

On the Expressive Power of User-Defined Effects: Effect Handlers, Monadic Reflection, Delimited Control

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We compare the expressive power of three programming abstractions for user-defined computational effects: Bauer and Pretnar's effect handlers, Filinski's monadic reflection, and delimited control without answer-type-modification. This comparison allows a precise discussion about the relative expressiveness of each programming abstraction. It also demonstrates the sensitivity of the relative expressiveness of user-defined effects to seemingly orthogonal language features.

We present three calculi, one per abstraction, extending Levy's call-by-push-value. For each calculus, we present syntax, operational semantics, a natural type-and-effect system, and, for effect handlers and monadic reflection, a set-theoretic denotational semantics. We establish their basic meta-theoretic properties: safety, termination, and, where applicable, soundness and adequacy. Using Felleisen's notion of a macro translation, we show that these abstractions can macro-express each other, and show which translations preserve typeability. We use the adequate finitary set-theoretic denotational semantics for the monadic calculus to show that effect handlers cannot be macro-expressed while preserving typeability either by monadic reflection or by delimited control. We supplement our development with a mechanised Abella formalisation.

CCS Concepts: •**Theory of computation** →**Control primitives; Functional constructs; Type structures; Denotational semantics; Operational semantics; Categorical semantics;**

Additional Key Words and Phrases: algebraic effects and handlers, monads, delimited control, computational effects, shift0 and reset, monadic reflection, reify and reflect, macro expressiveness, type-and-effect systems, denotational semantics, language extension, call-by-push-value, lambda calculi

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1 INTRODUCTION

How should we compare abstractions for user-defined effects?

The use of computational effects, such as file, terminal, and network I/O, random-number generation, and memory allocation and mutation, is controversial in functional programming. While languages like Scheme and ML allow these effects to occur everywhere, pure languages like Haskell restrict the use of effects. A main trade-off when incorporating computational effects into the language is giving up some of the most basic properties of the lambda calculus, like β -equality, referential transparency, and confluence. The loss of these properties may lead to unpredictable behaviour in lazy languages like Haskell, or limit the applicability of correctness preserving transformations like common subexpression elimination or code motion.

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Monads (Moggi 1989; Spivey 1990; Wadler 1990) are the established abstraction for incorporating effects into pure languages. The introduction of monads into Haskell led to their additional use as a programming abstraction, allowing new effects to be declared and used as if they were native. Examples include parsing (Hutton and Meijer 1998), backtracking and constraint solving (Schrijvers et al. 2013), and mechanised reasoning (Ziliani et al. 2015; Bulwahn et al. 2008). Libraries now exist for monadic programming even in impure languages such as OCaml¹, Scheme², and C++ (Sinkovics and Porkoláb 2013).

Bauer and Pretnar (2015) propose the use of *algebraic effects and handlers* to structure programs with user-defined effects. In this approach, the programmer first declares *algebraic operations* as the syntactic constructs she will use to cause the effects, in analogy with declaring new exceptions. Then, she defines *effect handlers* that describe how to handle these operations, in analogy with exception handlers. While exceptions immediately transfer control to the enclosing handler without resumption, a computation may continue in the same position following an effect operation. In order to support resumption, an effect handler has access to the *continuation* at the point of effect invocation. Thus algebraic effects and handlers provide a form of *delimited control*.

Delimited control operators have long been used to encode effects (Danvy 2006) and algorithms with sophisticated control flow (Felleisen et al. 1988). There are many variants of such control operators, and their inter-relationships are subtle (Shan 2007), and often appear only in folklore. Here we focus on a specific such operator: *shift-zero and dollar without answer-type-modification* (Materzok and Biernacki 2012), whose operational semantics and type system are the closest to effect handlers and monads.

We study these three different abstractions for user-defined effects: effect handlers, monads, and delimited control operators. Our goal is to enable language designers to conduct a precise and informed discussion about the relative expressiveness of each abstraction. In order to compare them, we build on an idealised calculus for functional-imperative programming, namely call-by-push-value (Levy 2004), and extend it with each of the three abstractions and their corresponding natural type systems. We then assess the expressive power of each abstraction by rigorously comparing and analysing these calculi.

We use Felleisen’s notion of macro expressibility (Felleisen 1991): when a programming language \mathcal{L} is extended by some feature, we say that the extended language \mathcal{L}_+ is *macro expressible* when there is a syntax-directed translation from \mathcal{L}_+ to \mathcal{L} that keeps the features in \mathcal{L} fixed. Felleisen introduces this notion of reduction to study the expressive power of Turing-complete calculi, as macro expressivity is more sensitive in these contexts than computability and complexity notions of reduction. We adapt Felleisen’s notion to the situation where one extension \mathcal{L}_+^1 of a base calculus \mathcal{L} is macro expressible in another extension \mathcal{L}_+^2 of the same base calculus \mathcal{L} . Doing so enable us to formally compare the expressive power for each approach to user-defined effects.

In the first instance, we show that, disregarding types, all three abstractions are macro-expressible in terms of one another, giving six macro-expression translations. Some of these translations are known in less rigorous forms, either published, or in folklore. One translation, macro-expressing effect-handlers in delimited control, improves on previous concrete implementations (Kammar et al. 2013), which rely on the existence of a global higher-order memory cell storing a stack of effect-handlers. The translation from monadic reflection to effect handlers is completely novel.

We also establish whether these translations preserve typeability: the translations of some well-typed programs are untypeable. We show that the translation from delimited control to monadic reflection preserves typeability. A potential difference between the expressive power of handler type systems and between monadic reflection and delimited control type systems was recently pointed out by Kammar and Pretnar (2017), who give a straightforward typeability preserving macro-translation of *delimited dynamic state* into a calculus effect handlers, whereas existing translations using monads and delimited control require more sophistication (Kiselyov et al. 2006). Here, we

¹http://www.cas.mcmaster.ca/~carette/pa_monad/

²<http://okmij.org/ftp/Scheme/monad-in-Scheme.html>

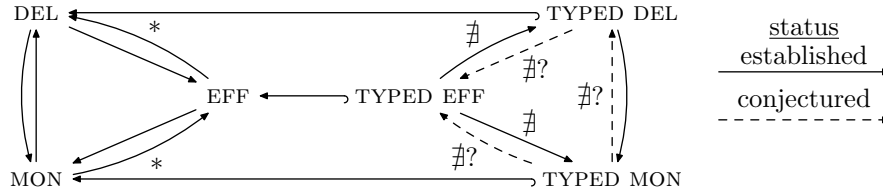


Fig. 1. Existing and conjectured macro translations

establish this difference: we demonstrate how to use the denotational semantics for the monadic calculus to prove that there exists no macro translation from the effect handlers calculus to the monadic reflection calculus that preserves typeability. This set-theoretic denotational semantics and its adequacy for Filinski’s multi-monadic metalanguage (2010) is another piece of folklore which we prove here. We conjecture that a similar proof, though with more mathematical sophistication, can be used to prove the non-existence of a typeability-preserving macro-expression translation from the monadic calculus to effect handlers. To this end, we give adequate set-theoretic semantics to the effect handler calculus with its type-and-effect system, and highlight the critical semantic invariant a monadic calculus will invalidate.

Fig. 1 summarises our contributions and conjectured results. Untyped calculi appear on the left and their typed equivalents on the right. Unlabelled arrows between the typed calculi signify that the corresponding macro translation between the untyped calculi preserves typeability. Arrows labelled by $*$ are new untyped translations. Arrows labelled by \neq signify that *no* macro translation exists between the calculi, not even a partial macro translation that is only defined for well-typed programs.

The non-expressivity results are sensitive to the precise collection of features in each calculus. For example, extending the base calculus with inductive types and primitive recursion would create gaps in our non-existence arguments, and we conjecture that extending the calculi with various forms of polymorphism would make our untyped translations typeability-preserving. Adding more features to each calculus blurs the distinction between each abstraction. This sensitivity means that in a realistic programming language, such as Haskell, OCaml, or Scheme, the different abstractions are often practically equivalent (Schrijvers et al. 2016). It also teaches us that meaningful relative expressivity results *must* be stated within a rigorous framework such as a formal calculus, where the exact assumptions and features are made explicit. The full picture is still far from complete, and our work lays the foundation for such a precise treatment.

