, transition rules for derivations
3.3. CLASSICAL EFFECTS

![Diagram](image-url)

Figure 6: Effects, transition rules for processes

serving request at \( a' \). It then transitions into a complex process which is essentially as follows. We first feed the initial internal state \( i \) from \( P \) to \( Q' \) as old internal state \( z' \), and get back \( (i, A, B \otimes S) \) where \( S \) is the new internal state. Note we can construct a new coemitter with the same \( Q \) and \( R \) but some given \( S \) as the initial internal state; this is exactly what \( T \) does. We apply \( T \) to the aforementioned new \( S \) and replace it, and get \( (i', A, B \otimes \Theta C) \).

Finally, the communication rules \( \text{BoW-DiW} \) and \( \text{BoA-DiA} \) specify the interaction. \( \text{BoW-DiW} \) says if the emitter signals end, then the coemitter will end. \( \text{BoA-DiA} \) says if the emitter emits an effect, the coemitter will handle it.

Note that both Baelde [2012] and Lindley and Morris [2016] gave reduction semantics; the LTS semantics give here is new. A benefit of LTS is that each side of communication transitions on their own. This is particularly useful for primitive effects (whose coemitter are not expressed in the language), because such an emitter would still signal effects by \( \text{BoAA} \), upon which the standard toolbox of bisimilarity can be applied. In comparison, reduction semantics needs both sides to form a redex. Ahman and Bauer [2020] attempted to solve it by defining in the language a top-level layer (i.e. operating system) handling primitive effects; this is simply shifting the issue, as the top-level layer would still need mechanisms to interact with human or communicate over network.

Example 1 (Linear Cell). A linear cell is a simple buffer that is either empty or contains a piece of datum \( X \). It is linear in that it becomes empty
once read, and can only be written to when empty; the content is never duplicated or discarded. As a result, \( X \) could be any session type and not a positive one. However, for easier understanding, one can assume \( X \) to be a positive type (such as integer) for now. We first define:

\[
S := 1 \oplus X \\
\Theta := \text{get} : (1 : \bot \& X^\perp), \text{put} : (X : X^\perp \& \bot)
\]

The internal state \( S \) is a buffer, a \( \oplus \) where left means ‘empty’ and right means ‘non-empty’ along with the content \( X \). The effect environment \( \Theta \) is defined from the perspective of the emitter, and has two operations. In \text{get}, the emitter will send a trivial request and it must then be prepared for two possible outcomes in the response: left means the cell is empty, while right allows for the reception of the content. In \text{put}, the emitter will send the datum to be stored, and prepare for two possible outcomes in the response: left means the cell is occupied already along with the datum bounced back, right means the datum is successfully stored.

The initialization is an arbitrary process \( P \) supplied by the user; the finalization process simply returns the buffer.

\[
P \vdash \Gamma, i : S \\
R := f \leftrightarrow y \vdash f : S^\perp, y : S
\]

We then define the effect handling. First note that the coemitter views the effects dually to the emitter:

\[
\Theta^\perp = \text{get} : (\bot : 1 \oplus X), \text{put} : (X^\perp : X \oplus 1)
\]

The following process handles \text{get}, where we terminate the request \( a' \), output a fresh session \( b' \) for the response, and finally we do two things: we forward the old buffer \( z \) to the response \( b' \), and we set the new buffer \( z' \) to be empty.

\[
Q^\text{get} \vdash z : S^\perp, a' : \bot, z' : (1 \oplus X) \otimes S \\
Q^\text{get} := a'(\cdot). z'[b']. (z \leftrightarrow b' | z'[l], z'[r], 0)
\]

The following process handles \text{put}; it checks the old buffer \( z \), and proceeds accordingly:

\[
Q^\text{put} := z. \text{case}\{1 : Q^\text{empty}, r : Q^\text{full}\} \vdash z : S^\perp, a' : X^\perp, z' : (X \oplus 1) \otimes S
\]

If the old buffer \( z \) is empty, we end the old buffer \( z \), output a fresh session \( b' \) for the response, and do two things: we signal success on the response \( b' \), and we forward the datum from request \( a' \) to the new buffer \( z' \).

\[
Q^\text{empty} \vdash z : \bot, a' : X^\perp, z' : (X \oplus 1) \otimes S \\
Q^\text{empty} := z(\cdot). z'[b']. (b'[l], b'[r], 0 | z'[r], a' \leftrightarrow z')
\]

If the old buffer \( z \) is non-empty, we simply forward the request \( a' \) to the response \( b' \), and forward the old buffer \( z \) to the new buffer \( z' \).

\[
Q^\text{full} \vdash z : X^\perp, a' : X^\perp, z' : (X \oplus 1) \otimes S \\
Q^\text{full} := z'[b']. (b'[r], a' \leftrightarrow b' | z'[r], z \leftrightarrow z')
\]
Finally, we put everything together to define a linear cell:

\[
\text{cell}_y^X(i. P) := \diamond y\{i. P, z a' z'. Q, f. R\} \vdash \Gamma, y : \diamond S
\]

Bisimilarity results that portrays the cell’s behaviour are proved (see theorem 40 in section 3.D). Positive cells [Rocha and Caires, 2021] can be defined in a similar manner (see example 18 in section 3.D). However, they are less useful with sessions and we will not discuss about them further.

Example 2 (Sequential Access). We now demonstrate that our system allows multiple sequential accesses in a single emitter. We first specialize example 1 and obtain a linear cell of 1 starting out empty:

\[
\text{cell}_y^1(i. i[1]. 0_i) \vdash y : \diamond S
\]

The emitter will get from the cell and then put to the cell, in that order. Both responses will be of type 1 \(\oplus\) 1, which will be discarded for simplicity (recall that positive types can be discarded: given any \(P \vdash \Gamma\), we have \(\text{del}(x). P \vdash x : (1 \oplus 1)^\perp, \Gamma\).

We now define the emitter. Note that the two 0\(_a\) have different meanings: the former is the trivial request of get, while the latter is the datum to put. Also note that in the end we forward the returning value of the coemitter (which is the buffer as defined in example 1) to \(s\).

\[
\text{main} := \sqcap x\text{get}[a]. (0_a | x(b). \text{del}(b). \sqcap x\text{put}[a]. (0_a | x(b). \text{del}(b). \sqcap x[] | x \leftrightarrow s))
\]

\[
\vdash x : \sqcap S^\perp, s : S
\]

Finally we connect \(\text{main}\) to \(\text{cell}\). The first effect get will fail because the cell was empty, and the second effect put will succeed, which also decides the final internal state \(s : S\). Note this is the only possible outcome - the second request cannot run before the first. The process will transition as follows. The first transition signals that the cell is non-empty, and the second transition signals the trivial content.

\[
\nu x y (\text{main} | \text{cell}_y^1(i. i[1]. 0_i)) \xrightarrow{s[a]} \xrightarrow{s[]} 0
\]

Example 3 (Merging Coemitters). Given two coemitters, we can merge them into one, so that the merged coemitter is capable of handling effects from both sub-coemitters. The trick is to use \(\otimes\) on the sub-coemitters as the internal state of the merged coemitter, and simply forward effects to the corresponding sub-coemitter to get handled. Let \(S := \diamond C \otimes \diamond D\). Given \(P \vdash \Gamma, y : S\), we define the following merge process

\[
\text{merge}_y(i. P) := \diamond y\{i. P, z a' z''. \hat{Q}, f. f \leftrightarrow y\} \vdash \Gamma, y : \diamond S
\]
where \( \tilde{Q} \) has, \( i : (A : B) \in \Theta \),
\[
Q^i_L := z(z'). \otimes z'[a]. (a \leftrightarrow a' | z'(b) \cdot \tilde{z}''(z') \cdot z \leftrightarrow \tilde{z}'')
\]
\[
\vdash z : S \perp, a : A, \tilde{z}'' : B \otimes S
\]
and for each \( i : (A : B) \in \Omega \) such that \( i \) is not in \( \Theta \),
\[
Q^i_R := z(z'). \otimes z'[a]. (a \leftrightarrow a' | z(b) \cdot \tilde{z}''(z) \cdot z' \leftrightarrow \tilde{z}'')
\]
\[
\vdash z : S \perp, a : A, \tilde{z}'' : B \otimes S
\]
The the versions \( Q^i_L \) and \( Q^i_R \) differ only in the endpoint used for \( i \) and which correspond to the left and right type in \( \otimes^\Theta C \) and \( \otimes^\Omega D \), respectively. In case of clashes of effect names in \( \Theta \) and \( \Omega \) our implementation prioritises the first but one could prioritize the second by selecting substituting the corresponding element in \( \tilde{Q} \) (this bias will be relevant later in example \( \frac{13}{2} \)). The resulting \( \otimes^{\Theta,\Omega} S \) can handle both \( \Theta \) and \( \Omega \) effects, and returns \( S \) which is the left-over of both sub-coemitters. \( C \otimes D \) can be derived from \( S \) and is in fact enough for most scenarios, but returning \( S \) is needed if one wishes to use the two sub-coemitters afterwards, as will be demonstrated later (example \( \frac{13}{2} \)). Finally, observe that requiring a premise \( P \vdash \Gamma, x : \otimes^\Theta C \mid \Delta, x' : \otimes^\Omega D \) would be less general compared to the current \( P \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, x : \otimes^\Theta C \otimes \otimes^\Omega D \).

**Remark 1 (Merging and Pairing).** Merging is similar to pairing in \( \text{Ahman and Bauer, 2020} \). However, pairing does not provide modularity because the definition of the paired runner requires the full internal knowledge of the sub-runners. In particular, the internal state of the paired runner is simply \( C_0 \times C_1 \) where \( C_0, C_1 \) are the internal states of the sub-runners. Our merging requires only external knowledge of the coemitters such as \( \Omega, \Theta \), and therefore provides modularity.

By observing the derivation of `merge`, it appears that the sub-coemitters do not interfere with each other in the handling of effects. The following theorem formalizes this observation.

**Theorem 19 (Independence of the sub-coemitters).** For any
\[
P \vdash \Gamma_0, y_0 : \otimes^\Theta C \mid \Gamma_1, y_1 : \otimes^\Omega D
\]
if \( P \xrightarrow{\otimes^\Theta C} P' \), then
- \( \text{merge}_y(y_1, y_1[\gamma_0], P) \xrightarrow{\otimes^\Theta C} Z \),
- \( \text{Z} \vdash \gamma'_1 : (\otimes^\Omega D)^\perp, \gamma'_0 : (B \otimes \otimes^\Theta C)^\perp, y : B \otimes \otimes^\Theta \Omega(\otimes^\Theta C \otimes \otimes^\Omega D), \) and
- \( \text{Z} \Rightarrow \nu y_1 y'_1 \nu y_0 y'_0 \left( P' \mid y'_0(b') \cdot y(b') \cdot \text{merge}_y(i(i_0), i \leftrightarrow i'_0) \right) \).
3.4 RACES

Note that $y'_0(b') \cdot y(b') \cdot \text{merge}(i \cdot i(y'_0), i \leftrightarrow y'_1)$ is a thin wrapper around `merge` to allow for the extra $B$; the detour is needed because $\otimes$ is difficult in sequent calculus. The intuition of the theorem is that if $y_0$ handles effect $i$ and merges with $y_1$, it will be equivalent to the process that merges $y_0$ with $y_1$ and handles effect $i$. The equivalence has two parts: the handlings of effect $i$ are equivalent, and the remaining merged coemitters are equivalent.

3.4 Races

In the previous section we formulated the interaction between a single emitter and a single coemitter, which supports sequentiality (sequencing of operations). Recalling the design criteria discussed in the Introduction, we wish to allow multiple emitters to share accesses to a single coemitter. Surprisingly, as we will show in section 3.4.1, our system already supports user-defined deterministic sharing. To allow non-deterministic sharing (i.e., races), we extend our system in section 3.4.2 with a primitive with the same type as user-defined sharing but with non-deterministic semantics.

3.4.1 Deterministic Sharing

We show that users can define (deterministic) sharing of effects on their own. We start by stating some propositions, whose proofs can be found in the supplementary material. They are related to functoriality, (co)strength in monoidal categories and multiplication of (co)monads, the details of which we leave to future work.

In the following processes, the process `lift` ‘lifts’ $C$ in or out of the returning value of the emitter and coemitter, without changing the effects. There is also an omitted right version that lifts $D$, as well as the special case `lift*$ when $D = \bot$. The process `flatten` flattens an emitter that returns an emitter by ‘compressing’ all effects in one go.

**Proposition 20.** We can derive the following; each row contains two implications that are equivalent.

\[
\begin{align*}
(C \to D) & \to (\boxtimes C \to \boxtimes D) \\
\boxtimes (C \otimes D) & \to (C \otimes \boxtimes D) \\
\boxtimes (C \otimes D) & \to (C \otimes \boxtimes D)
\end{align*}
\]

(fmap)

\[
\begin{align*}
\boxtimes C & \to \boxtimes C \\
\boxtimes C & \to \boxtimes C
\end{align*}
\]

(left lift)

\[
\begin{align*}
\boxtimes \boxtimes C & \to \boxtimes \boxtimes C
\end{align*}
\]

(flatten)

Consequently, the following process terms exist:

\[
T \vdash x : D, y : C \Rightarrow \text{fmap}_{xy}(T) \vdash x : \boxtimes \Theta C, y : \boxtimes \Theta D
\]

\[
\text{lift}_{xy} \vdash x : \Theta D, y : \boxtimes (\Theta C \otimes D)
\]

\[
\text{flatten}_{xy} \vdash x : \Theta C, y : \boxtimes \Theta \Theta C
\]
The following proposition is related to (op)lax monoidal functors (but again we leave out a detailed exploration of this fact to future work).

**Proposition 21** (Deterministic Sharing). *There are processes of type $\Theta^\otimes C \otimes \Theta^\otimes D \leadsto \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D)$ or equivalently $\Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) \leadsto \Theta^\otimes C \otimes \Theta^\otimes D$.*

**Proof.** We give two proofs. Each of them corresponds to a process which is omitted.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Theta^\otimes C \otimes \Theta^\otimes D & \quad \text{\textbf{(right lift)}} \quad \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes \Theta^\otimes D) \quad \Theta^\otimes (\Theta^\otimes C \otimes D) \quad \text{\textbf{(left lift)}} \quad \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) \quad \text{\textbf{(flatten)}} \quad \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) \quad \text{\textbf{(flatten)}} \\
\rightarrow \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes \Theta^\otimes D) & \quad \Theta^\otimes \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) \quad \Theta^\otimes \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) \\
\quad \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) & \quad \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) \\
\quad \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) & \quad \Theta^\otimes (C \otimes D) \\
\end{align*}
\]

The proofs carry computational meanings. In the left proof, lift first propagates all effects in $\Theta^\otimes C$, then another lift propagates all effects in $\Theta^\otimes D$. We can say that it represents a sharing policy that prioritizes the left subtree. The right derivation is the symmetric policy, which prioritizes the right subtree; one can also define one that alternates between left and right subtrees; etc.. Sharing given this way is deterministic: if one *Cut*’s a policy with two parallel emitters, then the outcome is completely decided by the policy.

### 3.4.2 Non-deterministic Sharing

To model real world concurrency, we introduce non-deterministic sharing (i.e. races) by means of a new rule, $\text{BoC}$, in fig. 7. Note that $\text{BoC}$ is derivable by proposition 21, and thus does not change the logical aspects of our system. What makes this rule special is the associated LTS semantics, given by the other three rules in fig. 7. The LTS semantics allows effects from both left and right subtrees to propagate non-deterministically. For clarity we also list the LTS projected to processes in fig. 8 and environments in fig. 3.B.2 in section 3.B.

The LTS of $\text{BoC}$ is unlike that of $\text{BoA}$ or $\text{BoW}$. Recall that $\otimes x^i[a]. P$ simply signals the label $\otimes x^i[a]$. However, had we let $\otimes x[x_0, x_1]. P$ signal the label $\otimes x[x_0, x_1]$, we would need extra LTS rules for the coemitter to react to this; we want to avoid that since the concern of sharing emitters should be kept separate from that of coemitters.

Instead, $\text{BoC}$ is structural, similar to *Cut*. It does not signal labels by itself, but propagates labels from $P$ with modifications if necessary. $\text{BoCP}$ propagates labels unrelated to effects, which is similar to $\text{Res}$. $\text{BoCA0}$ propagates an effect from the left emitter; the symmetric $\text{BoCA1}$ is omitted for space. $\text{BoCW}$ collects two ending emitters and end. Both rules
3.4. RACES

\[\text{BoC}\]
\[
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, x_0 : \Theta C_0 | \Delta, x_1 : \Theta C_1 \\
\text{where } x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l)
\]
\[
\text{BoCP}\]
\[
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma, x_0 : \Theta C_0 | \Delta, x_1 : \Theta C_1 \xrightarrow{l \in \Theta} P' \vdash \mathcal{G'} | \Gamma', x_0 : \Theta C_0 | \Delta', x_1 : \Theta C_1
\]
\[
\text{BoCA0}\]
\[
x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l) \quad i : (A : B) \in \Theta \\
P \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, x_0 : \Theta C_0 | \Delta, x_1 : \Theta C_1
\]
\[
\text{BoCW}\]
\[
x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l) \quad \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (P' | Q) \vdash \mathcal{G} | \Gamma_0, a : A | \Gamma_1, \Delta', x : B \otimes \Theta C_0 | \Delta, x_1 : \Theta C_1
\]
\[
\text{where } Q := x(b). y_0(b). \text{BoC}[x_0, x_1] \quad (x_0 \leftrightarrow y_0 | x_1 \leftrightarrow y_1) \vdash
\]
\[
y_0 : (B \otimes \Theta C_0)^\perp, y_1 : (\Theta C_1)^\perp, x : B \otimes \Theta (C_0 \otimes C_1)
\]
\[
\text{Figure 7: Races, typing rules and transition rules for derivations.}
\]
CHAPTER 3. CONCURRENT EFFECTS IN LINEAR LOGIC

\[\begin{align*}
\text{BoCP} & \quad x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l) \quad P \vdash P' \\
\mathbb{D}[x_0, x_1] P \vdash \mathbb{D}[x_0, x_1] P'
\end{align*}\]

\[\begin{align*}
\text{BoCW} & \quad x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l) \quad P \stackrel{l[\mathbb{D}|\mathbb{D}|x_1]}{\rightarrow} P' \\
\mathbb{D}[x_0, x_1] P \overrightarrow{\mathbb{D}|\mathbb{D}|x_0} \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 \ (P' \mid x(y_0), x \leftrightarrow y_1)
\end{align*}\]

\[\begin{align*}
\text{BoCA0} & \quad x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l) \quad P \stackrel{l[\mathbb{D}|\mathbb{D}|x_0]}{\rightarrow} P' \\
\mathbb{D}[x_0, x_1] P \overrightarrow{\mathbb{D}|\mathbb{D}|x_0} \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 \ (P' \mid x(b), y_0(b). \mathbb{D}[x_0, x_1] (x \leftrightarrow y_0 \mid x_1 \leftrightarrow y_1))
\end{align*}\]

Figure 8: Races, transition rules for processes.

include a general \(l\); this is to satisfy non-interference (see theorem 32). Both rules rely on some auxiliary term \(Q\) to work around syntactic limitation of sequent calculus.