We supplement our pencil-and-paper proofs with a mechanised formalisation in the Abella proof assistant (Gacek 2008, 2009) of the more syntactic aspects of our work. Specifically, we formalise a Wright and Felleisen style progress-and-preservation soundness theorem (1994), which we also call *safety*, for each calculus, and correctness theorems for our translations.

We make the following contributions:

- three formal calculi, i.e., syntax and semantics, for effect handlers, monadic reflection, and delimited control extending a shared call-by-push-value core, and their meta-theory:
 - set-theoretic denotational semantics for effect handlers and monadic reflection;
 - denotational soundness and adequacy proofs for effect handlers and monadic reflection;
 - a termination proof for monadic reflection (proofs for the other calculi appear in existing work);
- six macro-translations between the three untyped calculi, and variations on three of those translations;
- formally mechanised meta-theory in Abella³ comprising:
 - progress and preservation theorems;

³<https://github.com/matijapretnar/user-defined-effects-formalization>

$V, W ::=$	values	$M, N ::=$	computations	$V!$	force
x	variable	case V of	product	return V	returner
$()$	unit value	$(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow M$	matching	$x \leftarrow M; N$	sequencing
(V_1, V_2)	pairing	case V of {	variant	$\lambda x.M$	abstraction
$\text{inj}_\ell V$	variant	$\text{inj}_{\ell_1} x_1 \rightarrow M_1$	matching	$M V$	application
$\{M\}$	thunk	\vdots		$\langle M_1, M_2 \rangle$	pairing
		$\text{inj}_{\ell_n} x_n \rightarrow M_n$ }		$\text{prj}_i M$	projection

Fig. 2. MAM syntax

- the translations between the untyped calculi; and
- their correctness proofs in terms of formal simulation results;
- typeability preservation of the macro translation from delimited control to monadic reflection; and
- a proof that there exists no typeability-preserving macro translation from effect handlers to either monadic reflection or delimited control.

We structure the remainder of the paper as follows. Sections 2–5 present the core calculus and its extensions with effect handlers, monadic reflection, and delimited control, in this order, along with their meta-theoretic properties. Section 6 presents the macro translations between these calculi, their correctness, and typeability-preservation. Section 7 concludes and outlines further work.

2 THE CORE-CALCULUS: MAM

We are interested in a functional-imperative calculus where effects and higher-order features interact well. Levy’s call-by-push-value (CBPV) calculus (Levy 2004) fits the bill. The CBPV paradigm subsumes call-by-name and call-by-value, both syntactically and semantically. In CBPV evaluation order is explicit, and the way it combines computational effects with higher-order features yields simpler program logic reasoning principles (Plotkin and Pretnar 2008; Kammar and Plotkin 2012). CBPV allows us to uniformly deal with call-by-value and call-by-name evaluation strategies, making the theoretical development relevant to both ML-like and Haskell-like languages. We extend it with a type-and-effect system, and, as *adjunctions* form the semantic basis for CBPV, we call the resulting calculus the *multi-adjunctive metalanguage* (MAM).

Fig. 2 presents MAM’s raw term syntax, which distinguishes between values (data) and computations (programs). We assume a countable set of variables ranged over by x, y, \dots , and a countable set of variant constructor literals ranged over by ℓ . The unit value, product of values, and finite variants/sums are standard. A computation can be suspended as a thunk $\{M\}$, which may be passed around. Products and variants are eliminated with standard pattern matching constructs. Thunks can be forced to resume their execution. A computation may simply return a value, and two computations can be sequenced, as in Haskell’s `do` notation. A function computation abstracts over values to which it may be applied. In order to pass a function $\lambda x.M$ as data, it must first be suspended as a thunk $\{\lambda x.M\}$. For completeness, we also include CBPV’s binary computation products, which subsume projections on product values in call-by-name languages.

Example 2.1. Using the boolean values $\text{inj}_{\text{True}} ()$ and $\text{inj}_{\text{False}} ()$, we can implement a logical *not* operation:

$$\text{not} = \{\lambda b.\text{case } b \text{ of } \{\text{inj}_{\text{True}} x \rightarrow \text{return } \text{inj}_{\text{False}} () \\ \text{inj}_{\text{False}} x \rightarrow \text{return } \text{inj}_{\text{True}} ()\}\}$$

Fig. 3 presents MAM’s standard structural operational semantics, in the style of Felleisen and Friedman (1987). In order to reuse the core definitions as much as possible, we refactor the semantics into β -reduction rules and a single congruence rule. As usual, a β -reduction reduces a matching pair of introduction and elimination forms.

Frames and contexts		Beta reduction $\boxed{M \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M'}$
$\mathcal{B} ::= x \leftarrow [\] ; N \mid [\] V \mid \text{prj}_i [\]$	basic frames	(\times) case (V_1, V_2) of $(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow M$ $\rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M[V_1/x_1, V_2/x_2]$
$\mathcal{F} ::= \mathcal{B}$	computation frames	($+$) case inj_ℓ V of $\{ \dots \text{inj}_{\ell} x \rightarrow M \dots \}$ $\rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M[V/x]$
$\mathcal{C} ::= [\] \mid \mathcal{C}[\mathcal{F} [\]]$	evaluation context	(F) $x \leftarrow \text{return } V ; M \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M[V/x]$
$\mathcal{H} ::= [\] \mid \mathcal{H}[\mathcal{B} [\]]$	hoisting context	(U) $\{M\}! \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M$
Reduction $\boxed{M \rightsquigarrow M'}$		(\rightarrow) $(\lambda x.M) V \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M[V/x]$
$\frac{M \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M'}{\mathcal{C}[M] \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{C}[M']}$		($\&$) $\text{prj}_i \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M_i$

Fig. 3. MAM operational semantics

We specify in the definition of evaluation contexts the *basic frames*, which all our extensions will share. We use $[\]$ to denote the hole in each frame or context, which signifies which term should evaluate first, and define substitution frames and terms for holes ($\mathcal{C}[\mathcal{F} [\]]$, $\mathcal{C}[M]$) in the standard way. Later, in each calculus we will make use of *hoisting frames* in order to capture continuations, stacks of basic frames, extending from a control operator to the nearest delimiter. As usual, a reducible term can be decomposed into at most one pair of evaluation context and β -reducible term, making the semantics deterministic.

Example 2.2. With this semantics we have *not!* $(\text{inj}_{\text{True}} ()) \rightsquigarrow^+ \text{return inj}_{(\text{False}())}$.

In this development, we use the following standard syntactic sugar. We use nested patterns in our pattern matching constructs. We abbreviate the variant constructors to their labels, and omit the unit value, e.g., True desugars to $\text{inj}_{\text{True}} ()$. We allow the application of functions and the elimination constructs to apply to arbitrary computations, and not just values, by setting for example $M N := x \leftarrow N ; M x$ for some fresh x , giving a more readable, albeit call-by-value, appearance.

Example 2.3. As a running example we express boolean state in each of our calculi such that we can write code like *toggle* in Fig. 4(a) which toggles the state and returns the value of the original state. In MAM, we do so via a standard state-passing transformation, as in Fig. 4(b), and run *toggle* with the initial value True to get the expected result $\text{runState! toggle True} \rightsquigarrow^* (\text{True}, \text{False})$. This transformation is *not* a macro translation. In addition to the definition of *put* and *get*, it globally threads the state through *toggle*'s structure. In later section, each abstraction provides a different means for macro-expressing state.

Fig. 5 presents MAM's types and effects. MAM is a variant of Kammar and Plotkin's multi-adjunctive intermediate language (2012) without effect operations or coercions. As a core calculus for three calculi with very different notions of effect, MAM is pure, and the only shared effect is the empty effect \emptyset . We include a kind system, unneeded in traditional CBPV where a context-free distinction between values and computations forces types to be well-formed. The two points of difference from CBPV are the kind of effects, and the refinement of the

$\begin{aligned} \text{toggle} = \{ & x \leftarrow \text{get!}; \\ & y \leftarrow \text{not! } x; \\ & \text{put! } y; \\ & x \} \end{aligned}$ <p>(a) Ideal style</p>	$\begin{aligned} \text{get} &= \{ \lambda s. (s, s) \} & \text{toggle} &= \{ \lambda s. (x, s) \leftarrow \text{get! } s; \\ \text{put} &= \{ \lambda s'. \lambda _ . ((), s') \} & & y \leftarrow \text{not! } x; \\ \text{runState} &= \lambda c. \lambda s. c! s & & (_ , s) \leftarrow \text{put! } y s; \\ & & & (x, s) \} \end{aligned}$ <p>(b) State-passing style</p>
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Fig. 4. User-defined boolean state

$E ::=$	effects	$A, B ::=$	value types	$C, D ::=$	computation types
\emptyset	pure effect	α	type variable	FA	returners
$K ::=$	kinds	$ 1$	unit	$ A \rightarrow C$	functions
$ \mathbf{Eff}$	effects	$ A_1 \times A_2$	products	$ C_1 \& C_2$	products
$ \mathbf{Val}$	values	$ \{\mathbf{inj}_{\ell_1} A_1$	variants	Environments:	
$ \mathbf{Comp}_E$	computations	$ \dots \mathbf{inj}_{\ell_n} A_n\}$		$\Theta ::= \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$	
$ \mathbf{Ctx}$	environments	$ U_{EC}$	thunks	$\Gamma, \Delta ::= x_1 : A_1, \dots, x_n : A_n$	

Fig. 5. MAM kinds and types

computation kind by well-kinded effects E . The other available kinds are the standard value kind and a kind for well-formed environments (without type dependencies). Our type system includes value-type variables (which we will later use for defining monads parametrically). Simple value types are standard CBPV value types, and each type of thunks includes an effect annotation describing the effects of these thunks. Computation types include returners FA , which are computations that return a value of type A , similar to the monadic type $\mathbf{Monad} \ m \implies m \ a$ in Haskell. Functions are computations and only take values as arguments. We include CBPV's computation products, which account for product elimination via projection in call-by-name languages. To ensure the well-kindedness of types, which may contain type-variables, we use type environments in a list notation that denotes sets of type-variables. Similarly, we use a list notation for value environments, which are functions from a finite set of variable names to the set of *value* types.

Example 2.4. The type of booleans \mathbf{bit} is given by $\{\mathbf{inj}_{\text{False}} 1 \mid \mathbf{inj}_{\text{True}} 1\}$.

Fig. 6 presents the kind and type systems. The only effect (\emptyset) is well-kinded. Type variables must appear in the current type environment, and they are always value types. The remaining value and computation types and environments have straightforward structural kinding conditions. Thunks of E -computations of type C require the type C to be well-kinded, which includes the side-condition that E is a well-kinded effect. This kind system has the property that each valid kinding judgement has a unique derivation. Value type judgements assert that a value term has a well-formed value type under a well-formed environment in some type variable environment. The rules for simple types are straightforward. Observe how the effect annotation moves between the E -computation type judgement and the type of E -thunks. The side condition for computation type judgements asserts that a computation term has a well-formed E -computation type under a well-formed environment for some well-formed effect E under some type variable environment. The rules for variables, value and computation products, variants, and functions are straightforward. The rules for thunking and forcing ensure the computation's effect annotation agrees with the effect annotation of the thunk. The rule for **return** allows us to return a value at any effect annotation, reflecting the fact that this is a *may*-effect system: the effect annotations track which effects may be caused, without prescribing that any effect *must* occur. The rule for sequencing reflects our choice to omit any form of effect coercion, subeffecting, or effect polymorphism: the three effect annotations must agree. There are more sophisticated effect systems which allow more flexibility (Katsumata 2014). We leave the precise treatment of such extensions to later work.

Example 2.5. The values from Fig. 4(b) have the following types:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathit{not} : U_{\emptyset}(\mathbf{bit} \rightarrow F\mathbf{bit}) & \mathit{get} : U_{\emptyset}(\mathbf{bit} \rightarrow F(\mathbf{bit} \times \mathbf{bit})) & \mathit{put} : U_{\emptyset}(\mathbf{bit} \rightarrow \mathbf{bit} \rightarrow F(\mathbf{bit} \times \mathbf{bit})) \\ \mathit{toggle} : U_{\emptyset}(\mathbf{bit} \rightarrow F(\mathbf{bit} \times \mathbf{bit})) & \mathit{runState} : U_{\emptyset}(U_{\emptyset}(\mathbf{bit} \rightarrow F(\mathbf{bit} \times \mathbf{bit})) \rightarrow \mathbf{bit} \rightarrow F(\mathbf{bit} \times \mathbf{bit})) \end{array}$$

THEOREM 2.6 (MAM SAFETY). *Well-typed programs don't go wrong: for all closed MAM returners $\Theta; \vdash_{\emptyset} M : FA$, either $M \rightsquigarrow N$ for some $\Theta; \vdash_{\emptyset} N : FA$ or else $M = \mathbf{return} \ V$ for some $\Theta; \vdash V : A$.*

The proof is standard and formalised in Abella, established by inductive proofs of progress and preservation.

<p>Effect kinding $\boxed{\Theta \vdash_k E : \text{Eff}}$ $\overline{\Theta \vdash_k \emptyset : \text{Eff}}$</p>	<p>Computation kinding $\boxed{\Theta \vdash_k C : \text{Comp}_E}$ $(\Theta \vdash_k E : \text{Eff})$</p>	
<p>Value kinding $\boxed{\Theta \vdash_k A : \text{Val}}$</p>		
$\frac{\alpha \in \Theta}{\Theta \vdash_k \alpha : \text{Val}} \quad \frac{}{\Theta \vdash_k 1 : \text{Val}} \quad \frac{\Theta \vdash_k A_1 : \text{Val} \quad \Theta \vdash_k A_1 : \text{Val}}{\Theta \vdash_k A_1 \times A_2 : \text{Val}}$		
$\frac{\text{for every } 1 \leq i \leq n: \Theta \vdash_k A_i : \text{Val}}{\Theta \vdash_k \{\text{inj}_{\ell_1} A_1 \mid \dots \mid \text{inj}_{\ell_n} A_n\} : \text{Val}} \quad \frac{\Theta \vdash_k C : \text{Comp}_E}{\Theta \vdash_k U_E C : \text{Val}}$		
	$\frac{\Theta \vdash_k A : \text{Val}}{\Theta \vdash_k FA : \text{Comp}_E}$ $\frac{\Theta \vdash_k A : \text{Val} \quad \Theta \vdash_k C : \text{Comp}_E}{\Theta \vdash_k A \rightarrow C : \text{Comp}_E}$ $\frac{\Theta \vdash_k C_1 : \text{Comp}_E \quad \Theta \vdash_k C_2 : \text{Comp}_E}{\Theta \vdash_k C_1 \& C_2 : \text{Comp}_E}$	
<p>Context kinding $\boxed{\Theta \vdash_k \Gamma : \text{Ctxt}}$</p>	<p>Computation typing $\boxed{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : C}$ $(\Theta \vdash_k \Gamma : \text{Ctxt}, E : \text{Eff}, C : \text{Comp}_E)$</p>	
<p>for all $x \in \text{Dom}(\Gamma)$: $\Theta \vdash_k \Gamma(x) : \text{Val}$</p> $\frac{}{\Theta \vdash_k \Gamma : \text{Ctxt}}$	$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : A_1 \times A_2 \quad \Theta; \Gamma, x_1 : A_1, x_2 : A_2 \vdash_E M : C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \text{case } V \text{ of } (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow M : C} \quad \frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : U_E C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E V! : C}$	
<p>Value typing $\boxed{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : A}$</p>	$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : \{\text{inj}_{\ell_1} A_1 \mid \dots \mid \text{inj}_{\ell_n} A_n\}}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \text{case } V \text{ of } \{\text{inj}_{\ell_1} x_1 \rightarrow M_1; \dots; \text{inj}_{\ell_n} x_n \rightarrow M_n\} : C}$	
$\frac{(x : A) \in \Gamma}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash x : A} \quad \frac{}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash () : 1}$	$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : A \quad \Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : C_1 \& C_2}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \text{return } V : FA} \quad \frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : C_1}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \text{prj}_i M : C_i}$	
$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V_1 : A_1 \quad \Theta; \Gamma \vdash V_2 : A_2}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash (V_1, V_2) : A_1 \times A_2}$	$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : FA \quad \Theta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash_E N : C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E x \leftarrow M; N : C} \quad \frac{\Theta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash_E M : C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \lambda x. M : A \rightarrow C}$	
$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : A_i}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash \text{inj}_{\ell_i} V : \{\text{inj}_{\ell_1} A_1 \mid \dots \mid \text{inj}_{\ell_n} A_n\}}$	$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : A \rightarrow C \quad \Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : A}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M V : C}$	
$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash \{M\} : U_E C}$	$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M_1 : C_1 \quad \Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M_2 : C_2}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle : C_1 \& C_2}$	