Remark 2 (Parallelism and Concurrency). There are two kinds of computations in our system, managed by different mechanisms. Pure computations are given by the base system \(\pi\text{LL} [\text{Montesi and Peressotti}, 2021]\). It is pure in the sense of satisfying the diamond property. In particular, it includes \(\text{HMix}\) and its semantics which allows independent processes to run simultaneously by \(\text{SYN}\). This corresponds to parallelism. On the other hand, effectful computations are given by our novel extensions. Effectful computations are not pure in the sense of the partial diamond property (see theorem 34 in section 3.B). They include \(\text{BoC}\) which allows racing between emitters, and its semantics which decides the outcomes of races. This corresponds to concurrency.

Example 4 (Parallel Access). Following example 2, we can now define two parallel emitters each trying to access the linear cell:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{main}_0 & x_0 \text{get\{a\}} . \ (0_a \mid x_0(b). \text{del\{b\}.}\mathbb{D}[x_0]. \ 0_{x_0}) \vdash x_0 : \Box \Theta 1 \\
\text{main}_1 & x_1 \text{put\{a\}} . \ (0_a \mid x_1(b). \text{del\{b\}.}\mathbb{D}[x_1]. \ 0_{x_1}) \vdash x_1 : \Box \Theta 1
\end{align*}\]

we apply \(\text{BoC}\) on them and \(\text{fmap}\) the return value from \(1 \otimes 1\) to \(1\):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{main} & \equiv \mathbb{D}[x_0, x_1] \text{(main}_0 \mid \text{main}_1) \vdash x : \Box \Theta (1 \otimes 1) \\
F & \equiv \text{fmap}_{x\gamma'}(y'(y'').y''). \ y''(). \ 0_{x'} \vdash x' : \Box \Theta 1, y' : (\Box \Theta (1 \otimes 1)) - \\
\text{main}' & \equiv \nu_{x\gamma'} (F \mid \text{main}) \vdash x' : \Box \Theta 1
\end{align*}\]
3.5 Synchronization

In example 4 above, the emitters were forced to continue even when `get` and `put` failed. In this section we introduce a do-until primitive, which repeatedly performs an effectful computation until a certain condition is met. This allows emitters to synchronize via shared effects. The cost is that do-until introduces livelocks — there might be an infinite series of \( \tau \) transitions.

The do-until extension contains only one typing rule and one LTS rule, shown in fig. 9. For clarity we also list the rules projected to processes in fig. 10, and environments in fig. 3.B.3 in section 3.B. E is the type of the iteration variable and \( D \) is the type of the result. Process \( Q \) has a complex type: it takes the last iteration variable at \( e \), and takes a coemitter at \( x \).

On the other side, we lift the return value of the coemitter:

\[
\text{cell'} := \nu x y \left( \text{cell}^1_y (i, i[l], 0_i) \mid \text{lift}_x c y' \right) \vdash c : S, y' : \Theta^\perp \perp
\]

Finally we can connect `main'` to `cell'` and get \( \nu x y' \left( \text{main} \mid \text{cell} \right) \vdash c : S \), where \( c \) signals the final state of the cell. There are two possible outcomes. In the first outcome, `get` fails followed by `put` succeeding, and the cell ends with 1. In the second outcome, `put` succeeds followed by `get` succeeding (because there is content in the cell), and the cell ends up being empty. Transitions are similar to those in example 4 and omitted.

The application of `fmap` and `lift*` makes the example somewhat cumbersome, we therefore postpone more examples until section 3.7, where we consider a higher-level language.

3.5 Synchronization

In example 4 above, the emitters were forced to continue even when `get` and `put` failed. In this section we introduce a do-until primitive, which repeatedly performs an effectful computation until a certain condition is met. This allows emitters to synchronize via shared effects. The cost is that do-until introduces livelocks — there might be an infinite series of \( \tau \) transitions.

The do-until extension contains only one typing rule and one LTS rule, shown in fig. 9. For clarity we also list the rules projected to processes in fig. 10, and environments in fig. 3.B.3 in section 3.B. E is the type of the iteration variable and \( D \) is the type of the result. Process \( Q \) has a complex type: it takes the last iteration variable at \( e \), and takes a coemitter at \( x \).
\[ D := \square x(e)\{z.Q\}d.P \quad \text{BoRR} \quad \nu dz \ (Q \ | \ x(d), \ d.\text{case}\{L:D[d/e], \ R:P\}) \]

Figure 10: Do-Until, transition rules for processes

(by exposing as an emitter), and produces \( E \oplus D \) with \( \Diamond^{\Theta^1} \perp \) at \( z \). The former has two options where left indicates continuing with a new iteration variable and right indicates ending with a result. The latter is the ‘left-over’ of the handler at \( x \). Both the result and the left-over are passed to the continuation \( P \).

In the LTS semantics, \( D \) is the derivation associated with \( \square x(e)\{z.Q\}d.P \) and it simply unfolds. On the RHS, we first run \( Q \), the outcome of which is used to pick the branch to run. Left leads to the self-reference \( D[d/e] \), while the right leads to \( P \). Note that the self-reference is guarded by \text{case}, which does not propagate deeper actions. Hence another recursive unfolding will only happen after the outcome of \( Q \) reacts with \text{case}.

The new do-until primitive can be used to synchronize \text{get} and \text{put} operations on a linear cell (see example 8). Here we only look at a few simple examples to get some intuition.

**Example 5** (Infinite Loop). The do-until primitive suffices for expressing an infinite loop: For simplicity, let \( C := D := E := 1 \). Given a loop body \( Q' \vdash x : \Diamond^{\Theta^1} 1, z : \Diamond^{\Theta^1} \perp \), we define

\[
Q := e().z[e](Q' | c[L]).0_e \vdash e : \perp, x : \Diamond^{\Theta^1} 1, z : (1 \oplus 1) \otimes \Diamond^{\Theta^1} \perp
\]

\[
P := e().\square x[].0_x \vdash c : \perp, x : \Diamond^{\Theta^1} 1
\]

\[
\text{loop}(xz.Q') := \nu ee'(0_e' | \square x(e)\{z.Q\}c.P) \vdash x : \Diamond^{\Theta^1} 1
\]

The use of the fixed expression \( c[L] \) makes the loop always continue. As a result, process \( P \), which ends the emitter, will never be executed.

**Example 6** (Spawn Bomb). The simplest instance of the preceding example is one where \( Q' \) is given by \( x \leftrightarrow z \); this corresponds to an empty loop body. We name such a loop \text{dumb}. If we repeatedly spawn \text{dumb}, we get more and more of them, effectively creating a spawn bomb. How does spawn work? The main emitter \( x \) forks by \( \square x[x_0, x_1] \). The child emitter \( x_0 \) will then be used by \text{dumb}, while the child emitter \( x_1 \) is forwarded as the next loop variable and thus becomes the next main emitter.

\[
dumb := \text{loop}(x_0z.x_0 \leftrightarrow z) \vdash x_0 : \Diamond^{\Theta^1} 1
\]

\[
bomb := \text{loop}(xz.\square x[x_0, x_1](\text{dumb} | x_1 \leftrightarrow z)) \vdash x : \Diamond^{\Theta^1} 1
\]
3.6  Metatheory

CELL enjoys the same metatheoretic results that validate the design of πLL especially, erasure (theorem 22), session fidelity (theorem 23), and progress (theorem 25). The only exceptions are results that rely on the absence of livelocks and races, notably CELL does not enjoy the readiness and diamond properties. The first states that a process is ready to perform an action on at least one endpoint for each environment in its type. This property fails in CELL because of BoR which introduces busy-waiting that might result in infinite sequences of τ-transitions. The second property states that any interleaving of concurrent actions that do not share endpoints leads to the same result. This property fails in CELL because of non-deterministic sharing and the resolution of races by BoCA0 and BoCA1. However, a similar property holds under a restricted usage of these rules (lemma 27, theorem 34).

The transition systems of processes and environments we derived from lts of derivations of CELL are coherent: the semantics of well-typed processes does not depend from runtime information about their typing (erasure) and is simulated by the semantics of types (session fidelity).

**Theorem 22** (Erasure). For any derivation \( D \) and label \( l \):
- if \( D \xrightarrow{\cdot} D' \), then \( \text{proc}(D) \xrightarrow{\cdot} \text{proc}(D') \);
- if \( \text{proc}(D) \xrightarrow{\cdot} P' \), then \( D \xrightarrow{\cdot} D' \) for some \( \text{proc}(D') = P' \).

**Theorem 23** (Session Fidelity). If \( P \vdash G \) and \( P \xrightarrow{\cdot} P' \), then \( P' \vdash G' \) and \( G \xrightarrow{\cdot} G' \) for some \( G' \).

It follows from theorem 22 that well-typed processes stay well-typed under any transition.

**Corollary 24** (Typability Preservation). If \( P \) is well-typed and \( P \xrightarrow{\cdot} P' \), then \( P' \) is well-typed.

Processes that are typed under non-empty hyperenvironments are not stuck.

**Theorem 25** (Progress). If \( P \vdash G \) and \( G \neq \emptyset \), then \( P \rightarrow \).

Bisimilarity and strong bisimilarity are congruences for the lts of processes, so they allow for local reasoning. In fact, for any context \( C[-] \), \( P \approx Q \) implies that \( C[P] \approx C[Q] \) and likewise for \( \sim \).

**Theorem 26** (Congruence). \( \sim \) and \( \approx \) are congruences.
We call a transition derived without relying on $BoCA0$ or $BoCA1$ pure and we denote pure transitions by $\rightarrow$. Pure $\tau$-transitions do not affect the observable behaviour of processes and derivations.

**Lemma 27.** If $D \xrightarrow{\tau} E$, then $D \approx E$.

### 3.7 Concurrent Effectful GV

Similar to other languages [Montesi and Peressotti, 2021, Kokke et al., 2019a] based on CP [Wadler, 2014], CELL can be cumbersome to write and read. Wadler [2014] remedies this issue by introducing GV, a functional programming language with session types, with thin translations to CP. Here we extend GV with effects; the new language is called CEGV and translates to CELL.

**Terms** The terms of CEGV are inductively generated by the following grammar. We omit selection over sessions ($\oplus$, $\&$ as in GV) because they are not used in our examples.

\[
P, Q, R, \cdots := \quad \lambda x. P \mid P Q \mid \ast \mid (P, Q) \mid \text{let } (x, y) = P \text{ in } Q \\
\begin{align*}
\text{(functions, units, product)} \\
inl P \mid \text{inr } P \mid \text{match } P \text{ with } x.\{Q_0, Q_1\} \quad \text{(coproduct)} \\
send P Q \mid \text{recv } P \mid \text{terminate } P \\
\text{(send and receive over and terminate } P) \\
\text{handler}\{i.P, a^i.z'.Q, y.R\} \quad \text{(handler construction)} \\
\text{runner}\{P, za'.Q, f.R\} \quad \text{(runner construction)} \\
\text{return}(P) \mid x \leftarrow P; Q \quad \text{(monadic interface)} \\
\text{emit}^i(P) \quad \text{(emit effect named by } i \text{ with request } P) \\
\text{doUntil } e.P \\
\text{(repeat effectful } P \text{ until some condition are met)} \\
\text{using } P(Q) \quad \text{(use the coemitter in } P \text{ and run } Q)
\]

**Effect Environment** We lift the concept of effect environments from CELL to CEGV, with the catch that request and response types translate to opposite variances. This simplifies our rules, and the intuition is that from an emitter’s perspective, $A$ is outgoing request and $B$ is incoming response.

\[
\Theta, \Omega, \cdots := \bullet \mid \Theta, i : (A : B) \quad \bullet \bullet := \bullet \mid [\Theta, i : (A : B)] := [\Theta], i : ([A] : [B])
\]

**Types** Following [Wadler, 2014], we adopt the call-by-value translation from intuitionistic logic to linear logic [Girard, 1987a]. We define CEGV
3.7. CONCURRENT EFFECTFUL GV

types and their translations to CELL types:

\[ A, B, C, D, \cdots := C \rightarrow D \mid C \rightarrow D \mid C + D \mid C \otimes D \mid 1 \]

(functional types)

| !C.D | ?C.D

(output/input value of type C, then behave as D)

| \text{end} \_1 | \text{end} \_2

(end-of-session)

| \Theta C | \Theta C

(emitter and handler)

\[
[C \rightarrow D] := \lceil C \rceil \Rightarrow \lceil D \rceil \quad [C \rightarrow D] := !(\lceil C \rceil \Rightarrow \lceil D \rceil)
\]

\[
[C + D] := \lceil C \rceil \oplus \lceil D \rceil \quad [C \otimes D] := \lceil C \rceil \otimes \lceil D \rceil \quad [1] := 1
\]

\[
[!C.D] := \lceil C \rceil \Rightarrow \lceil D \rceil \quad [?C.D] := \lceil C \rceil \otimes \lceil D \rceil \quad \text{\text{end} \_1} := \perp
\]

\[
[\text{\text{end} \_2}] := 1 \quad [\Theta C] := \Theta \lceil C \rceil \quad [\Theta C] := \circ \lceil C \rceil
\]

Note that the translations of \( C \rightarrow D \) and \( !C.D \) (and other pairs of connectives) collide in CELL; we still keep them separated in CEGV, just to avoid confusion. Also note that \( \Theta \) is negated in \( \Theta C \) — because in CEGV we always view effects from the perspective of the emitter, in order to be more comparable to existing effect systems.

**Duality**

Session types \( C_S \) is a subset of types characterized by duality \( \overline{C_S} \), inductively defined as

\[
!D.C_S := \overline{?D.C_S} \quad ?D.C_S := !D.C_S \quad \text{\text{end} \_1} := \text{\text{end} \_2} \quad \text{\text{end} \_2} := \text{\text{end} \_1}
\]

\[
\Theta C := \Theta \overline{C_S} \quad \Theta C := \circ \overline{C_S}
\]

We have a finer notion of session type than [Wadler 2014]. For example, their system allows \( !D.C \) only if \( C \) is a session type. Instead, our system allows \( !D.C \) in general, but considers it as a session type when \( C \) is a session type. Similarly, \( \Theta C \) is a session type and thus enjoys some flexibility as we will see, while \( \Theta C \) in general is still comparable to usual effect systems. Also note that \( \Theta \) is not negated when negating \( \Theta \) and \( \Theta \), which echoes the point above that effect environments are always specified from the emitter’s perspective to be more comparable to existing effect systems.

**Unlimited Types**

Unlimited types \( C_U \) is a subset of types that enjoys weakening and contraction, inductively defined as:

\[
C_U, D_U, \cdots := 1 \mid C \rightarrow D \mid C_U + D_U \mid C_U \otimes D_U
\]
CHAPTER 3. CONCURRENT EFFECTS IN LINEAR LOGIC

Fig. 11: CEGV, typing rules of sessions

Pure Computation Following Wadler [2014], a pure computation translates to a process with a designated port for returning a value:

\[
\llbracket \Gamma \vdash P : D \rrbracket_z := \llbracket P \rrbracket_z \downarrow \Gamma \downarrow, z : \llbracket D \rrbracket
\]

The basic type system follows Wadler [2014]. The functional fragment is omitted. The session fragment is in Fig. 11. Send sends data P over session Q and returns the rest of the session. Recv receives data over session P and returns the data as well as the rest of the session. Pop and Push say that consuming a session is equivalent to producing the dual session. They allow us to connect dual processes by regular function applicaiton, and replace the connect construct in Wadler [2014].

Effectful Computation The typing judgment for effectful computations has the form \( \Gamma \vdash \Theta \vdash P : D \). Here P is an effectful computation returning D using values from \( \Gamma \) and effects from \( \Theta \). The translation to CELL is shown in the display below and yields a process \( \llbracket P \rrbracket_{xzC} \), which takes a coemitter at \( x \) (by exposing as an emitter at \( x \)) and returns at \( z \) some \( D \) as well as the 'left-over' of the coemitter. Note that it is parametric on \( C \).

\[
\llbracket \Gamma \mid \Theta \vdash P : D \rrbracket_{xzC} := \llbracket P \rrbracket_{xzC} \downarrow \Gamma \downarrow, x : \boxtimes \Theta, C, z : \llbracket D \rrbracket \otimes \Theta \downarrow C \downarrow
\]

The typing rules for effectful computations and their translations are given in Fig. 12. Return and Bind give the usual monadic interface (proved by proposition 28). Emit emits effects. Spawn spawns P and immediately gives 1; note that P will race for effects with what follows after the Spawn clause. The translation in Spawn looks a bit complicated – the core part is \( \boxtimes x[x_0, x_1] \) and \( x_1 \leftrightarrow z \), and uses the same trick as in example 1; the rest is just to adapt types. LetE binds pure computations (and thus session communications) in effectful computations; DoUntil repeatedly runs effectful Q until it gives result D. RelaxE is a weakening rule for unused effects.