Fig. 6. MAM kind and type system

We extend existing termination results for CBPV (Doczkal 2007; Doczkal and Schwinghammer 2009). We say that a term M *diverges*, and write $M \rightsquigarrow^\infty$ if for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists some N such that $M \rightsquigarrow^n N$. We say that M *does not diverge* when $M \not\rightsquigarrow^\infty$.

THEOREM 2.7 (MAM TERMINATION). *There are no infinite reduction sequences: for all MAM terms $; \vdash_\emptyset M : FA$, we have $M \not\rightsquigarrow^\infty$, and there exists some unique $; \vdash V : A$ such that $M \rightsquigarrow^* \text{return } V$.*

The proof uses Tait's method (1967) to establish totality, defining a relational interpretation to types and establishing a basic lemma, and the notion of lifting from Hermida's thesis (1993) to define the monadic lifting of a predicate. The remainder of the proof is immediate as the semantics is deterministic.

For the purpose of defining contextual equivalence, we define the subclass of *ground types*:

$$(\text{ground values}) G ::= 1 \mid G_1 \times G_2 \mid \{\text{inj}_{\ell_1} G_1 \mid \dots \mid \text{inj}_{\ell_n} G_n\}$$

Effects	$\llbracket \emptyset \rrbracket_\theta := \langle \text{Id}, \text{id}, \text{id} \rangle$	Computation types	
Value types	$\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket_\theta := \theta(\alpha)$	$\llbracket 1 \rrbracket_\theta := \{\star\}$	$\llbracket FA \rrbracket_\theta := F \llbracket A \rrbracket_\theta$
	$\llbracket A_1 \times A_2 \rrbracket_\theta := \llbracket A_1 \rrbracket_\theta \times \llbracket A_2 \rrbracket_\theta$	$\llbracket U_E C \rrbracket_\theta := \llbracket C \rrbracket_\theta$	$\llbracket A \rightarrow C \rrbracket_\theta := \langle \llbracket C \rrbracket_\theta \mid \llbracket A \rrbracket_\theta, \lambda f_s. \lambda x. c(\mathbf{fmap}(\lambda f. f(x)) f_s) \rangle$
	$\llbracket \{\text{inj}_{\ell_1} A_1 \mid \dots \mid \text{inj}_{\ell_n} A_n\} \rrbracket_\theta :=$ $(\{\ell_1\} \times \llbracket A_1 \rrbracket_\theta) \cup \dots \cup (\{\ell_n\} \times \llbracket A_n \rrbracket_\theta)$		$\llbracket C_1 \& C_2 \rrbracket_\theta :=$ $\langle \llbracket C_1 \rrbracket_\theta \times \llbracket C_2 \rrbracket_\theta, \lambda c_s. \langle c_1(\mathbf{fmap} \pi_1 c_s), c_2(\mathbf{fmap} \pi_2 c_s) \rangle \rangle$

Fig. 7. MAM denotational semantics for types

The definition of program contexts $\mathcal{X}[\]$ and their type judgements is straightforward but tedious and lengthy with four kinds of judgements, and so we take a different approach. Informally, given two computation terms M_1 and M_2 , in order to define their contextual equivalence, we need to quantify over the set $\Xi[M_1, M_2] := \{ \langle \mathcal{X}[M_1], \mathcal{X}[M_2] \rangle \mid \mathcal{X}[\] \text{ is a well-typed context} \}$. Once we define this set, we do not need contexts, their type system, or their semantics in the remainder of the development, and so we will define this set directly.

We say that an environment Γ' *extends* an environment Γ , and write $\Gamma' \geq \Gamma$ if Γ' extends Γ as a partial function from identifiers to value types. Given two well-typed computations $\Theta_0; \Gamma_0 \vdash_{E_0} M_1 : C_0$ and $\Theta_0; \Gamma_0 \vdash_{E_0} M_2 : C_0$, let $\Xi[\Theta_0; \Gamma_0 \vdash_{E_0} M_1, M_2 : C_0]$ be the smallest set of tuples $\langle \Theta', \Gamma', V_1, V_2, A \rangle$ and $\langle \Theta', \Gamma', E', N_1, N_2, C \rangle$ that is compatible with the typing rules and contains all the tuples $\langle \Theta, \Gamma, E_0, M_1, M_2, C_0 \rangle$, where $\Theta \supseteq \Theta_0$ and $\Gamma \geq \Gamma_0$. The tuples $\langle \Theta', \Gamma', V_1, V_2, A \rangle$ and $\langle \Theta', \Gamma', E', N_1, N_2, C \rangle$ represent $\Theta'; \Gamma' \vdash V_1, V_2 : A$ and $\Theta'; \Gamma' \vdash_{E'} N_1, N_2 : C$, respectively. The compatibility with the rules means, for example, that if $\langle \Theta', \Gamma', V_1, V_2, A \rangle$ is in $\Xi[\Theta_0; \Gamma_0 \vdash_{E_0} M_1, M_2 : C_0]$, then so is $\langle \Theta', \Gamma', \emptyset, \mathbf{return} V_1, \mathbf{return} V_2, FA \rangle$.

If we do define program contexts $\mathcal{X}[\]$, we can then show that this set consists of all the *pairs of contexts plugged with M_1 and M_2* , i.e., tuples such as $\langle \Theta, \Gamma, E_0, \mathcal{X}[M_1], \mathcal{X}[M_2], Y \rangle$ where $\mathcal{X}[\]$ is a context of type Y whose hole expects type X . Define the set $\Xi[\Theta_0; \Gamma_0 \vdash V_1, V_2 : A]$ for contexts plugged with values analogously.

For uniformity's sake, we let types X range over both value and E -computation types, and phrases P range over both value and computation terms. Judgements of the form $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P : X$ are meta-judgements, ranging over value judgements $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash P : X$ and E -computation judgement $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P : X$.

Let $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X$ be two MAM phrases. We say that P and Q are *contextually equivalent* and write $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P \simeq Q : X$ when, for all pairs of plugged *closed ground-returner pure* contexts $\langle \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset, M_P, M_Q, FG \rangle$ in $\Xi[\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X]$ and for all closed ground value terms $\vdash V : G$, we have:

$$M_P \rightsquigarrow^* \mathbf{return} V \quad \iff \quad M_Q \rightsquigarrow^* \mathbf{return} V$$

MAM has a straightforward set-theoretic denotational semantics. Presenting the semantics for the core calculus will simplify our later presentation. To do so, we first recall the following established facts about monads, specialised and concretised to the set-theoretic setting.