Handlers and Runners To handle effectful computations, we provide two paradigms, corresponding to handlers Pretnar and Plotkin [2013] and
**3.7. CONCURRENT EFFECTFUL GV**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{RETURN} & \\
\Gamma & \vdash P : D \\
\Gamma & \vdash \text{return}(P) : D
\end{align*}
\]
\[\quad x_y^C\]
\[\begin{align*}
[P] & \vdash [\Gamma]^+, z : [D] \\
x & \leftrightarrow y & \vdash x : \mathbb{C}^* C, y : \mathbb{D}^* C^+ \\
y[z]. ([P]_z & | x \leftrightarrow y) \vdash [\Gamma]^+, x : \mathbb{C}^* C, y : [D] \otimes \mathbb{D}^* C^+
\end{align*}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{BIND} & \\
\Gamma & \vdash P : A \\
\Delta, a : A & \vdash \Theta \vdash Q : B
\end{align*}
\]
\[\quad x_{y_1^C}\]
\[\begin{align*}
[P] & \vdash [\Gamma]^+, x_0 : [\Theta[\iota]] C, z_0 : [A] \otimes [\Theta[\iota]] C^+ \\
[Q] & \vdash [\Delta]^+, x_1 : [\Theta[\iota]] C, z_1 : [B] \otimes [\Theta[\iota]] C^+
\end{align*}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\nu_{z_0 x_1} & (\nu_{z_0 x_1}^[[P]_z] x_1(a), [Q]_{x_1 z_1 C}) \vdash [\Gamma]^+, [\Delta]^+, x_0 : [\Theta[\iota]] C, z_1 : [B] \otimes [\Theta[\iota]] C^+
\end{align*}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{EMIT} & \\
\Gamma & \vdash P : A \\
i & : (A : B) \in \Theta
\end{align*}
\]
\[\quad x_2 C\]
\[\begin{align*}
[P] & \vdash [\Gamma]^+, a : [A] \\
x & \leftrightarrow z & \vdash x : [B]^+ \otimes [\Theta[\iota]] C, z : [B] \otimes [\Theta[\iota]] C^+
\end{align*}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\otimes_x & x'[a], ([P]_a & | x \leftrightarrow z) \vdash [\Gamma]^+, x : [\Theta[\iota]] C, z : [B] \otimes [\Theta[\iota]] C^+
\end{align*}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{SPAWN} & \\
\Gamma & \vdash P : [\Theta[\iota]] 1
\end{align*}
\]
\[\quad x_{z_2 C}\]
\[\begin{align*}
[P] & \vdash [\Gamma]^+, x_0 : [\Theta[\iota]] 1 \\
x_1 & \leftrightarrow z & \vdash x_1 : [\Theta[\iota]] C, z_1 : [\Theta[\iota]] C^+
\end{align*}\]
\[\begin{align*}
Q & := \text{fmap}_x^y (y'(), y \leftrightarrow x') + y : ([\Theta[\iota]] (1 \otimes C))^+, x' : [\Theta[\iota]] C
\end{align*}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
z[z']. \nu_{xy} & x[x_0, x_1] ([P]_{x_0} | x_1 \leftrightarrow z | [Q]_{x_0'}) \vdash [\Gamma]^+, x' : [\Theta[\iota]] C, z : 1 \otimes [\Theta[\iota]] C^+
\end{align*}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{LET} & \\
\Gamma & \vdash P : D \\
\Delta, d : D & \vdash \Theta \vdash Q : E
\end{align*}
\]
\[\quad \Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{let } d = P \text{ in } Q : E
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{DOUNTIL} & \\
e & : E \vdash Q : E + D
\end{align*}
\]
\[\quad \Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{doUntil } e.Q : D
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{RELAXE} & \\
\Gamma & \vdash P : D
\end{align*}
\]
\[\quad \Gamma, i:(A : B) \vdash P : D
\]

Figure 12: CEGV, typing rules of effectful computation
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{INST} & \quad \Gamma \vdash P : D \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{inst}(P) : (D \to \text{e}^\Theta C) \to \text{e}^\Theta C \\
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{UNIT} & \quad \vdash \text{unit} : D \to \text{e}^\Theta D \\
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{HANDLER} & \quad \Gamma, i : S \vdash P : C \quad \forall i : (A : B) \in \Theta, a' : A, z' : B \to S \vdash Q : S \quad y : D \vdash R : S \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{handler}\{i, P, a'z', Q, y, R\} : \text{e}^\Theta D \to C \\
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
& \quad \left[ P \right]_c \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, i : [S]^\perp, e : [C] \\
& \quad \forall i : ([A]^\perp : [B]) \in [\Theta]^\perp, [Q] \vdash z : [S], a' : [A]^\perp, z' : [B] \to [S]^\perp \\
& \quad \left[R\right]_f \vdash f : [S], y : [D]^\perp \\
& \quad \Delta \vdash y(i, \left[P\right]_c, za'z', [Q], z, f, [R]_f) \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, y : [\Theta]^\perp, [D]^\perp, e : [C] \\
& \quad \vdash c(y) \cdots \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, c : [\Theta]^\perp, [D]^\perp \otimes [C] \\
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 13: CEGV, typing rules of handler paradigm
3.7. CONCURRENT EFFECTFUL GV

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{CoInst} & \quad \Gamma \mid \Theta \vdash P : D \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{coinst}(P) : \Diamond^\Theta C \rightarrow D \otimes \Diamond^\Theta C \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \vdash P, z : [\Theta \mid \Theta \mid [C]^\perp] \vdash \Gamma \mid \Theta \vdash z : [D] \otimes \Diamond^\Theta [C]
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{CoUnit} & \quad \vdash \text{counit : } \Diamond^\Theta D \rightarrow D \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \vdash P : S \quad \forall i : (A : B) \in \Theta, z : S, a' : A \vdash Q : B \otimes S \quad f : S \vdash R : D \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{runner}(P, za', Q, f, R) : \Diamond^\Theta D \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\forall i : ([A]^\perp : [B]) \in [\Theta]^\perp, [Q] \vdash z : [S]^\perp, a' : [A]^\perp, z' : [B] \otimes [S] \\
\vdash [P_i, i : [S]^\perp] \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, y : [D] \\
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 14: CEGV, typing rules of runner paradigm

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Using} & \quad \Gamma \mid \Theta \parallel P : \Diamond^\Theta E \quad \Delta \mid \Theta, \Omega \vdash Q : D \\
\Gamma, \Delta \mid \Omega \vdash \text{using}(P) : D \otimes \Diamond^\Theta E \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{D} \quad [Q]_{x', z : S}^\perp \vdash [\Delta]^\perp, x' : \Diamond^\Theta S^\perp, z' : [D] \otimes \Diamond^\Theta S^\perp \quad \mathcal{E} \\
\vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, [\Delta]^\perp, x : \Diamond^\Theta C, w : [D] \otimes S
\end{align*}
\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
S & := \Diamond^\Theta [E] \otimes \Diamond^\Theta C^\perp \\
\mathcal{D} & := [P]_{x \in \mathcal{C}} \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, x : \Diamond^\Theta C, i : S \\
\text{merge}_y(i, [P]_{x \in \mathcal{C}}) & \vdash [\Gamma]^\perp, x : \Diamond^\Theta C, y : \Diamond^\Theta S^\perp \\
\mathcal{E} & := \Diamond^\Theta w'[i, w \leftrightarrow w'] : \Diamond^\Theta S^\perp, w : S \\
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 15: CEGV, typing rule of dynamic coemitter
The two paradigms are well-known to be dual \cite{Plotkin2008,Power2004}, and the duality is made apparent in our system: the handler paradigm is about emitters, while the runner paradigm is about coemitters.

In the handler paradigm (fig. 13), \texttt{Inst} instantiates an effectful computation \( P \) into a function which takes a continuation and returns an emitter that runs \( P \) and the continuation in sequence. An empty emitter is given by \texttt{Unit}. \texttt{Handler} constructs a function that handles an emitter. \texttt{Close} converts an effectful computation to an emitter, and \texttt{Open} does the other direction.

In the runner paradigm (fig. 14), \texttt{CoInst} instantiates an effectful computation into a function that takes a coemitter and returns a result along with the left-over of the coemitter. \texttt{CoUnit} terminates a coemitter. \texttt{Runner} constructs a coemitter. Runner counterparts of \texttt{Open} and \texttt{Close} are absent, because effectful computation is inherently closer to emitter.

To be more comparable with existing effect systems, we have carefully designed both paradigms so that no session type is involved. If some of the general types are session types, however, then the distinction will be blurred in light of the \texttt{Push} and \texttt{Pop} rules, similar to the fact that they collide in classical linear logic \cite{Hasegawa2002}.

Note that in \texttt{Handler}, the continuation \( z' \) is linear, meaning it cannot be discarded or duplicated. As a result, we cannot model control effects such as exceptions or non-determinism. A weaker form of exception (which we call linear exception) is still possible (See example 13 in section 3.D). We discuss this point more in section 3.8.

**Dynamic coemitter** \texttt{Using} (fig. 13) allows us to use dynamically allocated coemitters. If \( P \) gives a \( \Theta \)-coemitter using \( \Omega \)-effects, we can add \( \Theta \) to \( \Omega \) and run \( Q \). The whole term returns the result of \( Q \) with the left-over of the \( \Theta \)-coemitter, while only using \( \Omega \)-effects. The left-over is retained because \texttt{merge} returns \( S \) instead of just \( \llbracket E \rrbracket \otimes C^\perp \). At its core is the \texttt{merge} (example 3) process, which also guarantees (theorem 19) that \( \Theta \) and \( \Omega \) will not interfere with each other in \( Q \).

In case of effect name clashes, \( \Theta \) trumps \( \Omega \), because of how \texttt{merge} is defined; correspondingly, effect environment merging \( \Theta, \Omega \) is defined to prioritize \( \Theta \). Note that \texttt{Using} matches the runner paradigm because the concept of ‘state’ is inherently closer to coemitter.

**Bisimilarity** We extend bisimilarity to CEGV programs. We write \( \Gamma \vdash P \approx Q : D \) if \( \llbracket P \rrbracket_z \approx \llbracket Q \rrbracket_z \) and we write \( \Gamma \vdash \Theta \vdash P \approx Q : D \) if \( \llbracket P \rrbracket_{z_2 \Theta C} \approx \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{z_2 \Theta C} \).
3.7. CONCURRENT EFFECTFUL GV

Proposition 28 (Monadic laws). \textbf{Bind} and \textbf{Return} give a monad in the sense that

\[
\begin{align*}
    d & \leftarrow \text{return}(P); \ Q \approx \text{let } d = P \text{ in } Q & \quad \text{(left identity)} \\
    d & \leftarrow P; \ \text{return}(d) \approx P & \quad \text{(right identity)} \\
    d & \leftarrow P; \ (e \leftarrow Q; \ R) \approx e \leftarrow (d \leftarrow P; \ Q); \ R & \quad \text{(associativity)}
\end{align*}
\]

Example 7 (Translating effects). A coemitter might emit further effects when handling effects. Here we consider buffered writes of \(X\), where a program can append a value to the buffer, commit what is already in the buffer, or rollback the buffer and get back what is in the buffer.

\[
\Theta := \text{append : } (X : 1), \ \text{commit : } (1 : 1), \ \text{rollback : } (1 : [X])
\]

We assume the list type ([X]), the empty list ([]) and list concatenation (::), which are all definable (See example 13). The coemitter of these effects will maintain a buffer [X] and emit effects for actual writing, which we assume is a primitive effect and which will not be dealt with further in our example.

\[
\Omega := \text{write : } ([X] : 1)
\]

We now define the \(\Theta\)-coemitter. The trick is to include the \(\Omega\)-coemitter in the internal state of the \(\Theta\)-coemitter. We can take \(S := \Diamond^\Theta E \otimes [X]\) if we use \textbf{Runner}; or, dually, take \(S' := [X] \rightarrow \oplus^\Theta F\) if we use \textbf{Handler}. We will use \textbf{Runner} for now. We first define:

\[
\begin{align*}
    z : S, a' : X \vdash Q_{\text{append}} & := (\ast, \text{let } (y, l) = z \text{ in } (y, a' :: l)) : 1 \otimes S \\
    z : S, z' : 1 \vdash Q_{\text{commit}} & := \\
        (\ast, \text{let } (y, l) = z \text{ in } \text{let } (\_, y') = \text{coinst}(\text{emit}^\text{write}(l))(y) \text{ in } y', [])) : 1 \otimes S \\
    z : S, z' : 1 \vdash Q_{\text{rollback}} & := \text{let } (y, l) = z \text{ in } (l, (y, [])) : [X] \otimes S
\end{align*}
\]

Now we can define the coemitter. For simplicity, we let the \(\Theta\)-coemitter return its internal state \(S\).

\[
y : \Diamond^\Omega E \vdash L := \text{runner}\{(y, []), za'Q, f.f\} : \Diamond^\Theta S
\]

The above converts \(\Omega\)-coemitters to \(\Theta\)-coemitters. Had we used \textbf{Handler}, we would have derived \(\oplus^\Theta S' \rightarrow \oplus^\Omega F\), which converts \(\Theta\)-emitters to \(\Omega\)-emitters. We would pick one of them depending on whether we have \(\Diamond^\Omega E\) or \(\oplus^\Theta S'\). If \(E = F\), the distinction blurs with \textbf{Push} and \textbf{Pop}.

Example 8 (Linear Cell in GV). Linear cells can be defined in CEGV, but we simply translate them to the existing definitions (example 1) in CELL for simplicity. For any \(X\) we have

\[
\Theta := \text{put : } (X : X + 1), \text{get : } (1 : 1 + X) \quad \text{Cell}^X := \Diamond^\Theta (1 + X)
\]
\[
\frac{
\Gamma \vdash P : 1 + X \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{cell}^X(P) : \text{Cell}^X
}{
[\Gamma], i : 1 \oplus [X] \\
y : \text{cell}^X(i, [P]_i) \vdash [\Gamma]_i^\perp, y : \otimes^{[\Theta]_i^\perp} (1 \oplus [X])
}\]

On the other side, we define synchronized `get` and `put` using \texttt{DoUntil}.

\[
\text{get} : (1 : 1 + X) \vdash \text{sget} := \text{let } e = \ast \text{ in DoUntil } e.\text{emit} \text{sget}(\ast) : X
\]
\[
e : X \mid \text{put} : (X : X + 1) \vdash \text{sput} := \text{DoUntil } e.\text{emit} \text{put}(e) : 1
\]

\textbf{Example 9} (Escaping Instances). Using example 8, we can write a program that uses linear cells in a rich way. We assume natural numbers \(\mathbb{N}\) with literal constants and addition. Intuitively we should have \(M \approx \text{return}((15, \text{cell}^N(\text{inr}~10)))\), where the second element is the left-over cell containing 10. The cell seems to have ‘escaped’ the scope where it is allocated and used, which is fine because \(\text{Cell}^N\) is precisely the coemitter of the cell and thus there is no danger for un-handled effects. Indeed, one can invoke \texttt{Using} on the returned \(\text{Cell}^N\) to access the 10 stored within. Note that \(M\) has empty effect environment, because the uses of \text{sget} and \text{sput} are encapsulated by \texttt{Using}.

\[
\texttt{using } y(\text{\quad m } \leftarrow \text{sget}; \text{\quad let } m' = m + m \text{ in } \text{sput}_{m'}; \text{\quad return}(m' + m))
\]

We have explored effects without sessions, but our effects work with sessions seamlessly, as demonstrated by the next example.

\textbf{Example 10} (Worker-Pool Server). We consider a server providing services over sessions; each session is of type \(X_S\). Moreover, each serving will induce effects \(\Theta\) (such as database IO) on the server which are shared across sessions. For simplicity, the service is to receive a number, increment it by one, and send it back. Therefore, we define \(X_S := ?N!N.\text{end}\), and such a session can be served by the following program. It does not use any effect, but we write \(\Theta\) for generality.

\[
\text{serve} := \text{let } (n, x) = \text{recv} x \text{ in } (\text{receive number } n)
\quad \text{let } x = \text{send} (n + 1) \text{ in } (\text{send } n + 1)
\quad \text{return} \text{terminate } x \text{ (terminate the session and return)}
\]

Moreover, we define

\[
\Omega := \text{get} : (1 : 1 + X_S)
\]

which allows fetching new sessions to be served. Similar to \(\text{Cell}^X\), the response could be empty due to unavailability of new sessions.
3.7. CONCURRENT EFFECTFUL GV

We then define the worker, which repeatedly gets a new session and serves it; note that the loop body always gives \text{inl} \ast, indicating continuing the loop.

\[
\Gamma | \Theta, \Omega \vdash \text{worker} : 1
\]

worker ::= \text{let} \ e = \ast \text{ in} \\
\text{doUntil} \ e. (x \leftarrow \text{sget}; \text{serve}; \text{return} \ (\text{inl} \ast))

Finally we define workers to spawn two (for simplicity) workers. Note that \Gamma must be unlimited for the two workers to share; intuitively it contains some global parameters of the server.

\[
\Gamma | \Theta, \Omega \vdash \text{workers} : 1
\]

workers ::= \text{spawn} \text{worker}; \text{spawn} \text{worker}

Note that the two workers race to get new sessions. For each session, it is non-deterministic which worker will serve it.

The above example omits the handling of the get-effects. A natural coemitter to consider is cell\textsuperscript{X}S; recall that cell is linear and can store sessions. In this scenario, other effectful computations would have put in their effect environments, so they can put sessions to be served to the cell\textsuperscript{X}S.

Using allows us to add coemitters to an effect environment. This is, however, problematic if those coemitters are instances of the same definition (e.g. multiple instances of cell), because they would have same effect names. By the current definition of Using, \Theta (the new coemitter) would overshadow \Omega (the existing effect environment). The following example provides an alternative if shadowing is not desired.

Example 11 (Multiple Instances). To avoid shadowing, the simplest solution is to rename the effect names, and the simplest renaming is prefixing. We assume a monoidal structure on effect names where _ is the empty effect name and . is effect name concatenation. Let \( S := \otimes^\Theta D \) and define

\[
\forall i : (A : B) \in \Theta, z : S, a' : A \vdash Q_{i,i} := \text{coinst}(\text{emit}^i(a'))(z) : B \otimes S \\
\vdash \text{prefix}^j := \lambda y. \text{runner}(\{y, za', Q, f.f\}) \\
\text{coinst}^j : \otimes^\Theta D \rightarrow \otimes^{j.\Theta} \otimes^\Theta D
\]

where \( j.\Theta \) is defined to be same as \( \Theta \) but with all effect names prefixed with \( j \). The program prefix\( ^j \) takes a \( \Theta \)-coemitter and gives a \( j.\Theta \)-coemitter. The latter notably still returns the left-over of \( \Theta \)-coemitter to be used further, which is vital for the following syntactic sugar:

\[
\Gamma | \Omega \vdash P : \otimes^\Theta E \\
\Delta | j.\Theta, \Omega \vdash Q : D \\
\Gamma, \Delta | \Omega \vdash \text{using} j.P(Q) := (d, y) \leftarrow \text{using} \text{prefix}^i(P)(Q); \text{return}((d, \text{counit} y)) : D \otimes \otimes^\Theta E
\]
It is a prefixed version of \texttt{Using}, because $Q$ accesses effects in $\Theta$ under the prefix $j$ specified by the user. Note that the returned left-over of the $\Theta$-coemitter is not prefixed, as it is good practice to keep the prefixing local to $Q$. Also note the possibility of $j.\Theta$ still overshadowing $\Omega$, in which case we take it as the user’s intention to locally override.

With example 11 and example 8, we are able to express dining philosophers (see example 19 in section 3.D), where each chopstick is represented by a \texttt{cell}.

### 3.8 Related and future Work

**Shared States** The work of Rocha and Caires [2021] introduces shared state to CLL. This is accomplished by a rule akin to the co-contraction of DiLL [Ehrhard, 2018], along with rules that manipulate shared memory cells (allocation, deallocation, read, write). Races are resolved on a case-by-case basis, using locks to protect critical sections, and collecting all the possible outcomes into a formal sum, again in the style of DiLL. This system also includes the Mix rule, but it is not clear if that is an essential feature of the approach. Moreover, the system enjoys subject reduction, progress, weak normalization, and—as nondeterminism is captured by formal sums—it is also confluent.

Compared to that work our approach through fixed points is more parsimonious and follows Linear Logic more closely. Their state is a special case (example 18) of our coemitter, and cannot store sessions, which is arguably restrictive in the context of session-based concurrency.

**Effects and Linearity** Tranquilli [2010] extended simply typed lambda calculus (STLC) with memory access as effects, which is translated to STLC with products, where effectful computations are translated using a state monad; STLC with products is then translated to linear logic proof nets. Orchard and Yoshida [2016] established mutual translations between effectful PCF and session-typed $\pi$-calculus; note that the latter is not motivated by linear logic. Hasegawa [2002] gave a fully complete CPS translation from computational lambda calculus to linear lambda calculus.

Moggi [1991] introduced a \textit{computational metalanguage} where effectful computations are interpreted as elements of a strong monad. It was later shown by Benton and Wadler [1996] that every model of intuitionistic linear logic is also a model of effectful computation. However, such models are too special, in that they disregard the ordering of effects. The Enriched Effect Calculus [Egger et al., 2009] addressed this issue by extending Moggi [1991] with linear connectives, in order to express linear paradigms such as linear continuations and linear state. Later [Egger et al., 2010], Mögelberg
and Staton [2014] showed that every monad in EEC corresponds to a linear state monad.

**Linearity of Continuation** In our Handler rule, the continuation $z'$ is linear. One can change the functors in section 3.3 to

$$F_C^X(X) := C \quad F_C^{(A:B),\Theta}(X) := F_C^X(X) \oplus (A \otimes !(B \otimes X))$$

and the exponential $!$ around $B \otimes X$ then allows for discarding and duplication. As a result, $z'$ in Handler would have a normal (non-linear) continuation type $B \rightarrow S$ and thus one would be able to express exceptions and non-determinism. On the other hand, the returning value of $Q$ in Runner would be tricky, because $?(B \otimes S)$ is not expressible in CEGV.

In summary, runners and normal handlers are not dual: the former is linear while the latter is not. This is also observed by Ahman and Bauer [2020], who argued that runners are more suitable to model resources, including the external world. We also note that a non-linear handler is not a generalization of our handler, since the user program in the former would be required to provide non-linear continuations that are discardable and duplicable, which would forbid the use of sessions in the continuation.

Another alternative to linear continuations are affine continuations, which many have argued have benefits over normal continuations, including implementation efficiency [Dolan et al., 2015, 2017] and better reasoning about system resources [de Vilhena and Pottier, 2021]. These benefits apply to linear continuations as well. Note that op. cit. uses the word ‘linear’ or ‘one-shot’ to mean ‘affine’. The functor modifications sketched above can be adapted to affine continuations as well.

**Multiple Handlers** In many effect systems [Pretnar, 2015, Convent et al., 2020, Brachthäuser et al., 2020a], an effectful computation is handled by being wrapped in multiple layers of handlers, each handling a subset of the effects and eliminating them from the effectful computation type. Moreover, inner handlers can emit effects to be handled by outer handlers.

The first feature is related to our merge (example 3). A notable difference is that coemitters after merge are still independent (theorem 19), but layers of handlers in existing effect systems might interfere with each other in the presence of normal continuations (e.g., exceptions and non-determinisms). Different orderings of handlers give different semantics, sometimes none of which is the desired one. To solve this issue, scoped effects [Wu et al., 2014, Piróg et al., 2018, Yang et al., 2022] decouple scopes from handlers. We note that it is unclear how to derive a version of merge for normal continuations, but might provide new perspectives on scoped effects.

The second feature is related to our effects translation (example 7). Finally, we note that both features are primitive in those effect systems, while derived in our system.
**Handler Instances** Bauer and Pretnar [2015] introduces instances associated with resources which are essentially runners. However, their handler type does not describe effects, and thus is not intended for effect safety. Leijen [2018] introduces references which can be created at runtime and referred to using variable names, but breaks effect safety because the variable names of cells might escape the handler. XIE et al. [2022] solves the escaping issue by using rank-2 polymorphism to encapsulate cell variables. Biernacki et al. [2019] assign names to the handle binder so that effects in scope can specify the handle binder they intend; they still require special treatments to prevent effects from escaping their scope. While the mentioned works focus on preventing effects from escaping handlers and breaking effect safety, our Using (and the prefixed version in example 11) rule allows for safe escaping of the coemitter.
Appendices

3.A \(\pi\)LL, full specification

In this appendix we report the full specification of \(\pi\)LL with minor changes to adapt it to the notation used in this paper. We refer the interested reader to Montesi and Peressotti [2021] for more details.

Syntax and typing

\[
\begin{align*}
P, Q & := x[y]. P \quad \text{output } y \text{ on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
x(y). P & \quad \text{input } y \text{ on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
x[]. P & \quad \text{output (empty message) on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
x(). P & \quad \text{input (empty message) on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
x[l]. P & \quad \text{select left on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
x[r]. P & \quad \text{select right on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
y.\text{case}\{l:P, r:Q\} & \quad \text{offer on } x \text{ a choice to continue as } P \text{ (left) and } Q \text{ (right)} \\
x[\text{disp}]. P & \quad \text{request to dispose a replicable process on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
x[\text{dup}](x'). P & \quad \text{request to duplicate a replicable process on } x \text{ and bind the copy to } x' \text{ in } P \\
x[\text{use}]. P & \quad \text{consume a replicable process and continue as } P \\
!x.\{P\} & \quad \text{provider of replicas of process } P \\
x[X]. P & \quad \text{output type } A \text{ on } x \text{ and continue as } P \\
x(A). P & \quad \text{input a type on } x \text{ as } X \text{ and continue as } P \\
0 & \quad \text{terminated process} \\
P \parallel Q & \quad \text{parallel composition of } P \text{ and } Q \\
\nu x y P & \quad \text{session with endpoints } x \text{ and } y \text{ in } P \\
x \leftrightarrow y & \quad \text{forwarding of } x \text{ and } y
\end{align*}
\]
\[
A, B := A \otimes B \quad \text{send } A, \text{ continue as } B \\
| A \otimes B \quad \text{receive } A, \text{ continue as } B \\
| 1 \quad \text{send close, unit for } \otimes \\
| \bot \quad \text{receive close, unit for } \otimes \\
| A \oplus B \quad \text{select } A \text{ or } B \\
| A \& B \quad \text{offer } A \text{ or } B \\
| ?A \quad \text{request a replicable } A \\
| !A \quad \text{provide a replicable } A \\
| \exists X.A \quad \text{send a type and use it for } X \text{ in } A \\
| \forall X.A \quad \text{receive a type and use it for } X \text{ in } A \\
| X \quad \text{type variable} \\
| X^\perp \quad \text{dual of a type variable}
\]

\[
(A \otimes B)^\perp = A^\perp \otimes B^\perp \\
(A \otimes B)^\perp = A^\perp \& B^\perp \\
(A \& B)^\perp = A^\perp \& B \\
(?A)^\perp = !A^\perp \\
(!A)^\perp = ?A^\perp
\]

\[
(\exists X.A)^\perp = \forall X.A^\perp \\
(\forall X.A)^\perp = \exists X.A^\perp \\
(X)^\perp = X^\perp \\
(X^\perp)^\perp = X
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Ax} \\
| x \leftrightarrow y \vdash x \vdash A^\perp, y \vdash A \\
\text{Tensor} \\
| \vdash \Gamma, y : A \mid \Delta, x : B \vdash x[y]. P \vdash \Gamma, \Delta, x : A \otimes B \\
| \vdash \Gamma, x : A \vdash x[1]. P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \oplus B \\
\text{Bot} \\
| \vdash \Gamma, x : A \vdash x(). P \vdash \Gamma, x : \bot \\
\text{PlusL} \\
| \vdash \Gamma, x : A \vdash P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \\
\text{PlusR} \\
| \vdash \Gamma, x : A \vdash P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \oplus B \\
\text{With} \\
| \vdash \Gamma, x : A \vdash Q \vdash \Gamma, x : B \\
\text{One} \\
| \vdash P \vdash \emptyset \\
\text{Cut} \\
| \vdash P \vdash G \mid Q \vdash H \\
\end{array}
\]
SOS Specification for typing derivations

\[
\frac{P \vdash \emptyset}{x[] : P \vdash \emptyset} \quad \frac{P \vdash \Gamma}{x[] : P, x : \bot \vdash \Gamma}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : A | \Delta, y : B}{x[y] : P, \Gamma, \Delta, x : B \otimes A \vdash A}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : A, y : B}{x(y) : P, \Gamma, x : B \otimes A \vdash A}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : A}{x[l] : P, \Gamma, x : A \otimes B \vdash B}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : B}{x[r] : P, \Gamma, x : B \otimes A \vdash A}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \quad Q \vdash \Gamma, x : B}{x.\text{case} \{l : P, r : Q\} \vdash \Gamma, x : A \& B \vdash A}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : A \quad Q \vdash \Gamma, x : B}{x.\text{case} \{l : P, r : Q\} \vdash \Gamma, x : A \& B \vdash B}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma}{x[\text{DISP}] : P, \Gamma, x : ?A \vdash \bot}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma}{x[\text{USE}] : P, \Gamma, x : ?A \vdash A}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : ?A, x' : ?A}{x[\text{DUP}(x')] : P, \Gamma, x : ?A \vdash A}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash \Gamma, x : ?A}{x[P] : P, \Gamma, x : A \vdash A}
\]

\[
\frac{\text{FN}(P \setminus \{x\}) = \{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}}{0 \vdash \emptyset}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash ?\Gamma, x : A}{x[\text{DISP}] : P, \Gamma, x : A \vdash x[] : 0 \vdash x : 1}
\]

\[
\frac{P \vdash ?\Gamma, x : A}{x[P] : P, \Gamma, x : A \vdash x[] : 0 \vdash x : 1}
\]
\(\text{CHAPTER 3. CONCURRENT EFFECTS IN LINEAR LOGIC}\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{FN}(P) \setminus \{x\} &= \{z_1, \ldots, z_n\} & \text{FN}(P) \cap \text{FN}(P) &= \emptyset \\
\vdash & P \land x : A & \vdash & P \land \exists x : A \\
\vdash & !x.\{P\} \land \exists x : !A & \vdash & !x.\{P\} \land \exists x : !A \\
\vdash & P \land x : A & \xrightarrow{\text{dup}} & x[x\sigma], (\exists x.\{P\} \land \exists x.\{P\}) \land \exists x : !A \land !A \\
\vdash & !x.\{P\} \land !x.\{P\} \land \exists x : !A \land !A
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{PAR0}\]
\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G}' & \text{BN}(l) \cap \text{FN}(Q) &= \emptyset \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \land Q \land \mathcal{H} \mapsto P' \land Q' \land \mathcal{H}' & \vdash P' \land Q' \land \mathcal{H}' \\
P & \vdash Q' \land \mathcal{H} \mapsto Q' \land \mathcal{H}' & \text{BN}(l) \cap \text{FN}(P) &= \emptyset
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{PAR1}\]
\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \land Q \land \mathcal{H} \mapsto P' \land Q' \land \mathcal{H}' & \vdash P' \land Q' \land \mathcal{H}' \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \land Q' \land \mathcal{H}' & \text{BN}(l \mid l') \cap \text{FN}(P \mid Q) &= \emptyset
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{SYN}\]
\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G}' & \vdash Q' \land \mathcal{H}' & \text{BN}(l \mid l') \cap \text{FN}(P \mid Q) &= \emptyset \\
P & \vdash Q \land \mathcal{H} \mapsto Q' \land \mathcal{H}' & \vdash P' \land Q' \land \mathcal{H}' \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \land Q' \land \mathcal{H}' & \text{BN}(l \mid l') \cap \text{FN}(P \mid Q) &= \emptyset
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{AEQ}\]
\[
\begin{align*}
P & =_{\alpha} Q & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mapsto Q' \land \mathcal{G}' \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mapsto Q' \land \mathcal{G}'
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{RES}\]
\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid \Delta, y : A^\perp \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G}' \mid \Gamma', x : A \mid \Delta', y : A^\perp & \text{y, } x \notin \text{N}(l) \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid \Delta, y : A^\perp \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G}' \mid \Gamma', x : A \mid \Delta', y : A^\perp & \nu \chi y P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, \Delta \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid y : A^\perp, z : A \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A & \nu \chi y P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, \Delta, \Delta'
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{LINK}\]
\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid y : A^\perp, z : A \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A & \nu \chi y P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid y : A^\perp, z : A \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma, x : A & \nu \chi y P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{ONE-BOT}\]
\[
\begin{align*}
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid x : 1 \mid \Gamma, y : \bot \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma \\
P & \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid x : 1 \mid \Gamma, y : \bot \mapsto P' \land \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma & \nu \chi y P \vdash \mathcal{G} \mid \Gamma
\end{align*}
\]
3.B Omitted content of CELL

Omitted environment transition rules of CELL are in fig. 3.B.1, fig. 3.B.2, fig. 3.B.3.
\[ \Gamma, x : \Theta C \quad \Box x \quad \overset{\text{BoWW}}{\Rightarrow} \Gamma, x : C \]

\[ \Delta, \Gamma, x : \Theta^{\Theta, i(B) C} \quad \Box x[\sigma(a)] \quad \overset{\text{BoAA}}{\Rightarrow} \Delta, a : A \mid \Gamma, x : B \otimes \Theta^{\Theta, i(B) C} \]

\[ \Gamma, y : \Theta C \quad \Box y() \quad \overset{\text{DiW}}{\Rightarrow} \Gamma, y : C \quad \Gamma, y : \Theta C \quad \Box y(a) \quad \overset{\text{DiA}}{\Rightarrow} \Gamma, a' : A, y : B \otimes \Theta C \]

\[ \Box W - \text{DiW} \]

\[ \Box W \mid \Gamma, x : \Theta C \mid \Delta, y : \Theta^{\Theta, C} \quad \Box y[a] \otimes y'(a) \quad \overset{\text{BoA-DiA}}{\Rightarrow} \Box W \mid \Gamma, x : C \mid \Delta, y : C \]

\[ \Box W \mid \Gamma, x : \Theta C \mid \Delta, y : \Theta^{\Theta, C} \quad \Box x[a] \otimes y'(a') \quad \overset{\text{BoA-DiA}}{\Rightarrow} \Box W \mid \Gamma, x : \Theta C \]

\[ \Box W \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \alpha : \Theta C \mid \Delta, y : \Theta^{\Theta, C} \quad \Box y[a] \otimes y'(a') \quad \overset{\text{BoA-DiA}}{\Rightarrow} \Box W \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \alpha : \Theta C \]

\[ \Box W \mid \Gamma_0, \alpha : A \mid \Gamma_1, x : B \otimes \Theta C \mid \Delta, a' : A, y : B \otimes \Theta C \quad \Box \quad \overset{\text{BoA-DiA}}{\Rightarrow} \Box W \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \alpha : \Theta C \]

Figure 3.B.1: Effects, transition rules for environments

The following process can be thought of as an internalized \( \Box \text{BoA} \): it ‘absorbs’ a request/response interaction into the effect type \( \Box \Theta C \).

**Proposition 29** (Absorb). It is provable that \( (A \otimes B \otimes \Theta C) \rightarrow \Theta C \). More concretely, we have \( \text{absorb}_{y' x} \vdash a' : A, y : B \otimes \Theta C, x : \Theta C \).