A monad is a triple $\langle T, \mathbf{return}, \gg \rangle$ where T assigns to each set X a set TX , \mathbf{return} assigns to each set X a function $\mathbf{return}^X : X \rightarrow TX$ and \gg assigns to each function $f : X \rightarrow TY$ a function $\gg f : TX \rightarrow TY$, and moreover these assignments satisfy well-known algebraic identities. Given a monad $\langle T, \mathbf{return}, \gg \rangle$ we define for every function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ the functorial action $\mathbf{fmap} f : TX \rightarrow TY$ as $\mathbf{fmap} f xs := xs \gg (\mathbf{return} \circ f)$. A T -algebra for a monad $\langle T, \mathbf{return}, \gg \rangle$ is a pair $C = \langle |C|, c_C \rangle$ where $|C|$ is a set and $c_C : T|C| \rightarrow |C|$ is a function satisfying $c(\mathbf{return} x) = x$, and $c(\mathbf{fmap} c xs) = c(xs \gg \text{id})$ for all $x \in |C|$ and $xs \in T^2|C|$. The set $|C|$ is called the *carrier* and we call c the *algebra structure*. For each set X , the pair $FX := \langle TX, \gg \text{id} \rangle$ forms a T -algebra called the *free T -algebra over X* .

We parameterise MAM's semantics function $\llbracket \Theta \vdash_k E : \mathbf{Eff} \rrbracket$ by an assignment θ of sets $\theta(\alpha)$ to each of the type variables α in Θ . Given such a type variable assignment θ , we assign to each

- effect: a monad $\llbracket \Theta \vdash_k E : \mathbf{Eff} \rrbracket_\theta$, denoted by $\langle T_{\llbracket E \rrbracket_\theta}, \mathbf{return}^{\llbracket E \rrbracket_\theta}, \gg^{\llbracket E \rrbracket_\theta} \rangle$;

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{Value terms} \quad \llbracket x \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \pi_x(\gamma) \quad \llbracket (V_1, V_2) \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \langle \llbracket V_1 \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma), \llbracket V_2 \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) \rangle \\
 \quad \quad \quad \llbracket () \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \star \quad \llbracket \text{inj}_\ell V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \langle \ell, \llbracket V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) \rangle \quad \llbracket \{M\} \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) \\
 \text{Computation terms} \\
 \llbracket \text{case } V \text{ of } (x_1, x_2) \rightarrow M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma[x_1 \mapsto a_1, x_2 \mapsto a_2]) \quad \text{where } \llbracket V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle \\
 \llbracket \text{case } V \text{ of } \{\text{inj}_{\ell_1} x_1 \rightarrow M_1 \cdots \text{inj}_{\ell_n} x_n \rightarrow M_n\} \rrbracket_\theta := \llbracket M_i \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma[x_i \mapsto a_i]) \quad \text{where } \llbracket V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) = \langle \ell_i, a_i \rangle \\
 \llbracket V! \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \llbracket V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) \\
 \llbracket \text{return } V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \text{return} (\llbracket V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma)) \quad \llbracket x \leftarrow M; N \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) \gg \lambda a. \llbracket N \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma[x \mapsto a]) \\
 \llbracket \lambda x. M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \lambda a. \llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma[x \mapsto a]) \quad \llbracket M V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := (\llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma))(\llbracket V \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma)) \\
 \llbracket \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \langle \llbracket M_1 \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma), \llbracket M_2 \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) \rangle \quad \llbracket \text{prj}_i M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma) := \pi_i(\llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta(\gamma))
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 8. MAM denotational semantics for terms

- value type: a set $[\Theta \vdash_k A : \mathbf{Val}]_\theta$;
- E -computation type: a $T_{[E]_\theta}$ -algebra $[\Theta \vdash_k C : \mathbf{Comp}_E]_\theta$; and
- context: the set $[\Theta \vdash_k \Gamma : \mathbf{Ctx}]_\theta := \prod_{x \in \text{Dom}(\Gamma)} [\Gamma(x)]_\theta$.

Fig. 7 defines the standard set-theoretic semantics function over the structure of types. The pure effect denotes the identity monad, which sends each set to itself, and extends a function by doing nothing. The extended languages in the following sections will assign more sophisticated monads to other effects. The semantics of type variables uses the type assignment given as parameter. The unit type always denotes the singleton set. Product types and variants denote the corresponding set-theoretic operations of cartesian product and disjoint union, and thus the empty variant type $0 := \{\}$ denotes the empty set. The type of thunked E -computations of type C denotes the carrier of the $T_{[E]_\theta}$ -algebra $\llbracket C \rrbracket_\theta$. The E -computation type of A returners denotes the free $[E]_\theta$ -algebra. Function and product types denote well-known algebra structures over the sets of functions and pairs, respectively (Barr and Wells 1985, Theorem 4.2).

Terms can have multiple types, for example the function $\lambda x. \text{return } x$ has the types $1 \rightarrow 1$ and $0 \rightarrow 0$, and type judgements can have multiple type derivations. We thus give a Church-style semantics (Reynolds 2009) by defining the semantic function for type judgement derivations rather than for terms. To increase readability, we write $\llbracket P \rrbracket$ instead of including the entire typing derivation for P .

The semantic function for terms is parameterised by an assignment θ of sets to type variables. It assigns to each well-typed derivation for a:

- value term: a function $[\Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : A]_\theta : [\Gamma]_\theta \rightarrow [A]_\theta$; and
- E -computation term: a function $[\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : C]_\theta : [\Gamma]_\theta \rightarrow \llbracket [C]_\theta \rrbracket$.

Fig. 8 defines the standard set-theoretic semantics over the structure of derivations. The semantics of sequencing uses the Kleisli extension function $(\gg f) : TX \rightarrow \llbracket [C] \rrbracket$ for functions into non-free algebras $f : X \rightarrow \llbracket [C] \rrbracket$, given by $(\gg f) := c \circ \text{return} \circ f$.

THEOREM 2.8 (MAM COMPOSITIONALITY). *The meaning of a term depends only on the meaning of its sub-terms: for all pairs of well-typed plugged MAM contexts M_P, M_Q in $\Xi[\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X]$, if $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$ then $\llbracket M_P \rrbracket = \llbracket M_Q \rrbracket$.*

The proof is a straightforward induction on the set of plugged contexts.

To phrase our simulation results in later development, we adopt a relaxed variant of simulation: let \sim_{cong} be the smallest relation containing \sim_β that is closed under the term formation constructs, and so contains \sim as well, and let \simeq_{cong} be the smallest congruence relation containing \sim_β .

THEOREM 2.9 (MAM SOUNDNESS). *Reduction preserves the semantics: for every pair of well-typed MAM terms $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X$, if $P \simeq_{\text{cong}} Q$ then $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$. In particular, for every well-typed closed term of ground type $;\vdash_\emptyset P : FG$, if $P \sim^* \text{return } V$ then $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket V \rrbracket$.*

$M, N ::= \dots$ computations $ \text{op } V$ operation call $ \text{handle } M \text{ with } H$ handling construct $H ::=$ handlers $\{\text{return } x \mapsto M\}$ return clause $ H \uplus \{\text{op } p \mapsto N\}$ operation clause	Frames and contexts $\dots \mathcal{F} ::= \dots \text{handle } [] \text{ with } H$ computation frame Beta reduction $(\text{ret}) \text{ handle } (\text{return } V) \text{ with } H \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} H^{\text{return}}[V/x]$ $(\text{op}) \text{ handle } \mathcal{H}[\text{op } V] \text{ with } H \rightsquigarrow_{\beta}$ $H^{\text{op}}[V/p, \{\lambda x. \text{handle } \mathcal{H}[\text{return } x] \text{ with } H\}/k]$
(a) Syntax extensions to Fig. 2	(b) Operational semantics extensions to Fig. 3

Fig. 9. EFF

The proof is standard: check that \rightsquigarrow_{β} preserves the semantics via calculation, and appeal to compositionality. Combining the Theorem 2.6 (safety), Theorem 2.7 (termination), compositionality, and soundness, we have:

THEOREM 2.10 (MAM ADEQUACY). *Denotational equivalence implies contextual equivalence: for all well-typed MAM terms $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X$, if $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$ then $P \simeq Q$.*

As a consequence, we deduce that our operational semantics is very well-behaved: for all well-typed computations $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M, M' : C$, if $M \rightsquigarrow_{\text{cong}} M'$ then $M \simeq M'$.