**Proof.**

\[ a' \leftrightarrow a \mid x \leftrightarrow y \vdash a' : A, a : A \mid y : B \otimes \Theta C, x : B \otimes \Theta C \quad \Box \text{BoA} \]

\[ \text{absorb}_{y' x} := \Box x[a], a' \leftrightarrow a \mid x \leftrightarrow y \vdash a' : A, y : B \otimes \Theta C, x : \Theta C \]

\( \Box \text{BoA} \)

\[ \Box \text{BoA} \]

**Proposition 30** (Relaxing). It is derivable that \( \Theta C \rightarrow \Theta^{\Theta, i(A : B) C} \). More concretely, there is a process \( \text{relax}_{y x} \vdash y : \Theta^{\Theta, C}, x : \Theta C \) where \( \Theta' := \Theta, i : (A : B) \).
3.B. OMITTED CONTENT OF CELL

**BoCP**
\[
\frac{\mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma, x_0 : \Theta^0 C_0 \mid \Delta, x_1 : \Theta^0 C_1 \xrightarrow{!} \mathcal{E}' \mid \Gamma', x_0 : \Theta^0 C_0 \mid \Delta', x_1 : \Theta^0 C_1}{\frac{\mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma, \Delta, x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1) \xrightarrow{!} \mathcal{E}' \mid \Gamma', \Delta', x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1)}{\Gamma, x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l)}}
\]

**BoCA0**
\[
\frac{\mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, x_0 : \Theta^0 C_0 \mid \Delta, x_1 : \Theta^0 C_1 \xrightarrow{l_{[\Theta^0 x_0[a], \Theta^0 x_1]} \mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma_0, \Delta, x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1) \xrightarrow{!} \mathcal{E}' \mid \Gamma_0, \Delta', x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1)}}{\mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \Delta, x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1) \xrightarrow{l_{[\Theta^0 x_0[a], \Theta^0 x_1]} \mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma_0, \Delta, x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1) \xrightarrow{!} \mathcal{E}' \mid \Gamma_0, \Delta', x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1)}}
\]

**BoCW**
\[
\frac{\mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma, x_0, x_1 \notin \text{FN}(l)}{\mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma, x_0 : \Theta^0 C_0 \mid \Delta, x_1 : \Theta^0 C_1 \xrightarrow{l_{[\Theta^0 x_0[a], \Theta^0 x_1]} \mathcal{E} \mid \Gamma, x_0 : \Theta^0 C_0 \mid \Delta, x_1 : C_1 \xrightarrow{!} \mathcal{E}' \mid \Gamma, \Delta, x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1) \xrightarrow{!} \mathcal{E}' \mid \Gamma, \Delta, x : \Theta^0 (C_0 \otimes C_1)}}
\]

Figure 3.B.2: Races, transition rules for environments

\[\Gamma, e : E^\perp, x : \Theta^0 C \xrightarrow{\text{BoRR}} \Gamma, e : E^\perp, x : \Theta^0 C\]

Figure 3.B.3: Do-Until, transition rules for environments
Proof. Let \( S := \bigotimes \Theta' C \).  

\[
\begin{align*}
P := x \leftrightarrow i \vdash x : S^\perp, i : S & \quad \text{[Ax]} \\
i : (A : B) \in \Theta \subset \Theta' & \\
Q := \text{absorb}_{a', z'} \vdash z : S^\perp, a' : A^\perp, z' : B^\perp \otimes S & \quad \text{Proposition 23} \\
f \leftrightarrow y \vdash f : C, y : C^\perp & \quad \text{Ax} \\
R := \boxdot f[]. f \leftrightarrow y \vdash f : S^\perp, y : C^\perp & \quad \text{BoW} \\
\text{relax}_{yx} := \bigotimes y \{ i, P, za'z', Q, f, R \} \vdash y : \bigotimes \Theta' C^\perp, x : \bigotimes \Theta' C
\end{align*}
\]

Example 12 (Nullary handler). For the sake of completeness, we give the nullary case of \textit{merge}.

\[
\begin{align*}
P \vdash \Gamma, i : 1 & \\
\text{merge}_{0i}(i, P) := \bigotimes y \{ i, P, za'z', \_\_\_\_, f, f \leftrightarrow y \} \vdash y : \bigotimes \Theta' C & \quad \text{Di4}
\end{align*}
\]

Proof of theorem 19. By rule DiA we have that

\[
\text{merge}_{y}(y_{1}, y_{1}[y_{0}], P) = \bigotimes y \{ y_{1}, y_{1}[y_{0}], P, za'z'' . Q , f , f \leftrightarrow y \} \quad \text{\( \Rightarrow \)} \quad Z
\]

where

\[
Z = \nu i' z'' \nu y_{1} z (z(z'), \boxdot z'[a], (a \leftrightarrow a') | z'(b), z''(b), z''(z'), z \leftrightarrow z'') \mid y_{1}[y_{0}], P | \mid i'(b'), y(b'). \bigotimes y \{ i, i \leftrightarrow i', za'z'', Q , f , f \leftrightarrow y \}).
\]

Let \( X \) be \( \nu y_{1} y_{1}' \nu y_{0} y_{0}'(P' \mid y_{0}'(b'), y(b')). \text{merge}_{y}(i, i[y_{0}], i \leftrightarrow y_{1})) \). We need to prove that \( Z \approx X \). The interleaved execution of the various parallel components of \( X \) and \( Z \) leads to an explosion of cases. To keep the proof manageable, we establish a correspondence between traces that subsume the remaining ones by theorem 24, theorem 26, lemma 27. For each transition, we report the most significant rules omitting rules AEQ, PAR0, PAR1, and Res, where their use is clear from the context. Consider the following
trace for $Z$.

$$Z = \nu\nu' z'' \nu_y z (z'(z'). \Box z''[a]. (a \leftrightarrow a' | z'(b). z''(b). z''(z'). z \leftrightarrow z') | y_1[y_0]. P | \nu' i'(b'). y(b'). \Diamond y(i. i \leftrightarrow i'. z a z'''. \bar{Q}. f. f \leftrightarrow y))$$

$\Downarrow \tau$

- By $\text{Tensor-Par}$ for $y_1, z$

- By $\text{BoA-Dia}$ for $y_0, z'$ and $P \Diamond y_0(a'') \rightarrow P'$

Next, we need to synchronise over $y_0$ which might depend on other endpoints in $P'$ before it is ready.

$$Z_1 = \nu\nu' z'' \nu_y z (z'(b). z''(b). z''(z'). z \leftrightarrow z''). P' | i'(b'). y(b'). \Diamond y(i. i \leftrightarrow i'. z a z'''. \bar{Q}. f. f \leftrightarrow y))$$

$\Downarrow 1$

- By rule $\text{Res}$ if $P' \Downarrow \rightarrow P'_1$ and $y_0, y_1 \notin N(l_1)$

- By rule $\text{Res}$ if $P'_{n-1} \Downarrow \rightarrow P'_n$ and $y_0, y_1 \notin N(l_n)$

$$Z_2 = \nu\nu' z'' \nu_y z (z'(b). z''(b). z''(z'). z \leftrightarrow z''). P'_n | i'(b'). y(b'). \Diamond y(i. i \leftrightarrow i'. z a z'''. \bar{Q}. f. f \leftrightarrow y))$$

$\Downarrow \tau$

- By $\text{Tensor-Par}$ for $y_0, z', P'_n \rightarrow y_0(b'') \rightarrow P''$

- By $\text{Tensor-Par}$ for $i', z''$

- By $\text{Link}$ for $i', z''$

- By $\text{Link}$ for $b', b''$

$$Z_3 = \nu\nu' z'' \nu_y z (z''(z'). z \leftrightarrow z''). \Diamond y(i. i \leftrightarrow i'. z a z'''. \bar{Q}. f. f \leftrightarrow y))$$
Next, we need to perform an action over $y$, any action, we select a general use of an effect $j$.

\[ Z_3 = \nu i' z'' \nu y_1 z \nu y_0 z'(z''(z')). z \leftrightarrow z'' \mid P'' \mid \nu i'' z'' \nu i z (Q^1 \mid i \leftrightarrow i') \]

\[ \downarrow \tau \quad \text{By } \text{LINK} \text{ for } i, i' \]

\[ Z_4 = \nu i' z'' \nu y_1 z \nu y_0 z'(z''(z')). z \leftrightarrow z'' \mid P'' \mid \nu i'' z'' (Q^1 \{ i' / z \} \mid i''(b'), y(b)) \diamond y(i, i \leftrightarrow i'', z a' z'' \{ \tau \}. f. f \leftrightarrow y) \]

\[ = \nu i' z'' \nu y_1 z \nu y_0 z'(z''(z')). z \leftrightarrow z'' \mid P'' \mid \nu i'' z'' (Q^1 \{ i' / z \} \mid i''(b'), y(b). \text{merge}_y(i, i \leftrightarrow i'')) \]

Then we build a matching trace for $X$ to match the saturation of $Z$.

\[ X = \nu y_1 y'_0 \nu y_0 y'_0 (P' \mid y_0'(b'). y(b'). \text{merge}_y(i, i(y'_0), i \leftrightarrow y'_1)) \]

Similarly to $Z_1$, we need to synchronise over $y_0$ which might depend on other endpoints in $P'$ before it is ready.

\[ X \]

\[ \downarrow l_1 \quad \text{By rule } \text{RES} \text{ if } P' \xrightarrow{l_1} P'_1 \text{ and } y_0, y_1 \notin N(l_1) \]

\[ \nu y_1 y'_0 \nu y_0 y'_0 (P'_1 \mid y_0'(b'). y(b'). \text{merge}_y(i, i(y'_0), i \leftrightarrow y'_1)) \]

\[ : \]

\[ \downarrow l_n \quad \text{By rule } \text{RES} \text{ if } P'_{n-1} \xrightarrow{l_n} P'_n \text{ and } y_0, y_1 \notin N(l_n) \]

\[ X_2 = \nu y_1 y'_0 \nu y_0 y'_0 (P'_n \mid y_0'(b'). y(b'). \text{merge}_y(i, i(y'_0), i \leftrightarrow y'_1)) \]

\[ \downarrow \tau \quad \text{By } \text{TENSOR-PAR} \text{ for } y_0, y_0', P'_n \xrightarrow{y_0(b')} P'' \]

\[ \nu y_1 y'_0 \nu y_0 y'_0 \nu b b' (P'' \mid y(b'). \text{merge}_y(i, i(y'_0), i \leftrightarrow y'_1)) \]

\[ \downarrow y[b'] \]

\[ \downarrow \tau \quad \text{By } \text{LINK} \text{ for } b', b'' \]

\[ X_3 = \nu y_1 y'_0 \nu y_0 y'_0 (P'' \mid \text{merge}_y(i, i(y'_0), i \leftrightarrow y'_1)) \]

\[ \downarrow \diamond y'[a'] \]

\[ X_4 = \nu y_1 y'_0 \nu y_0 y'_0 (P'' \mid \nu i z'' \nu i z (Q^1 \mid i(y'_0), i \leftrightarrow y'_1(\mid i'(b'), b(b). \text{merge}_y(i, i \leftrightarrow y'_1)))) \]

Observe that the processes $Z_4$ and $X_5$ differ only for the arrangement of restrictions and thus $Z_4 \sim X_4$ since $\nu x y (P \mid Q) \sim (\nu x y P \mid Q)$ for any $P$ and $Q$ such that $x, y \notin \text{Fn}(Q)$. All transitions that lead us from $Z$ to $Z_4$ have a matching transition in (saturation of) the trace from $X$ to $X_4$ and vice versa. In fact, following the same reasoning we can build the trace for $Z$ starting from the one for $X$. Other cases can only differ because of interleaving of concurrent transitions and of the action on $y$ selected for $Z_3$, which is immaterial. \qed
3. B. OMITTED CONTENT OF CELL

Proof of proposition $\mathcal{D}$. Let $S := \Diamond^\perp D^\perp$ and we derive

$$x \leftrightarrow i \vdash x : S^\perp, i : S$$

$$\text{absorb}_{a'z'y} \vdash z : S^\perp, a' : A^\perp, z' : B^\perp \otimes S$$

$$\text{fmap}_{xy}(T) := \Diamond y [i \cdot x \leftrightarrow i, za'z' \cdot \text{absorb}_{a'z'y}, x \cdot \Box x]. T \vdash x : \Box^\Theta D, y : \Diamond^\Theta C$$

Let $S := \Diamond^\Theta (C \otimes D) \otimes C^\perp$ and we derive

$$P := i \leftrightarrow i' : S^\perp, i : S$$

$$\cdots$$

$$R := f(y). \Box y'. \cdots \vdash f : S^\perp, y : D$$

$$\Diamond y [i \cdot P, za'z'. Q, f \cdot R] \vdash i' : S^\perp, y : \Diamond^\Theta D$$

$$\text{lift}_{xy} := \nu i' \cdots \vdash c : C, y : \Diamond^\Theta D, x : (\Diamond^\Theta (C \otimes D))^\perp$$

where $Q$ is

$$z \leftrightarrow z' \vdash z : C, z' : C^\perp$$

$$i : (A : B) \in \Theta$$

$$\vdash i : (A^\perp : B^\perp) \in \Theta^\perp$$

$$\text{absorb}_{a'z'y} \vdash x : \Box^\Theta (C^\perp \otimes D^\perp), a' : A, y : B \otimes \Diamond^\Theta (C \otimes D)$$

$$z(x), z'[y], (z \leftrightarrow z' \mid \text{absorb}_{a'z'y}) \vdash z : S^\perp, a' : A, z' : B \otimes S$$

Let $S := \Diamond^\Theta C^\perp$ and we derive

$$i \leftrightarrow i' \vdash i' : S^\perp, i : S$$

$$\text{absorb}_{a'z'y} \vdash z : S^\perp, a' : A^\perp, z' : B^\perp \otimes S$$

$$\text{flat}_{y'} := \Diamond y [i \cdot P, za'z'. Q, f \cdot R] \vdash i' : S^\perp, y : \Diamond^\Theta S$$

The following result is dual to $\text{lift}$; they are not used in our paper but still worth mentioning.

**Proposition 31.**

$$\Diamond^\Theta (C \otimes D) \rightarrow (C \otimes \Diamond^\Theta D) \quad C \otimes \Diamond^\Theta D \rightarrow \Diamond^\Theta (C \otimes D)$$

**Proof.** we derive:

$$\begin{array}{c}
\vdots \\
\text{BoW}
\end{array}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{Ax}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{BoW}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{Ax}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{D}
\end{array}$$
CHAPTER 3. CONCURRENT EFFECTS IN LINEAR LOGIC

where $D$ is

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{PROP} \\
A, C \vdash \Theta \quad \frac{D}{i : (A : B) \in \Theta} \quad \Theta D, A^\bot, B^\bot \otimes \Theta D^\bot \quad \Theta D^\bot \end{array}
\]

3.C Omitted metatheoretic proofs

We recall some notions from Montesi and Peressotti [2021], with our own simplications.

- Recall that $lts_d$, $lts_p$ and $lts_e$ refer respectively to the LTS of the derivations $Der$, processes $Proc$ and (hyper)environments $Env$.

- Recall that there is projection $\text{proc} : Der \to Proc$ and $\text{env} : Der \to Env$. We extend $\text{proc}$ and $\text{env}$ to the powersets of $Der$; e.g., $\text{proc}(lts_d(D, l)) := \{\text{proc}(E) \mid E \in lts_d(D, l)\}$.

- We extend $\text{proc}$ and $\text{env}$ to the typing rules. e.g., $\text{proc}(\text{BoCW})$ refers to projection of $\text{BoCW}$ in processes ($lts_p$), and $\text{env}(\text{BoCW})$ refers to projection in environments ($lts_e$).

- We use processes terms to represent derivations. For example, $\square x[x_0, x_1] D$ refers to the derivation of applying $\text{BoC}$ to $D$.

Proof of theorem 24. We need to show that $\{(\text{proc}(D), D) \mid D \in Der\}$ is a strong bisimulation for $lts_p$ and $lts_d$, which is to prove $\text{proc}(lts_d(D, l)) = lts_p(\text{proc}(D), l)$ for any $D, l \in Der \times lbl$. Prove this by induction on the structure of $D$; we simply extend Montesi and Peressotti [2021] with extra cases.

- If $D$ is $\text{HMix}$ or $\text{Ax}$, it is trivial.

- If $D$ is $\text{HMix}$ then $\text{proc}D$ is $\text{proc}(D_0) \mid \text{proc}(D_1)$, then we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{proc}(lts_d(D, l)) \\
= & \text{proc}(lts_d(D_0, l)) & \text{(by PAR0)} \\
\cup & \text{proc}(lts_d(D_1, l)) & \text{(by PAR1)} \\
\cup & \text{proc}(lts_d(D_0, l_0)) \mid \text{proc}(lts_d(D_1, l_1)) & \text{(by SYN)} \\
= & lts_p(\text{proc}(D_0), l) & \text{(By I.H.)} \\
\cup & lts_p(\text{proc}(D_1), l) & \text{(By I.H.)} \\
\cup & lts_p(\text{proc}(D_0), l_0) \mid lts_p(\text{proc}(D_1), l_1) & \text{(By I.H.)} \\
= & lts_p(\text{proc}(D), l) & \text{(By proc PAR1 PAR1 SYN)} \\
\end{align*}
\]
3. C. OMITTED METATHEORETIC PROOFS

If \( D \) is some action rule \( R \) and therefore \( \text{proc}(D) = \pi \cdot \text{proc}(D') \) where \( \pi \) is some prefix. Then the only non-trivial \( l \) is \( \pi \) and it follows easily.

If \( D \) is BoA on \( E \), then \( \text{proc}(D) \) is \( \Box x'[a] \cdot \text{proc}(E) \). The only non-trivial \( l \) is \( \Box x'[a] \) and

\[
\text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(D, l)) = \mu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q | \text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(E, l' | \Box x_0 | \Box x_1))) \tag{by BoAA}
\]

\[
= \text{lt}_{\text{sp}}(\text{proc}(D), l) \tag{by \text{proc}(BoAA)}
\]

If \( D \) is BoW on \( E \), then \( \text{proc}(D) \) is \( \Box x[] \cdot \text{proc}(E) \). The only non-trivial \( l \) is \( \Box x[] \) and similar to last case.

If \( D \) is BoR, the only non-trivial \( l \) is \( \tau \), and similar to last case.

If \( D \) is BoA, the only non-trivial \( l \) is either \( \Box x() \) or \( \Box x'(a) \); both cases are similar to last case.

If \( D \) is BoC on \( E \), then \( \text{proc}(D) \) is \( \Box x[x_0, x_1] \cdot \text{proc}(E) \). The non-trivial \( l \) could be:

- if \( l \) is \( l' \mid \Box x[] \), then
  \[
  \text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(D, l)) = \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q | \text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(E, l' | \Box x_0 | \Box x_1))) \tag{by BoCA0}
  \]

  \[
  = \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q | \text{lt}_{\text{sp}}(\text{proc}(E), l' | \Box x_0 | \Box x_1))) \tag{by I.H.)}
  \]

- if \( l \) is \( l' \mid \Box x'[a] \), then
  \[
  \text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(D, l)) = \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q | \text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(E, l' | \Box x_0 | \Box x_1[a]))) \tag{by BoCA1}
  \]

  \[
  = \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q | \text{lt}_{\text{sp}}(\text{proc}(E), l' | \Box x_0 | \Box x_1[a])) \tag{by extended def. of \text{proc}}
  \]

  \[
  = \text{lt}_{\text{sp}}(\text{proc}(D), l) \tag{by proc(BoCA0), proc(BoCA1)}
  \]

- Otherwise, we have

\[
\text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(D, l)) = \Box x[x_0, x_1] \text{proc}(\text{lt}_{\text{sd}}(E, l)) \tag{by BoCP}
\]

\[
= \Box x[x_0, x_1] \text{lt}_{\text{sp}}(\text{proc}(E), l) \tag{by I.H.)}
\]

\[
= \text{lt}_{\text{sp}}(\text{proc}(D), l) \tag{by proc(BoCP)}
\]
• If $\mathcal{D}$ is $\text{Cut}$ on $\mathcal{E}$, the non-trivial $l$ are:
  
  – if $l$ is not $\tau$, we should have
    \[
    \text{proc}(\text{lts}_d(\mathcal{D}, l)) = \nu xy \text{proc}(\text{lts}_d(\mathcal{E}, l)) \tag{by Res}
    \]
    \[
    = \nu xy \text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{E}), l) \tag{by I.H.}
    \]
    \[
    = \text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{D}), l) \tag{by proc(Res)}
    \]
  
  – Otherwise $l$ is $\tau$, then
    \[
    \text{proc}(\text{lts}_d(\mathcal{D}, \tau)) = \nu xy (\text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{E}), x() | y[])) \cup
    \text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{E}), x(x') | y'[y']) \cup
    \ldots
    \]
    \[
    \text{lts}_d(\mathcal{E}, [\square x[]] | [] y()) \cup
    \text{lts}_d(\mathcal{E}, [\square x[a] | [] y'(a')])
    \]
    (by all communication rules)
    \[
    = \nu xy (\text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{E}), x() | y[])) \cup
    \text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{E}), x(x') | y'[y']) \cup
    \ldots
    \]
    \[
    \text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{E}), [\square x[]] | [] y()) \cup
    \text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{E}), [\square x[a] | [] y'(a')]) \tag{by I.H.}
    \]
    \[
    = \text{lts}_p(\text{proc}(\mathcal{D}), \tau) \tag{by proc(allcommrules)}
    \]

\[ \square \]

**Theorem 32** (Non-interference). If $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0}$ and $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_1}$, where $l_0 \neq l_1$, then $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0 l_1}$.

*Proof.* By induction on the derivation of $\mathcal{D}$.

• If $\mathcal{D}$ is $\text{HMix}_0$, it is trivial.

• If $\mathcal{D}$ is $\text{HMix}$ on $\mathcal{D}_0$ and $\mathcal{D}_1$, then we take cases on $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0}$ and $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_1}$.
  
  – If both are by $\text{Par}_0$, then we invoke I.H. on $\mathcal{D}_0$, then apply $\text{Par}_1$.
  
  – If one is by $\text{Par}_0$ and the other by $\text{Par}_1$ then we invoke $\text{Syn}$.
  
  – If $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0}$ is by $\text{Par}_0$ which means $\mathcal{D}_0 \xrightarrow{l_0}$, and $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_1}$ is by $\text{Syn}$ which means $\mathcal{D}_0 \xrightarrow{l_0}$ and $\mathcal{D}_1 \xrightarrow{l_1}$, then we first invoke I.H. on $\mathcal{D}_0$, then invoke $\text{Syn}$.
3.C. OMITTED METATHEORETIC PROOFS

– If both are by \texttt{Syn}, then we will invoke I.H. on \(D_0\) and \(D_1\) respectively, then invoke \(\texttt{Syn}\).
– All other cases are similar.

• If \(D\) is by \texttt{Ax} or some action rules, it vacuously holds because it cannot be the case that \(l_0 \neq l_1\).

• If \(D\) is by \texttt{Cut}, that means it is of the shape \(\nu xy D'\). We take cases on \(D \xrightarrow{l_0} \) and \(D \xrightarrow{l_1}\)

  – If \(D \xrightarrow{l_0}\) is by some communication rule, which means \(l_0\) is \(\tau\), that becomes trivial as \(\tau \mid l_1\) is \(l_1\).
  – If both are by \(\texttt{Res}\) that means \(D' \xrightarrow{l_0}\) and \(D' \xrightarrow{l_1}\). Invoke I.H. and apply \(\texttt{Res}\).

• If \(D\) is \texttt{BoW} or \texttt{BoA} or \texttt{Di} on \(E\), trivial because it cannot be the case that \(l_0 \neq l_1\).

• If \(D\) is \texttt{BoR}, trivial because can only be \(\tau \notin \text{Act}\).

• If \(D\) is \texttt{BoC} to \(E\), then \(\text{proc}(D) = \square x[x_0, x_1] \text{proc}(E)\). Several cases:
  – If both \(l_0, l_1\) are by \texttt{BoCP}, then \(E \xrightarrow{l_0}\) and \(E \xrightarrow{l_1}\), then by I.H. \(E \xrightarrow{l_0|l_1}\), then apply \(\texttt{BoCP}\) and \(D \xrightarrow{l_0|l_1}\).
  – If \(l_0\) is by \texttt{BoCP} and \(l_1\) is by \texttt{BoCA}. Say \(l_1\) is \(l' \mid \square x'[a]\), then \(E \xrightarrow{l_0}\) and \(E \xrightarrow{l'\square x'[a]}\), then by I.H. \(E \xrightarrow{l_0|l'\square x'[a]}\), then apply \(\texttt{BoCA}\) and \(D \xrightarrow{l_0|l'\square x'[a]}\).
  – If \(l_0\) is by \texttt{BoCP} and \(l_1\) is by \texttt{BoCW}. Say \(l_1\) is \(l' \mid \square x\), then \(E \xrightarrow{l_0}\) and \(E \xrightarrow{l'|\square x[a]}\), Then by I.H. \(E \xrightarrow{l_0|l'|\square x[a]}\), then apply \(\texttt{BoCW}\) and \(D \xrightarrow{l_0|l'|\square x}\).
  – All other cases are similar or impossible.

\[\square\]

\textit{Proof of theorem 2.4.} We only need to prove \(env(lts_\delta(D, l)) \subseteq lts_\delta(env(D), l)\) for any derivation \(D\) and label \(l\). Prove by induction on \(D\).

• If \(D\) is by \texttt{HMix0} it is trivial.
• If $D$ is by $\text{HMix}$ on $D_0$ and $D_1$, and thus $env(D) = env(D_0) \mid env(D_1)$. We consider the members of $env(lts_d(D, l))$; to do that, we consider how $D \vdash$ is derived.
  
  – if by $\text{Par0}$, then for any
    
    \begin{align*}
    &env(D'_0) \mid env(D'_1) \in env(lts_d(D, l)) \\
    &env(D'_0) \in env(lts_d(D_0, l)) \quad \text{(by $\text{Par0}$)} \\
    &env(D'_0) \in lts_e(env(D_0), l) \quad \text{(by \text{I.H.})} \\
    &env(D'_0) \mid env(D'_1) \in lts_e(env(D_0), l) \quad \text{(by $\text{env}(\text{Par0})$)}
    \end{align*}

  – the case for $\text{Par1}$ is similar.

  – If by $\text{Syn}$, then $l = l_0 \mid l_1$ and for any
    
    \begin{align*}
    &env(D'_0) \mid env(D'_1) \in env(lts_d(D, l)) \\
    &env(D'_0) \in env(lts_d(D_0, l_0)) \text{ and } env(D'_1) \in env(lts_d(D_1, l_1)) \quad \text{(by $\text{Syn}$)} \\
    &env(D'_0) \in lts_e(env(D_0), l_0) \text{ and } env(D'_1) \in lts_e(env(D_1), l_1) \quad \text{(by \text{I.H.})} \\
    &env(D'_0) \mid env(D'_1) \in lts_e(env(D_0) \mid env(D_1), l) \quad \text{(by $\text{env}(\text{Syn})$)}
    \end{align*}

• If $D$ is $\text{BoA}$ on $E$, therefore $env(E)$ is $\Delta, a : A \mid \Gamma, b : B, x : @^C$ and $env(D)$ is $\Delta, \Gamma, x : @^C$ where $i : (A : B) \in \Theta$. The only non-trivial $l$ is $\llbracket x \rrbracket[a]$ and

    \begin{align*}
    &env(lts_d(D, l)) \\
    &= env(E) \quad \text{(by $\text{BoAA}$)} \\
    &\in lts_e(env(D), l) \quad \text{(by $\text{env}(\text{BoAA})$)}
    \end{align*}

• If $D$ is $\text{BoW}$ or $\text{D}$ or $\text{BoR}$ similar.

• If $D$ is by $\text{Ax}$ or other action rules, similar.

• If $D$ is apply $\text{BoC}$ on $E$, then $env(E)$ is $G \mid \Gamma, x_0 : @^C \mid \Delta, x_1 : @^D$ and $env(D)$ is $G \mid \Gamma, \Delta, x : @^C \otimes C \otimes D$. Take cases:

  – if $x \notin F\text{n}(l)$, then for any
    
    \begin{align*}
    &G' \mid \Gamma', \Delta', x : @^C \otimes D \in env(lts_d(D, l)) \\
    &G' \mid \Gamma', x_0 : @^C \mid \Delta', x_1 : @^D \in env(lts_e(E), l) \quad \text{(by $\text{BoCP}$)} \\
    &\in lts_e(env(E), l) \quad \text{(by \text{I.H.})} \\
    &G' \mid \Gamma', \Delta', x : @^C \otimes D \in lts_e(env(D), l) \quad \text{(by $\text{env}(\text{BoCP})$)}
    \end{align*}
3.C. OMITTED METATHEORETIC PROOFS

- If \( l \) is \( l' \mid \Box x[] \), then for any

\[
G' \mid \Gamma, \Delta, x : C \otimes D \in \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(D, l' \mid \Box x[]))
\]

\[
G' \mid \Gamma, x_0 : C \mid \Delta, x_1 : D \in \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(E, l' \mid \Box x_0[] \mid \Box x_1[]))
\]

(by BoCW)

\( \subseteq \text{lts}_e(\text{env}(E), l' \mid \Box x_0[] \mid \Box x_1[]) \)

(by I.H.)

\[
G' \mid \Gamma, \Delta, x : C \otimes D \in \text{env}(\text{lts}_e(\text{env}(D), l' \mid \Box x[]))
\]

(by \( \text{env(BoCW)} \))

- If \( l \) is of shape \( l' \mid \Box x'[a] \), then for any

\[
G \mid \Gamma_0, a : A \mid \Gamma_1, \Delta, x : B \otimes \Theta(C \otimes D) \in \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(D, l' \mid \Box x'[a]))
\]

\[
G \mid \Gamma_0, a : A \mid \Gamma_1, x_0 : B \otimes \Theta C \mid \Delta, x_1 : \Theta D \in \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(E, l' \mid \Box x_0'[a]))
\]

(by BoCA0)

\[
\subseteq \text{lts}_e(\text{env}(E), l' \mid \Box x_0'[a])
\]

(by I.H.)

\[
G \mid \Gamma_0, a : A \mid \Gamma_1, \Delta, x : B \otimes \Theta(C \otimes D) \in \text{lts}_d(\text{env}(D), l')
\]

(by env(BoCA0))

There is also

\[
G \mid \Delta_0, a : A \mid \Delta_1, \Gamma, x : B \otimes \Theta(C \otimes D) \in \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(D, l' \mid \Box x'[a]))
\]

but symmetric and thus omitted.

- other cases are similar or trivial.

- If \( D \) is \( \text{Cut} \) on \( E \), then \( \text{env}(E) \) is \( G \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid \Delta, y : A^⊥ \) and \( \text{env}(D) \) is \( G \mid \Gamma, \Delta \). If \( l \) is not \( \tau \), it is trivial; otherwise we have

\[
\text{env}(\text{lts}_d(D, \tau)) = \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(E, \Box x'[a] \mid \Box y'(a'))) \cup \text{lts}_e(E, \Box x[] \mid \Box y()) \cup \ldots
\]

(by all comm rules)

\[
= \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(E, \Box x'[a] \mid \Box y'(a'))) \cup \text{env}(\text{lts}_d(E, \Box x[] \mid \Box y()))
\]

\[
\ldots
\]

(by extended def of \( \text{env} \))

\[
\subseteq \text{lts}_e(\text{env}(E), \Box x'[a] \mid \Box y'(a')) \cup \text{lts}_e(\text{env}(E), \Box x[] \mid \Box x()) \cup \ldots
\]

(by I.H.)

\[
= \text{lts}_e(\text{env}(D), \tau)
\]

(by env(all comm rules))
Lemma 33 (External choice of coemitter). If \( P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, y : \Diamond^{i,j: \cdots} C \), then the following are equivalent:

- \( P \xrightarrow{y()} \)
- \( P \xrightarrow{y(a')} \)
- \( P \xrightarrow{y(a')} \)
- \( \ldots \)

Proof. The only ways those labels can be emitted are by \( \text{DiW} \) or by \( \text{DiA} \) and the two have the same premises. Formally, one can prove this by induction on \( P \vdash G \mid \Gamma, y : \Diamond^{i,j: \cdots} C \). □

Proof of theorem 23. We strengthen the statement to the following. Let \( P \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1} \). For every \( i < n \), we have \( P \xrightarrow{l_i} \) where either \( l_i = \tau \) or \( \text{FN}(l_i) \cap N(\Gamma_i) \neq \emptyset \). This is so we can prove by induction on the derivation of \( P \vdash G \).

\[ \text{HMix0} \text{ Trivial.} \]
\[ \text{HMix} \text{ then } P \text{ is } P_0 \mid P_1 \text{ where} \]
\[ P_0 \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{m-1} \]
\[ P_1 \vdash \Gamma_m \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1} \]

For \( i < m \) we apply I.H. on \( P_0 \), and apply \( \text{PAR0} \). For \( m \leq i < n \) we apply I.H. on \( P_1 \) and apply \( \text{PAR1} \).

\[ \text{BoC} \text{ then } P \text{ is } \Box x[x_0, x_1] P' \text{ where} \]
\[ P' \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1}, x_0 : \Box^\Theta C \mid \Gamma_n, x_1 : \Box^\Theta D \]
\[ P \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1}, \Gamma_n, x : \Box^\Theta (C \otimes D) \]

Apply I.H. on \( P' \) and we get a series of labels \( l_0, \ldots, l_n \). For \( i < n - 1 \), we apply \( \text{BoCP} \) on \( l_i \) and we are done. For \( i = n - 1 \), we look at \( l_{n-1} \) and \( l_n \):

- If \( \text{FN}(l_{n-1}) \neq x_0 \), then we apply \( \text{BoCP} \).
- If \( l_{n-1} \) is \( \Box x_0[a] \), then we apply \( \text{BoCA0} \).
- If \( \text{FN}(l_n) \neq x_1 \), then apply \( \text{BoCP} \).
- If \( l_n \) is \( \Box x_1[a] \), then we apply \( \text{BoCA1} \).
– Otherwise it must be that \( l_{n-1} \) is \( \square x_0 \) and \( l_n \) is \( \square x_1 \), and we first invoke theorem 32 to get \( P' \xrightarrow{\square x_0 \square x_1} P \) and then apply BoCW to get \( P \xrightarrow{\square x} \).

**Cut** Then \( P \) is \( \nu x P' \), where

\[
P' \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1}, x : A \mid \Gamma_n, y : A^\perp
\]

\[
P \vdash \Gamma_0 \mid \cdots \mid \Gamma_{n-1}, \Gamma_n
\]

Apply I.H. and we get a series of labels \( l_0, \ldots, l_n \). For \( i < n-1 \), we apply \( \text{Res} \) on \( l_i \) and we are done. For \( i = n-1 \), we look at \( l_{n-1} \) and \( l_n \):

– If \( \text{Fn}(l_{n-1}) \neq x \), then we apply \( \text{Res} \).
– If \( \text{Fn}(l_n) \neq y \), then we apply \( \text{Res} \).
– Otherwise we must have \( \text{Fn}(l_{n-1}) = x \) and \( \text{Fn}(l_n) = y \). By theorem 23, we know the two labels must be dual. In particular, if \( A \) or \( A^\perp \) is \( \diamond \) one has to invoke lemma 33 to ensure that \( \diamond \) emits actions matching with \( \square \).

o.w. then \( n = 1 \) and we have the corresponding action rule giving transition.