In the following sections, we will extend the MAM calculus using the following convention. We use an ellipsis to mean that a new definition consists of the old definition verbatim with the new description appended, as in the following:

$$M, N ::= \dots | \text{op } V \quad \text{effect operation}$$

3 EFFECT HANDLERS: EFF

Bauer and Pretnar (2015) propose algebraic effects and handlers as a basis for modular programming with user-defined effects. Programmable effect handlers arose as part of Plotkin and Power’s computational effects (2002), which investigates the consequences of using the additional structure in algebraic presentations of monadic models of effects. This account refines Moggi’s monadic account (1989) by incorporating into the theory the syntactic constructs that generate effects as *algebraic operations for a monad* (Plotkin and Power 2003): each monad is accompanied by a collection of syntactic operations, whose interaction is specified by a collection of equations, i.e., an algebraic theory, which fully determines the monad. To fit exception handlers into this account, Plotkin and Pretnar (2009) generalise to the handling of arbitrary algebraic effects, giving a computational interpretation to algebras for a monad. By allowing the user to declare operations, the user can describe new effects in a composable manner. By defining algebras for the free monad with these operations, users give the abstract operations different meanings similarly to Swierstra’s use of free monads (2008).

Fig. 9(a) presents the extension EFF, Kammar et al.’s core calculus of effect handlers (Kammar et al. 2013). We assume a countable set of elements of a separate syntactic class, ranged over by *op*. We call these *operation names*. For each operation name *op*, EFF’s operation call construct allows the programmer to invoke the effect associated with *op* by passing it a value as an argument. Operation names are the only interface to effects the language has. The handling construct allows the programmer to use a handler to interpret the operation calls of a given returner computation. As the given computation may call thunks returned by functions, the decision which handler will handle a given operation call is dynamic. Handlers are specified by two kinds of clauses. A *return clause* describes how to proceed when returning a value. An *operation clause* describes how to proceed when invoking an operation *op*. The body of an operation clause can access the value passed in the operation call using the first bound variable *p*, which is similar to the bounding occurrence of an exception variable when handling

$$\begin{array}{ll}
toggle = \{x \leftarrow get (); & H_{ST} = \{\mathbf{return } x \mapsto \lambda s. \mathbf{return } x \quad State = \{get : 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{bit}, put : \mathbf{bit} \rightarrow 1\} : \mathbf{Eff} \\
y \leftarrow not! x; & \quad get _ k \mapsto \lambda s. k! s \quad s \quad toggle : U_{State} Fbit \\
put y; & \quad put s' k \mapsto \lambda _ . k! () s'\} \quad H_{ST} : \mathbf{bit}^{State} \Rightarrow^0 \mathbf{bit} \rightarrow Fbit \\
x\} & runState = \{\lambda c. \mathbf{handle } c! \mathbf{with } H_{ST}\} \quad runState : U_0((U_{State} Fbit) \rightarrow \mathbf{bit} \rightarrow Fbit)
\end{array}$$

Fig. 10. User-defined boolean state in EFF

exceptions. But unlike exceptions, we expect arbitrary effects like reading from or writing to memory to resume. Therefore the body of an operation clause can also access the continuation at the operation’s calling point. Even though we use a list notation in this presentation of the syntax, the abstract syntax tree representation of a handler H is in fact a pair $H = \langle H^{\mathbf{return}}, H^- \rangle$ consisting of a single return clause $H^{\mathbf{return}}$, and a function H^- from a finite subset of the operation names assigning to each operation name op its associated operation clause H^{op} .

Example 3.1. The two left columns of Fig. 10 demonstrate how to add user-defined boolean state in EFF. The handler H_{ST} is parameterised by the current state. When the computation terminates, we discard this state. When the program calls `get`, the handler returns the current state and leaves it unchanged. When the program calls `put`, the handler returns the unit value, and instates the newly given state.

Fig. 9(b) presents EFF’s extension to MAM’s operational semantics. Computation frames \mathcal{F} now include the handling construct, while the basic frames \mathcal{B} do not, allowing a handled computation to β -reduce under the handler. We add two β -reduction cases. When the returner computation inside a handler is fully evaluated, the return clause proceeds with the return value. When the returner computation inside a handler needs to evaluate an operation call, the definition of hoisting contexts \mathcal{H} ensures \mathcal{H} is precisely the continuation of the operation call delimited by the handler. Put differently, it ensures that the handler in the root of the reduct is the closest handler to the operation call in the call stack. The operation clause corresponding to the operation called then proceeds with the supplied parameter and current continuation. Rewrapping the handler around this continuation ensures that all operation calls invoked in the continuation are handled in the same way. An alternative (Kammar et al. 2013; Kiselyov et al. 2013; Lindley et al. 2017) is to define instead:

$$\mathbf{handle } \mathcal{H}[\mathbf{op } V] \mathbf{with } H \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} N[V/p, \{\lambda x. \mathcal{H}[\mathbf{return } x]\}/k]$$

This variant is known as *shallow* handlers, as opposed to the *deep* handlers of Fig. 9(b). We focus on deep handlers as they are closer to monadic reflection and have a clean denotational semantics.

Example 3.2. With this semantics, the user-defined state from Fig. 10 behaves as expected:

$$runState! toggle \mathbf{True} \rightsquigarrow^* (\mathbf{handle } \mathbf{True} \mathbf{with } H_{ST}) \mathbf{False} \rightsquigarrow^* \mathbf{True}$$

More generally, the handler H_{ST} expresses *dynamically scoped* state (Kammar and Pretnar 2017). For additional handlers for state and other effects, see Pretnar’s (2015) tutorial.

Fig. 11 presents EFF’s extension to the kind and type system. The effect annotations in EFF are functions from finite sets of operation names, assigning to each operation name its parameter type A and its return type B . We add a new kind for handler types, which describe the kind and the returner type the handler can handle, and the kind and computation type the handling clause will have.

In the kinding judgement for effects, the types in each operation’s arity assignment must be value types. The kinding judgement for handlers requires all the types and effects involved to be well-kinded. Computation type judgements now include two additional rules for each new computation construct. An operation call is well-typed when the parameter and return type agree with the arity assignment in the effect annotation. A use of the handling construct is well-typed when the type and effect of the handled computation and the type-and-effect of the construct agree with the types and effects in the handler type. The set of handled operations must strictly

<p>Kinds and types</p> $E ::= \dots \quad \text{effects}$ $ \{ \text{op} : A \rightarrow B \} \uplus E \quad \text{arity assignment}$ $K ::= \dots \quad \text{kinds}$ $ \text{Hndlr} \quad \text{handlers}$ $R ::= A^E \Rightarrow^{E'} C \quad \text{handler types}$ <p>Computation typing \dots</p> $\frac{(\text{op} : A \rightarrow B) \in E \quad \Theta; \Gamma \vdash V : A}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \text{op } V : FB}$ $\frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M : FA \quad \Theta; \Gamma \vdash H : A^E \Rightarrow^{E'} C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_{E'} \text{handle } M \text{ with } H : C}$ <p>Handler typing $\boxed{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash H : R} \quad (\Theta \vdash_k \Gamma : \text{Ctx}, R : \text{Hndlr})$</p> $\frac{\Theta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash_E M : C \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq i \leq n: \quad \Theta; \Gamma, p : A_i, k : U_E(B_i \rightarrow C) \vdash_E N_i : C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash \{ \text{return } x \mapsto M \} \uplus \{ \text{op}_i p k \mapsto N_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n \} : A^{\{ \text{op}_i : A_i \rightarrow B_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n \}} \Rightarrow^E C}$	<p>Effect kinding \dots</p> $\frac{\Theta \vdash_k A : \text{Val} \quad \Theta \vdash_k B : \text{Val} \quad \text{op} \notin E \quad \Theta \vdash_k E : \text{Eff}}{\Theta \vdash_k \{ \text{op} : A \rightarrow B \} \uplus E : \text{Eff}}$ <p>Handler kinding $\boxed{\Theta \vdash_k R : \text{Hndlr}}$</p> $\frac{\Theta \vdash_k A : \text{Val} \quad \Theta \vdash_k E, E' : \text{Eff} \quad \Theta \vdash_k C : \text{Comp}_{E'}}{\Theta \vdash_k A^E \Rightarrow^{E'} C : \text{Hndlr}}$
--	--

Fig. 11. EFF's kinding and typing (extending Fig. 5 and 6)

agree with the set of operations in the effect annotation. The variable bound to the return value has the returner type in the handler type. In each operation clause, the bound parameter variable has the parameter type from the arity assignment for this operation, and the continuation variable's input type matches the return type in the operation's arity assignment. The overall type of all operation clauses agrees with the computation type of the handler. The second effect annotation on the handler type matches the effect annotations on the continuation and the body of the operation and return clauses, in accordance with the deep handler semantics.

Example 3.3. The type system assigns the boolean state terms the types given in Fig. 10.

EFF's design involves several decisions. First, handlers have their own kind, unlike Pretnar's calculus in which they are values (Pretnar 2015). This distinction is minor, as handlers as values can be expressed by thinking the handling construct, cf. H_{ST} and $runState$ above. Next, the effect annotations involved in the handling construct have to agree precisely. Another option is to check inclusion of operation sets, i.e., a handler may handle more effects than the annotation on the effect. This distinction is minor, as we can express coercions from an effect annotation into a superset of effects using a trivial handler:

$$\{ \lambda x. \text{return } x \} \uplus \{ \text{op } p k \mapsto k(\text{op } p) \mid \text{op} \in E \} : A^E \Rightarrow^{E \uplus E'} FA$$

A more significant choice is to use *closed* handlers: execution halts/crashes when a handled computation calls an operation the handler does not handle. The other option is to use *forwarding* handlers (Kammar et al. 2013), in which unhandled operation calls are forwarded to the nearest enclosing handler that can handle them. In our simple type-and-effect system, this decision has no immediate impact, as we can use the trivial handler above to re-raise unhandled effects whenever needed. However, in more expressive type systems, which we do not consider here, in particular type systems with *effect polymorphism* (Lucassen and Gifford 1988; Leijen 2017; Kiselyov et al. 2013; Hillerström and Lindley 2016), this distinction is more significant. In this case, we believe that the language should include both variants: the forwarding variant to support code extensibility and modularity, and the closed variant to allow the programmer to guarantee that a computation cannot cause unhandled effects, or a mechanism for ascribing effect annotations to ensure all effects have been handled. Finally, it is possible to remove the effect system. In that case, the arity assignments for the operations need to be placed globally at

the top level of the program, as in Pretnar’s tutorial (Pretnar 2015). Removing the effect system has dramatic consequences on expressivity: as we are about to see, well-typed EFF terms always terminate. If we remove the effect annotations, we can encode a form of Landin’s knot (Landin 1964), making the calculus non-terminating.

EFF’s meta-theoretic development follows MAM’s development closely, with an Abella formalisation of safety:

THEOREM 3.4 (EFF SAFETY). *Well-typed programs don’t go wrong: for all closed EFF returners $\Theta; \vdash_{\emptyset} M : FA$, either $M \rightsquigarrow N$ for some $\Theta; \vdash_{\emptyset} N : FA$ or else $M = \mathbf{return} V$ for some $\Theta; \vdash V : A$.*

Using the monadic lifting from Kammar’s thesis (2014), we obtain termination for EFF (Kammar et al. 2013):

THEOREM 3.5 (EFF TERMINATION). *There are no infinite reduction sequences: for all EFF terms $; \vdash_{\emptyset} M : FA$, we have $M \rightsquigarrow^{\infty}$, and there exists some unique $; \vdash V : A$ such that $M \rightsquigarrow^* \mathbf{return} V$.*

EFF shares MAM’s ground types, and we define plugged contexts and the equivalences \simeq and \simeq_{cong} as in MAM.

We give an adequate set-theoretic denotational semantics for EFF. First, recall the following well established concepts in universal and categorical algebra. A *signature* Σ is a pair consisting of a set $|\Sigma|$ whose elements we call *operation symbols*, and a function *arity* $_{\Sigma}$ from $|\Sigma|$ assigning to each operation symbol $f \in |\Sigma|$ a (possibly infinite) set *arity* (f) . We write $(f : A) \in \Sigma$ when $f \in |\Sigma|$ and *arity* $_{\Sigma}(f) = A$. Given a signature Σ and a set X , we inductively form the set $T_{\Sigma}X$ of Σ -terms over X by:

$$t ::= x \mid f \langle t_a \rangle_{a \in A} \quad (x \in X, (f : A) \in \Sigma)$$

The assignment T_{Σ} together with the following assignments form a monad

$$\mathbf{return} x := x \quad t \gg f := t[f(x)/x]_{x \in X} \quad (f : X \rightarrow T_{\Sigma}Y)$$

The T_{Σ} -algebras $\langle C, c \rangle$ are in bijective correspondence with Σ -algebras on the same carrier. These are pairs $\langle C, \llbracket - \rrbracket \rangle$ where $\llbracket - \rrbracket$ assigns to each $(f : A) \in \Sigma$ a function $\llbracket - \rrbracket : C^A \rightarrow C$ from A -ary tuples of C elements to C . The bijection is given by setting $\llbracket f \rrbracket \langle \xi_a \rangle_{a \in A}$ to be $c(f \langle \xi_a \rangle_{a \in A})$.

EFF’s denotational semantics is given by extending MAM’s semantics as follows. Given a type variable assignment θ , we assign to each

- handler type: a pair $\llbracket \Theta \vdash_k X : \mathbf{Hndlr} \rrbracket = \langle C, f \rangle$ consisting of an algebra C and a function f into the $|C|$ carrier of this algebra.

Fig. 12 presents how EFF extends MAM’s denotational semantics. Each effect E gives rise to a signature whose operation symbols are the operation names in E tagged by an element of the denotation of the corresponding parameter type. This signature gives rise to the monad E denotes. When $E = \emptyset$, the induced signature is empty, and gives rise to the identity monad, and so this semantic function extends MAM’s semantics. Handlers handling E -computations returning A -values using E' -computations of type C denote a pair. Its first component is an $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\theta}$ -algebra structure over the carrier $\llbracket C \rrbracket_{\theta}$, which may have nothing to do with the $\llbracket E' \rrbracket_{\theta}$ -algebra structure $\llbracket C \rrbracket_{\theta}$ already possesses. The second component is a function from $\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\theta}$ to the carrier $\llbracket C \rrbracket_{\theta}$.

The denotation of an operation call to op makes use of the fact that the effect annotation E contains the operation name op . Consequently, the resulting signature contains an operation symbol op_q for every $q \in \llbracket A \rrbracket_{\theta}$. The denotation of op is then the term $\text{op}_q \langle a \rangle_{a \in \llbracket B \rrbracket_{\theta}}$. The denotation of the handling construct uses the Kleisli extension of the second component in the denotation of the handler. The denotation of a handler term defines the T_{Σ} -algebras by defining a Σ -algebra for the associated signature Σ . The operation clause for op allows us to interpret each of the operation symbols associated to op . The denotation of the return clause gives the second component of the handler.