**Theorem 34** (Partial Diamond Property). \( \text{its}_d \) with restriction on \( \text{BoCA0} \) and \( \text{BoCA1} \) enjoys the diamond property. To be precise: if \( D \xrightarrow{l_0} E \) (left premise) and \( D \xrightarrow{l_1} F \) (right premise) where \( l_0 \# l_1 \) and not \( E =_\alpha F \), then there exists \( G \) such that \( E \xrightarrow{l_1} G \) and \( F \xrightarrow{l_0} G \). This generalizes the diamond property in Montesi and Peressotti [2021].

**Proof of theorem 34.** By induction on the derivation of \( D \). We first notice that in most cases, \( l_0 \# l_1 \) is false, and therefore trivial. We only consider the following cases.

**HMin** \( D \) is \( D_0 \mid D_1 \). We take cases

– If \( D \xrightarrow{l_0} E \) is \( \text{ParO} \) on \( D_0 \xrightarrow{l_0} E_0 \), and \( D \xrightarrow{l_1} F \) is \( \text{ParO} \) on \( D_0 \xrightarrow{l_1} F_0 \), then apply I.H. we get some \( G_0 \) so that \( E_0 \xrightarrow{l_1} G_0 \) and \( F_0 \xrightarrow{l_0} G_0 \). Let \( G := G_0 \mid D_1 \), and by \( \text{ParO} \) we have \( E \xrightarrow{l_1} G \) and \( F \xrightarrow{l_0} G \).

– If \( D \xrightarrow{l_0} E \) is \( \text{ParO} \) on \( D_0 \xrightarrow{l_0} E_0 \), and \( D \xrightarrow{l_1} F \) is \( \text{ParO} \) on \( D_1 \xrightarrow{l_1} F_1 \), let \( G := E_0 \mid F_1 \), and (without I.H.) we will have \( E \xrightarrow{l_1} G \) by \( \text{ParO} \) and \( F \xrightarrow{l_0} G \) by \( \text{ParO} \).
– If $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0 l_1} \mathcal{E}$ is $\text{PAR}$ on $\mathcal{D}_0 \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E}_0$ and $\mathcal{D}_1 \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{E}_1$, and $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{F}$ is $\text{PAR}$ on $\mathcal{D}_0 \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{F}_0$. By I.H. we will have some $\mathcal{G}_0$ such that $\mathcal{E}_0 \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{G}_0$ and $\mathcal{F}_0 \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}_0$. Let $\mathcal{G} := \mathcal{G}_0 \mid \mathcal{E}_1$, we should have $\mathcal{E} \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{G}$ by $\text{PAR}$, and $\mathcal{F} \xrightarrow{l_0 l_1} \mathcal{G}$ by $\text{SYN}$.

– All other cases are similar.

$\text{BoC}$ $\mathcal{D}$ is $\boxdot x[x_0, x_1] \mathcal{D}'$. We take cases:

– If $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E} = \boxdot x[x_0, x_1] \mathcal{E}'$ by $\text{BoCP}$ and $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{F} = \boxdot x[x_0, x_1] \mathcal{F}'$ by $\text{BoCP}$. Then $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E}'$ and $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{F}'$, and by I.H. we have some $\mathcal{G}'$ such that $\mathcal{E}' \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{G}'$ and $\mathcal{F}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}'$. Let $\mathcal{G} := \boxdot x[x_0, x_1] \mathcal{G}'$ and we have $\mathcal{E} \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{F} \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}$ both by $\text{BoCP}$.

– If $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E} = \boxdot x[x_0, x_1] \mathcal{E}'$ by $\text{BoCP}$ and $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x]} \mathcal{F} = \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q \mid \mathcal{F}')$ by $\text{BoCW}$. Then $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E}'$ and $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x]} \mathcal{F}'$. By I.H. there exist some $\mathcal{G}'$ such that $\mathcal{E}' \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x]} \mathcal{G}'$ and $\mathcal{F}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}'$. Let $\mathcal{G} := \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q \mid \mathcal{G}')$ and we have $\mathcal{E} \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x]} \mathcal{G}$ by $\text{BoCW}$ and $\mathcal{F} \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}$ by $\text{PAR}$ and $\text{RES}$.

– If $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E} = \boxdot x[x_0, x_1] \mathcal{E}'$ by $\text{BoCP}$ and $\mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x[a]]} \mathcal{F} = \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q \mid \mathcal{F}')$ by $\text{BoCA_0}$, that gives $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E}'$ and $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x[a]]} \mathcal{F}'$. By I.H. we get some $\mathcal{G}'$ such that $\mathcal{F}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}'$ and $\mathcal{E}' \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x[a]]} \mathcal{G}'$. Let $\mathcal{G} := \nu x_0 y_0 \nu x_1 y_1 (Q \mid \mathcal{G}')$ and we have $\mathcal{E} \xrightarrow{l'_1[\boxdot x[a]]} \mathcal{G}$ by $\text{BoCA_0}$ and $\mathcal{F} \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}$ and $\text{PAR}$ and $\text{RES}$.

– All other cases are similar or trivial (in the sense that $l_0 \# l_1$ is false).

$\text{Ctx}$ $\mathcal{D}$ is $\nu x y \mathcal{D}'$. We take cases:

– Both premises are given by $\text{RES}$, then we have $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{E}'$ and $\mathcal{D}' \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{F}'$ where $\mathcal{E} = \nu x y \mathcal{E}'$ and $\mathcal{F} = \nu x y \mathcal{F}'$. By I.H. we have some $\mathcal{G}'$ such that $\mathcal{F}' \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}'$ and $\mathcal{E}' \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{G}'$. Define $\mathcal{G} := \nu x y \mathcal{G}'$ and by $\text{RES}$ we have $\mathcal{F} \xrightarrow{l_0} \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{E} \xrightarrow{l_1} \mathcal{G}$. 

122 | CHAPTER 3. CONCURRENT EFFECTS IN LINEAR LOGIC
3.D. OMITTED CONTENT OF CEGV

- Right premise by Res and therefore $D \xrightarrow{l_1} F'$ where $F = \nu x y F'$.

Left premise by some communication rule $R$, and we have $D' \xrightarrow{l_0} E'$ for some $l_0'$, where $E'$ is $E$ but with more or fewer cuts according to $R$. By I.H. we get some $G'$ such that $F' \xrightarrow{l_0} G'$ and $E' \xrightarrow{l_1} G'$.

Apply $R$ on the first we get $F \xrightarrow{l_0} G$, and apply Res several times on the second we get $E \xrightarrow{l_1} G$, where $G$ is $G'$ with more or fewer cuts according to $R$.

- Both premises are by some communication rule. This is impossible because the only way $E$ could be different from $F$ is if one side uses BoCA0 and the other BoCA1, which is prevented by the requirement that $D \xrightarrow{l_0} E$.

- Other cases are similar.

Proof of lemma 3.D.1. The proof is similar to Montesi and Peressotti [2021]. Define $R := \approx \cup \{(D, E) \mid D \xrightarrow{\tau} E\}$, we show $R$ to be a bisimulation, and therefore part of $\approx$. For $(D, E) \in R$ where $D \xrightarrow{\tau} E$, we note:

- For any $D \xrightarrow{l} D'$. If $D' = E$, then $l$ has to be $\tau$, and we easily have $E \xrightarrow{\tau} E$ and $(E, E) \in R$. Otherwise by theorem 3.D.3 there exists $E'$ such that $E \xrightarrow{l} E'$ and $D' \xrightarrow{\tau} E'$. That gives $E \xrightarrow{l} E'$ and $(D', E') \in R$.

- For any $E \xrightarrow{l} E'$, we have $D \xrightarrow{l} E'$ and $(E', E') \in R$.

3.D Omitted content of CEGV

The functional fragment of CEGV is given in fig. 3.D.1 and fig. 3.D.2. The session fragment is in fig. 3.D.3. Omitted rules of the effect fragment is in fig. 3.D.4.

Proposition 35. $\llbracket C_U \rrbracket$ is positive.

Proof. By simple induction on unlimited types $C_U$.

Proposition 36. $\llbracket - \rrbracket$ preserves duality. I.e., $\llbracket C_S \rrbracket^\bot = \llbracket \overline{C_S} \rrbracket$

Proof. By simple induction on session types $C_S$. 

□
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Contract} & \\
\Gamma, x_0 : A_U, x_1 : A_U \vdash P : B & : b \\
\Gamma, x_0 : A_U \vdash P[x_0/x_1] : B & : b
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket P \rrbracket_b \vdash \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, x_0 : \llbracket A_U \rrbracket, x_1 : \llbracket A_U \rrbracket, b : \llbracket B \rrbracket \\
x_0[\text{DUP}(x_1)], \llbracket P \rrbracket_b \vdash \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, x_0 : \llbracket A_U \rrbracket, b : \llbracket B \rrbracket
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Weaken} & \\
\Gamma \vdash P : B & : b \\
\Gamma, x : A_U \vdash P : B & : b \\
\llbracket P \rrbracket_b \vdash \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, b : \llbracket B \rrbracket
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Tensor-I} & \\
\Gamma \vdash P : C & \quad \Delta \vdash Q : D \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash (P, Q) : C \otimes D & : d
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket P \rrbracket_c \vdash \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, c : \llbracket C \rrbracket & \\
\llbracket Q \rrbracket_d \vdash \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket, d : \llbracket D \rrbracket \\
\text{let } (c, d) = P \text{ in } Q & : \llbracket E \rrbracket
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Tensor-E} & \\
\Gamma \vdash P : C \otimes D & \quad \Delta, c : C, d : D \vdash Q : E \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{let } (c, d) = P \text{ in } Q : E & : e
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket P \rrbracket_z \vdash \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, z : \llbracket C \rrbracket \otimes \llbracket D \rrbracket & \\
\llbracket Q \rrbracket_e \vdash \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket, e : \llbracket E \rrbracket \\
\nu d z (\llbracket P \rrbracket_z \mid d(c), \llbracket Q \rrbracket_e) \vdash \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket, \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket, e : \llbracket E \rrbracket
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 3.D.1: CEGV, functional fragment, Part one
\[ \begin{array}{l}
\text{LOLI-I} \\
\Gamma, c : C \vdash P : D \\
\Gamma \vdash \lambda c. P : C \rightarrow D \\
\end{array} \]
\[ := \frac{[P]_d \vdash [\Gamma]^{\perp}, c : [C]^{\perp}, d : [D]}{d(c). [P]_d \vdash [\Gamma]^{\perp}, d : [C]^{\perp} \otimes [D]} \]

\[ \begin{array}{l}
\text{LOLI-E} \\
\Gamma \vdash P : C \rightarrow D \\
\Delta \vdash Q : C \\
\Gamma, \Delta \vdash P Q : D \\
\end{array} \]
\[ := \frac{[P]_z \vdash [\Gamma]^{\perp}, z : [C]^{\perp} \otimes [D]}{[Q]_z \vdash [\Delta]^{\perp}, c : [C]} \quad \frac{d \leftrightarrow d' \vdash d : [D], d' : [D]^{\perp}}{
u z d' ([P]_z | d' | c), ([Q]_z | d \leftrightarrow d') \vdash [\Gamma]^{\perp}, [\Delta]^{\perp}, d : [D]} \]

\[ \begin{array}{l}
\text{ARROW-I} \\
\Gamma_U \vdash P : C \rightarrow D \\
\Gamma_U \vdash P : C \rightarrow D \\
\end{array} \]
\[ := \frac{[P]_z \vdash [\Gamma_U]^{\perp}, z : [C]^{\perp} \otimes [D]}{
u z. ([P]_z \vdash [\Gamma_U]^{\perp}, z : ![([C]^{\perp} \otimes [D])])] \]

\[ \begin{array}{l}
\text{ARROW-E} \\
\Gamma \vdash P : C \rightarrow D \\
\Gamma \vdash P : C \rightarrow D \\
\end{array} \]
\[ := \frac{[P]_z \vdash [\Gamma]^{\perp}, z : ![([C]^{\perp} \otimes [D])]}{w \leftrightarrow w' \vdash w : [C] \otimes [D]^{\perp}, w' : [C]^{\perp} \otimes [D]} \]

\[ \nu z w ([P]_z | w[\text{USE}], w \leftrightarrow w') \vdash [\Gamma]^{\perp}, w' : [C]^{\perp} \otimes [D] \]

Figure 3.D.2: CEGV, functional fragment, Part two
Figure 3.D.3: CEGV, typing rules of sessions
Figure 3.D.4: CEGV, omitted typing rules of effects
Proposition 37. The operation $\neg$ is an involution; that is $\neg (\neg C) = C$.

Proof. By observing the definition of duality in CEGV.

The following implication states that an emitter that does not use any effect can be converted into a pure value. They are not used in our paper but still interesting.

Proposition 38 (Purify).

\[ \square C \to C \quad C \to \Diamond \square C \]

Proof. We will derive them in CEGV instead of CELL for simplicity. The first can be derived by Handler and the second by Runner (which we omit)

\[ \text{purify} := \vdash \text{handler}\{i.i, a.z', \_, y.y\} : \square C \to C \]

Note that the other direction can be given by the Unit rule:

\[ C \to \square C \quad \square C \to C \]

They together form an equivalence, as stated by the next theorem.

Proposition 39.

- For any $\Gamma \vdash P : C$, we have $\text{purify}( \text{unit}(P)) \approx P$
- For any $\Gamma \vdash P : \square C$, we have $\text{unit}(\text{purify}(P)) \approx P$

Proof. We first translates unit and purify to CELL (unfolding $\otimes$):

\[ \text{unit'} := \square x[]. x \leftrightarrow c' : C^\perp, x : \square C \]
\[ \text{purify'} := \Diamond y\{i.i \leftrightarrow c'', za.z', \_, f.f \leftrightarrow f\} \vdash y : \Diamond C^\perp, c'' : C \]

Now for the first bisimilarity, we need to prove that for any $P' \vdash \Gamma^\perp, c : C$, we have

\[ \nu c' \nu x y (P' | \text{unit'} | \text{purify'}) \approx P'[c''/c] \]

which follows by lemma 27 and the fact that LHS would $\tau$-transition to RHS.

For the second bisimilarity, we need to prove that for any $P' \vdash \Gamma^\perp, x' : \square C$, we have

\[ \nu c'' \nu x y (P' | \text{unit'} | \text{purify'}) \approx P'[x'/x] \]

Let $R := \approx \cup \{\nu c'' \nu x y (P' | \text{unit'} | \text{purify'}), P'[x'/x'] \mid P' \vdash \Gamma, x' : \square C\}$. We will prove $R$ to be bisimulation and thus $R \subset \approx$.

- For labels $l$ s.t. $\text{FN}(l) \in \Gamma$, then for LHS it must be by Res and say $P' \downarrow \ni Q$. That means LHS transitions to

\[ \nu c'' \nu x y (Q | \text{unit'} | \text{purify'}) \]

and RHS transitions to $Q[x/x']$. Note that LHS and RHS after transition are still in $R$. 

3.D. OMITTED CONTENT OF CEGV

- For label \( \Box x[] \), say RHS transitions to \( Q[x/x'] \), and LHS transitions to

\[
Q' := \nu c'\nu x'y(P' | x \leftrightarrow c' | \text{purify'})
\]

which further \( \tau \)-transitions to \( Q[x/x'] \). As a result, \( (Q', Q[x/x']) \in R \) by lemma 27.

\( \square \)

Proof of proposition 28. We omit the types for simplicity

- (left identity) LHS translates to

\[
\nu z_0 x_1 (z_0 [d'] | ([P]_d | x_0 \leftrightarrow z_0) | x_1 (d). [Q]_{z_1 z_2 C})
\]

RHS translates to

\[
\nu d d' ([P]_d' | [Q]_{z_0 z_1 C})
\]

We easily have LHS \( \tau \)-transition to RHS, and thus follows by lemma 27.

- (right identity) LHS translates to

\[
\nu z x' ([P]_{xz C} | x' (d). z'[d'] | (d \leftrightarrow d' | x' \leftrightarrow z'))
\]

RHS translates to

\[
[P]_{xz C}
\]

Consider how \([P]_{xz C} \) will transition. First case is \( z'[c] \rightarrow Q \), then we should have \([P]_{xz C} \xrightarrow{z'[c]} Q[z/z'] \), and therefore LTS would \( \tau \)-transition into

\[
\nu z x' \nu c d (Q[z/z'] | z'[d'] | (d \leftrightarrow d' | x' \leftrightarrow z'))
\]

which then \( \xrightarrow{z'[d']} \) into \( Q[d'/c] \). On the other hand, RHS simply \( \xrightarrow{z[c]} Q \). Therefore the two are bisimilar.

For any other cases, LHS will simulate RHS by Res.

- (commutativity) RHS translates to

\[
\nu z_0 x_1 ([P]_{x_0 z_0 C} | x_1(d). \nu z_1 x_2 ([Q]_{z_1 z_2 C} | x_2(e). [R]_{x_2 z_2 C}))
\]

RHS translates to

\[
\nu z_1 x_2 (\nu z_0 x_1 ([P]_{x_0 z_0 C} | x_1(d). [Q]_{z_1 z_2 C}) | x_2(e). [R]_{x_2 z_2 C})
\]

which are trivially bisimilar.

\( \square \)
We conjecture the following properties about Spawn, but did not prove them due to the computational complexity.

- A spawned process and a continuation thereof are on an equal footing. That is for any $\Gamma | \Theta \vdash P : 1$ and $\Delta | \Theta \vdash Q : 1$ we have
  \[ \Gamma, \Delta | \Theta \vdash \text{spawn(close}(P)) ; Q \approx \text{spawn(close}(Q)) ; P : 1 \]

- Spawning a trivial emitter does nothing:
  \[ \Gamma | \Theta \vdash \text{spawn(unit}(\star)) \approx \text{return}(\star) : 1 \]

We can portray the behaviours of example 8 using bisimilarities, as follows.

**Theorem 40** (One-sided Equality Theory). We have the following facts in CEGV.

- Given $\Gamma \vdash P : 1 + X$ we have $\llbracket \text{cell}^X(P) \rrbracket_y \xrightarrow{\Diamond y^{-}(a')} a'[\epsilon] \approx \llbracket (P, \text{cell}^X(\text{inl} \star)) \rrbracket_y$, which says getting from a cell containing $P$ (which might be empty) returns $P$ and leaves the cell empty.

- $\llbracket \text{cell}^X(\text{inl} \star) \rrbracket_y \xrightarrow{\Diamond y^{-}(a')} a'[\epsilon] \approx \llbracket (\text{inl} \star, \text{cell}^X(\text{inr} a')) \rrbracket_y$ which says putting to an empty cell will fill the cell and returns empty.

- Given $\Gamma \vdash P' : X$ we have
  \[ \llbracket \text{cell}^X(\text{inr} P') \rrbracket_y \xrightarrow{\Diamond y^{-}(a')} a'[\epsilon] \approx \llbracket (\text{inr} a', \text{cell}^X(\text{inr} P')) \rrbracket_y \]
  which says putting $P$ to a non-empty cell will not change the cell and returns $P$

**Proof.** We first translate the statements into CELL:

- Given $P \vdash \Gamma, i : S_X$, we have
  \[ \text{cell}^X_y(i.P) \xrightarrow{\Diamond y^{-}(a')} a'[\epsilon] \approx \]
  \[ a'(). y[i]. (P | \text{cell}^X_y) \vdash \Gamma, a' : \bot, y : S_X \otimes \Theta^X X S_X \]

- we have
  \[ \text{cell}^X_y \xrightarrow{\Diamond y^{-}(a')} a'[\epsilon] \approx \]
  \[ y[i]. (i[i].0_i | \text{cell}^X_y(i.i[R]. a' \leftrightarrow i)) \vdash \Gamma, a' : X^\bot, y : S_X \otimes \Theta^X X S_X \]
Given $P' \vdash \Gamma, i : X$, we have
\[
\text{cell}_y^X(i,i[R], P') \xrightarrow{y-(a')} a'[\pi] \approx y[b], (b[R], a' \leftrightarrow b | \text{cell}_y^X(i,i[R], P')) \vdash \Gamma, a' : X^\perp, y : S_X \otimes \otimes \Theta^X S_X
\]
And then we prove them one by one:

• We have LHS
\[
\text{cell}_y^X(i,P) \xrightarrow{y-(a')} a'[\pi] \xrightarrow{\nu i' z' \nu i z} (Q_{get} | D | P)
\]
whose only possible further transition (by tedious computation) is (implicitly using some alpha-renaming)
\[
\xrightarrow{a'()} \xrightarrow{y[i]} \nu i' z' (P | z'[L].0_{z'} | \text{cell}_y^X(i,i \leftrightarrow i'))
\]
note that the only possible transition of RHS $a().y[i]. P | \text{cell}_y^X$ is
\[
\xrightarrow{a() y[i]} P | \text{cell}_y^X
\]
We therefore only need to further prove
\[
\nu i' z' (z'[L].0_{z'} | \text{cell}_y^X(i,i \leftrightarrow i')) \approx \text{cell}_y^X(i,i[L].0_i)
\]
which is easy, because on both sides, the only possible transition is $y-(a')$, which on LHS gives (using some alpha-renaming)
\[
\nu i' z' (z'[L].0_{z'} | \nu i z' \nu i z'' Q[z''/z'] | D[i''/i'] | i \leftrightarrow i')
\]
\[
\xrightarrow{\nu i z' \nu i z'' (Q[z''/z'] | D[i''/i'] | i[L].0_i)}
\]
which is same as RHS after the $y-(a')$ transition. Citing lemma 27 and we are finished.

• We have LHS
\[
\text{cell}_y^X \xrightarrow{y-(a')} a'[\pi] \xrightarrow{\nu i' z' \nu i z} (Q_{put} | D | i[L], i[i].0)
\]
which further transitions
\[
\xrightarrow{\nu i' z' (cell_y^X(i,i \leftrightarrow i') | i[L], 0_i | z'[R].a' \leftrightarrow z')}
\]
while the RHS transitions
\[
\xrightarrow{y[i]} (i[L].0_i | cell_y^X(i,i[R], a' \leftrightarrow i))
\]
thus only to show is
\[
\nu' z' (cell_y^X (i,i \leftrightarrow i') | z'[R], a' \leftrightarrow z') \approx cell_y^X (i,i[R], a' \leftrightarrow i)
\]
which is easy, because on both sides, the only possible transition is \( \Diamond y-(a') \), which on LHS gives
\[
\nu' z' (\nu z' \nu'' z'' (Q[z''/z'] | \mathcal{D}[i''/i'] | i \leftrightarrow i') | z'[R], a' \leftrightarrow z')
\]
\[
\xrightarrow[\tau]{\nu z' \nu'' z'' (Q[z''/z'] | \mathcal{D}[i''/i'] | i[R], a' \leftrightarrow i)}
\]
which is exactly as RHS after \( \Diamond y-(a') \) transition. Citing lemma [27] and we are done.

- We have LHS
\[
\xrightarrow[\tau]{\nu z' \nu'' z'' (Q[z''/z'] | \mathcal{D}[i''/i'] | i[R], a' \leftrightarrow i)}
\]
which further transitions
\[
\xrightarrow[\tau]{y[b]} \nu z' \nu'' z'' (Q[z''/z'] | \mathcal{D}[i''/i'] | i[R], a' \leftrightarrow i) \]
while the RHS transitions
\[
\xrightarrow[\tau]{y[b]} (b[R], a' \leftrightarrow b) \]
thus only to show is
\[
\nu' z' (P' | z'[R], z \leftrightarrow z' | cell_y^X (i,i \leftrightarrow i')) \approx cell_y^X (i,i[R], P')
\]
which is easy, because the only possible transition on both sides is \( \Diamond y-(a') \), which on LHS gives
\[
\nu' z' \nu'' z'' (P' | z'[R], z \leftrightarrow z' | cell_y^X (i,i \leftrightarrow i')) \approx cell_y^X (i,i[R], P')
\]
which is trivial because the only possible transition on both sides is \( i''[R], a' \leftrightarrow i'' \), after which LHS gives \( P'[i''/i] \), and RHS (via some \( \tau \) transition) also gives \( P'[i''/i] \).

\( \square \)
Example 13 (Linear Exception). Exception is a common example of typical effect systems. This is however difficult in our system, because we are not allowed to discard continuation which is central for exception handling. As a result, we must use the continuation, which brings the second issue that we are not able to provide absurdity to continuation. Recall that typically continuation receives absurdity which can be casted to any type in need; this is an important feature of exception. Absurdity in linear logic corresponds to the additive units, which are always omitted from the CP interpretation of linear logic; To amend this would worth a standalone paper and we leave it to future work. Here we take the easy way where we pass $B := 1$ to the continuation, and simply discard the returning value of the continuation.

$$S := E + X \quad A := E \quad B := 1 \quad D := X \quad \Theta := \text{raise} : (A : B)$$

To handle exception at $a'$, we resume the continuation with $\star$ and disregards the return value; instead we will use $a'$ as the return value. Note that we require $E + X$ to be a unlimited type (positive type) for silently dropping; this is always the case in typical functional programming.

$$a' : A, z' : B \rightarrow S \vdash Q : S$$

$$Q : = \text{let } _\_ = z' \star \text{ in } \text{inl } a'$$

(silently drops the return value)

(record error in result)

And we have

$$\vdash \text{catch} := \text{handler}\{i, i', a'z', Q, y, \text{inr } y\} : y : \Theta D \rightarrow S$$

On the other hand, we define main program (assuming $\vdash e_0 : E$ and $\vdash x_0 : X$) which raises exception before returning.

$$\vdash \Theta \vdash M : D$$

$$M := \text{emit}^{\text{raise}}(e_0); \quad \text{(discard the unit given by the handler)}$$

$$\text{return}(x_0)$$

If we run $M$ inside catch:

$$\vdash \text{catch}(\text{close}(M)) \approx \text{inl } e_0 : S$$

we get some $S$ which will be bisimilar to $\text{inl } e_0$; the bisimilarity can be easily proved by lemma 27.

While we can somewhat express exception, non-determinism (which calls continuation multiple times with different response) would be certainly not possible. Linearity of continuation is discussed in section 3.8.
Example 14 (Effects as a Service (EaaS)). In example 10, instead of incrementing a number, we can allow client to perform effects directly by setting \( X_S := \diamond \Theta \text{end} \) and make `serve` simply forward all \( \Theta \)-effects from the client to the server.

\[
x : X_S \mid \Theta \vdash \text{serve} := x \leftarrow \text{open}(x); \quad \text{return}(\text{terminate } x) : 1
\]

Note in this case, \( \text{cell}^{X_S} \) stores \( \Theta \text{end} \); i.e. we have effects whose request/response are effectful computations. This is only possible because the latter are merely types.

Note that example 10 still lacks a program that put new sessions to \( \text{cell} \). Depending on the scenario we want to model, there are two approaches. If we assume the client process to be some other emitter sharing the cell with the server, it can simply put sessions itself, which is simple and omitted. If we assume the client process to be isolated from the server and only talks to the server via a channel, one tends to use coexponential [Qian et al., 2021], but for simplicity we use list to model client queue. We could assume list as primitive, but we will define it for self-containment.

Example 15 (Encoding List). We can think \([X]\) a list of \( X \) as an emitter that for many times emits \( X \) while expecting only trivial response. Define

\[
\Theta := _\_ : (X : 1) \quad [X] := \diamond \Theta 1
\]

We now have:

\[
\Gamma \vdash P : X \quad \Delta \vdash Q : [X] \quad \Gamma, \Delta \vdash P :: Q := \text{inst}(\text{emit-}(P))(\lambda _\_, Q) : [X]
\]

\[
\Gamma \vdash P : S \quad z : S, a' : X \vdash Q : S
\]

\[
\Gamma \vdash \text{fold}(P,z a'.Q) := \text{handler}\{i.P,d'a'.let z' = z'(* \, Q,y,y) : [X] \to S}
\]

Logically \([X] \equiv _\_X\), but semantically the latter allows clients permutation while the former does not, which is essential for racy client acceptance. This is however not a problem for modeling most client/server, because while the clients acceptance is deterministic, their interaction with the server emits effects on the server and races with each other.

We are now at a position to define the process that accepts client sessions \( X_S \) and put them to the \( \text{cell}^{X_S} \).

Example 16 (Accepting client connections). We want to fold the list such that for each element (which is a connection \( X \)) we put it to \( \text{cell} \). Note that the list operations looks pure and do not mention effects at all, which...
is however not a problem. We use a similar trick as in example 7 and let $S := \mathbb{Ω}1$ and we define
\[
\Gamma \vdash P := \text{unit}(\ast) : S \\
z : S, a' : X \vdash Q : S \\
Q := \text{inst}(\text{sput}_{\omega})(\lambda_. z) \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{accepter} := \text{fold}(P, za'.Q) : [X] \to S
\]

Note that in general the user of fold can pick any $\Omega$ they want, assuming the user can pick any $S$ they want. Effect polymorphism [Brachthäuser et al., 2020] is a heated area, and our approach of reducing it to type polymorphism has limitations; for example, the function $\text{map} : (X \to Y) \to [X] \to [Y]$ cannot support effects by simply instantiating $X, Y$ to appropriate types. We leave it to future works.

We now define (Recall that $\Theta$ represents database IO):
\[
\Gamma, y : [X_S] \mid \Theta \vdash \text{server} : 1
\]

**Example 17 (Bidirectional Effects).** Zhang et al. [2020] introduced bidirectional effects which means handler might emits effects themselves. In contrast to example 7 where the effects are handled by more primitive co-emitter, here the effect are handled by the effectful computation that emit effect in the first place. Our system can easily express this by setting the effect response to be an emitter. Note this is only possible because the latter is merely a type, which allows higher-order effects.

We consider a simple example where a main program would try to get some value $X$. The effect will be handled and in fact cause some exception $E$ back to the main program who will handle the exception. We define
\[
\Theta := \text{raise} : (E : 1) \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{main} : E + X \\
\text{main} := x \leftarrow \text{emit}^{\text{get}}(\ast); \\
\quad \text{return}(\text{catch}(x))
\]

where $\text{catch}$ is defined in example 13. We then define the $\Theta$-runner:
\[
\Gamma \vdash P := \ast : S \\
z : S, a' : 1 \vdash Q_{\text{get}} := (\text{close}(\text{emit}^{\text{raise}}(e_0); \text{return}(x_0)), \ast) : \mathbb{Ω}X \otimes S \\
f : S \vdash R := \ast : 1 \\
\Gamma \vdash \text{runner} := \text{runner}(P, za'.Q, f.R) : \Diamond \mathbb{Ω}1
\]
And we connect runner with main:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\vdash \text{let } (s, y) = \text{coinst}(\text{main})(\text{runner}) \text{ in } \\
&\quad \text{let } _\_ = \text{counit}(y) \text{ in } s \\
&\quad : E + X
\end{align*}
\]

we further claim the above is bisimilar to \text{inl } e_0.

**Example 18** (Positive Cell). A more traditional cell would (in contrast to linear cell throughout the paper) allow overwriting (destruction) and repeated reading (duplication), in which case the content has to be an unlimited type \(X_U\). This was the case in [Rocha and Caires 2021] and can be reproduced in our system. We choose to implement it in CEGV, as unlimited types are more natural in CEGV than in CELL. Assuming initial value \(\Gamma \vdash P : X_U\) supplied by the user. We first specify the effects:

\[
\Theta := \text{read} : (1 : X_U), \text{write} : (X_U : 1)
\]

We then define the positive cell using \text{Runner} with internal state \(S := X_U\). For reading, we duplicate the old state \(z\) to two copies, one used as new state, one given to user. For writing, we first discard the old state, and forward the user input to the new state. However, both duplication and discarding are implicit thanks to \text{Weaken} and \text{Contract}. In finalization we simply return the internal state.

\[
\begin{align*}
&z : S, a' : 1 \vdash Q^{\text{read}} := (z, z) : X_U \otimes S \\
&z : S, a' : X_U \vdash Q^{\text{write}} := (*, a') : 1 \otimes S
\end{align*}
\]

Combining everything:

\[
\text{pcell}^{X_U}(P) := \text{runner}\{P, za', Q, f, f\} \vdash \Gamma, y : \diamond \Theta S
\]

This example is less interesting than linear cell as it cannot store non-positive types such as sessions.

**Example 19** (Dining Philosophers). Dining philosophers has been difficult to express in linear logic due to its cyclic nature. We will represent a chopstick as a linear cell of \(1\). Non-empty cell means the chopstick is occupied. To allow each philosopher to access multiple cell\(^1\), we follow example \([1]\) and define the following prefixed version of sput and sget

\[
\begin{align*}
&| i.\text{get} : (1 : 1 + X) \vdash \text{sget}(i) := \text{let } e = * \text{ in } \text{doUntil } e.\text{emit}(i.\text{get}(i)) : X \\
&e : X | i.\text{put} : (X : X + 1) \vdash \text{sput}(i) := \text{doUntil } e.\text{emit}(i.\text{put}(e)) : 1
\end{align*}
\]

We first define a single philosopher; they would acquire the left and right sticks in order, and then release them.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{\Omega := i.\text{get} : (1 : 1 + 1), i.\text{put} : (1 : 1 + 1), j.\text{get} : (1 : 1 + 1), j.\text{put} : (1 : 1 + 1)} \\
&\text{| \Omega \vdash \text{nerd} := \text{let } u = * \text{ in } \text{sput}(u) ; \text{sput}(u) ; \text{sget}(j) ; \text{sget}(j) ; \text{return}(*) : 1}
\end{align*}
\]
3.D. OMITTED CONTENT OF CEGV

We first derive the following syntax sugar based on example 11 and Using that silently discards the coemitter after using it, given that it returns an unlimited value. This is to simplify the main program.

\[ \Gamma | \Omega \vdash P : \diamond^\theta E_U \quad \Delta | \Theta_1, \Omega \vdash Q : D \]

\[ \Gamma, \Delta | \Omega \vdash \text{using}^* j.P(Q) := (d, y) \leftarrow \text{using} j.P(Q); \text{let } _= \text{coinst}(y) \text{ in return}(d) : D \]

We now write the main program; we start by allocating two cells prefixed with \text{i} and \text{j} with empty initial state. We then spawn two philosophers with different order of cells.

\[ | \vdash M : 1 \]

\[ M := \text{using}^* i \cdot \text{cell}^1 (\text{inl } \ast)( \quad \text{(allocate empty cell and use it)} \]

\[ \text{using}^* j \cdot \text{cell}^1 (\text{inl } \ast)( \quad \text{(allocate empty cell and use it)} \]

\[ \text{spawn}(\text{nerd}^{ij}); \text{spawn}(\text{nerd}^{ji})) \]

Here \text{using}^* silently destroys (instead of returning) the cells after using them. Note that \( M \) is an effectful computation with empty effect environment.

\textbf{Remark 3 (Cell is not Reference).} example 9 gives the impression that our Cell\textsuperscript{X} is similar to references \textsuperscript{[Leroy et al., 2022]}. However, Cell\textsuperscript{X} being a coemitter is not a positive type, and thus cannot be referred to more or less than once. This is why the above \text{nerd} is parameterized over \text{i} and \text{j} instead of taking two Cell\textsuperscript{1} as arguments, since each Cell\textsuperscript{1} would be referred to by both \text{nerd}. 
Bibliography


Marco Carbone, Sam Lindley, Fabrizio Montesi, Carsten Schürmann, and Philip Wadler. Coherence Generalises Duality: A Logical Explanation of
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Paolo Tranquilli. Translating types and effects with state monads and linear logic. 2010.


NINGNING XIE, YOUYOU CONG, and DAAN LEIJEN. First-class names for effect handlers, 2022.