THEOREM 3.6 (EFF COMPOSITIONALITY). *The meaning of a term depends only on the meaning of its sub-terms: for all pairs of well-typed plugged EFF contexts M_P, M_Q in $\Xi[\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X]$, if $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$ then $\llbracket M_P \rrbracket = \llbracket M_Q \rrbracket$.*

<p>Effects</p> $\llbracket E \rrbracket_\theta := \mathbb{T}_{\{\text{op}_p: [A]_\theta \mid (\text{op}: A \rightarrow B) \in E, p \in [A]_\theta\}}$ <p>Computation terms \dots</p> $\llbracket \text{op } V \rrbracket_\theta (\gamma) := \text{op}_{\llbracket V \rrbracket_\theta \gamma} \langle \text{return } a \rangle_{a \in \llbracket B \rrbracket_\theta}$ $\llbracket \text{handle } M \text{ with } H \rrbracket_\theta (\gamma) := \llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta (\gamma) \ggg f$ <p style="margin-left: 2em;">where $\llbracket H \rrbracket (\gamma) = \langle D, f : [A] \rightarrow \llbracket C \rrbracket \rangle$</p>	<p>Handler types</p> $\llbracket A \Rightarrow^{E'} C \rrbracket := \{\llbracket E \rrbracket\text{-algebras with carrier } \llbracket C \rrbracket\} \times \llbracket C \rrbracket^{\llbracket A \rrbracket}$ <p>Handler terms</p> $\llbracket \{\text{return } x \mapsto M\} \uplus \{\text{op } p \ k \mapsto N_{\text{op}}\}_{\text{op}} \rrbracket_\theta (\gamma) := \langle D, f \rangle$ <p>where D's algebra structure and f given by:</p> $\llbracket \text{op}_q \rrbracket_D \langle \xi a \rangle_a := \llbracket N_{\text{op}} \rrbracket_\theta (\gamma[q/p, \langle \xi a \rangle_a/k]) \quad f(a) := \llbracket M \rrbracket_\theta (\gamma[a/x])$
---	--

Fig. 12. EFF denotational semantics (extending Fig. 7 and 8)

The proof is identical to MAM, with two more cases for \rightsquigarrow_β . Similarly, we have:

THEOREM 3.7 (EFF SOUNDNESS). *Reduction preserves the semantics: for every pair of well-typed EFF terms $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X$, if $P \simeq_{\text{cong}} Q$ then $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$. In particular, for every well-typed closed term of ground type $\vdash_\emptyset P : FG$, if $P \rightsquigarrow^* \text{return } V$ then $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket V \rrbracket$.*

We combine the previous results, as with MAM:

THEOREM 3.8 (EFF ADEQUACY). *Denotational equivalence implies contextual equivalence: for all well-typed EFF terms $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X$, if $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$ then $P \simeq Q$.*

Therefore, EFF also has a well-behaved operational semantics: for all well-typed computations $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M, M' : C$, if $M \rightsquigarrow_{\text{cong}} M'$ then $M \simeq M'$.

4 MONADIC REFLECTION: MON

Languages that use monads as an abstraction for user-defined effects employ other mechanisms to support them, usually an overloading resolution mechanism, such as type-classes in Haskell and Coq, and functors/implicits in OCaml. As a consequence, such accounts for monads do not study them as an abstraction in their own right, and are intertwined with implementation details and concepts stemming from the added mechanism. Filinski's work on monadic reflection (Filinski 1994, 1996, 1999, 2010) serves precisely this purpose: a calculus in which user-defined monads stand independently.

Fig. 13(a) presents MON's syntax. The **where** $\{\text{return } x = N_u; y \ggg f = N_b\}$ construct binds x in the term N_u and y and f in N_b . The term N_u describes the unit and the term N_b describes the Kleisli extension/bind operation. We elaborate on the choice of the keyword **where** when we describe MON's type system. Using monads, the programmer can write programs as if the new effect was native to the language. We call the mode of programming when the effect appears native the *opaque* view of the effect. In contrast, the *transparent* mode occurs when the

<p>$T ::=$</p> <p>where $\{\text{return } x = M;$ $y \ggg f = N\}$</p> <p>$M, N ::= \dots$</p> <p> $\mu(N)$</p> <p> $[N]^T$</p>	<p>monads</p> <p>return clause</p> <p>bind clause</p> <p>computations</p> <p>reflect</p> <p>reify</p>	<p>Frames and contexts</p> <p>$\dots \mathcal{F} ::= \mathcal{B} \mid \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket^T$ computation frames \dots</p> <p>Beta reduction \dots for every $T = \text{where } \{\lambda x. N_u; \lambda y. \lambda f. N_b\}$:</p> <p>(ret) $\llbracket \text{return } V \rrbracket^T \rightsquigarrow_\beta N_u[V/x]$</p> <p>(reflection) $\llbracket \mathcal{H}[\mu(N)] \rrbracket^T \rightsquigarrow_\beta$ $N_b[\{N\}/y, \{(\lambda x. \llbracket \mathcal{H}[\text{return } x] \rrbracket^T)\}/f]$</p>
---	---	--

(a) Syntax extensions to Fig. 2

(b) Operational semantics extensions to Fig. 3

Fig. 13. MON

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{toggle} = \{x \leftarrow \text{get!}; \\
 \quad y \leftarrow \text{not! } x; \\
 \quad \text{put! } y; \\
 \quad x\} \\
 \text{get} = \{ \\
 \quad \mu(\lambda s.(s, s))\} \\
 \text{put} = \{\lambda s'.\mu(\lambda_.(((), s')))\} \\
 \\
 \text{State} = \\
 \quad \text{where } \{ \\
 \quad \quad \text{return } x = \lambda s.(x, s); \\
 \quad \quad f \ggg k = \lambda s.(x, s') \leftarrow f \text{ } s; \\
 \quad \quad k! \text{ } x \text{ } s'\} \\
 \text{runState} = \{\lambda c.[c!]^{\text{State}}\} \\
 \\
 \emptyset < \text{instance monad} \\
 \quad (\alpha.\text{bit} \rightarrow F(\alpha \times \text{bit})) \text{State} : \text{Eff} \\
 \text{toggle} : U_{\text{State}} F \text{bit} \\
 \text{runState} : U_{\emptyset}((U_{\text{State}} F \text{bit}) \rightarrow \text{bit} \rightarrow F(\text{bit} \times \text{bit})) \\
 \text{get} : U_{\text{State}} F \text{bit} \\
 \text{put} : U_{\text{State}}(\text{bit} \rightarrow F1)
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 14. User-defined boolean state in MON

code can access the implementation of the effect directly in terms of its defined monad. The *reflect* construct $\mu(N)$ allows the programmer to graft code executing in transparent mode into a block of code executing in opaque mode. The *reify* construct $[N]^T$ turns a block of opaque code into the result obtained by the implementation of the effect.

Example 4.1. Fig. 14 demonstrates how to add user-defined boolean state in MON using the standard *State* monad. To express *get* and *put*, we reflect the concrete definition of the corresponding operations of the state monad. To run a computation, we use reification to get the monadic representation of the computation as a state transformer, and apply it to the initial state.

Fig. 13(b) describes the extension to the operational semantics. The *ret* transition uses the user-defined monadic return to reify a value. To explain the *reflection* transition, note that the hoisting context \mathcal{H} captures the continuation at the point of reflection, with an opaque view of the effect T . The reflected computation N views this effect transparently. By reifying \mathcal{H} , we can use the user-defined monadic bind to graft the two together.

Example 4.2. With this semantics we have $\text{runState! toggle True} \rightsquigarrow^* \text{return (True, False)}$.

The example we have given here fits with the way in which monadic reflection is often used, but is not as flexible as the effect handler version because *get* and *put* are concrete functions rather than abstract operations, which means we cannot abstract over how to interpret them. To write a version of *toggle* that can be interpreted in different ways is possible using monadic reflection but requires more sophistication. We shall see how to do so once we have defined the translation of EFF into MON.

Kinds and types

$$\begin{array}{l}
 E ::= \dots \\
 | E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T
 \end{array}$$

effects
layered monad

Effect kinding

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \dots \\
 \Theta, \alpha \vdash_k C : \text{Comp}_E \vdash_m T : E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T \\
 \hline
 \Theta \vdash_k E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T : \text{Eff}
 \end{array}$$

Monad typing

$$\boxed{\Theta \vdash_m T : E}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \Theta, \alpha; x : \alpha \vdash_E N_u : C \quad \Theta, \alpha, \beta; y : U_E C, f : U_E(\alpha \rightarrow C[\beta/\alpha]) \vdash_E N_b : C[\beta/\alpha] \\
 \hline
 \Theta \vdash_m \text{where } \{\text{return } x = N_u; y \ggg f = N_b\} : \\
 E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) \text{ where } \{\text{return } x = N_u; y \ggg f = N_b\}
 \end{array}$$

Computation typing

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \dots \\
 \Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E N : C[A/\alpha] \\
 \hline
 \Theta; \Gamma \vdash_{E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T} \mu(N) : FA \\
 \\
 \Theta \vdash_m T : E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T \\
 \Theta; \Gamma \vdash_{E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T} N : FA \\
 \hline
 \Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E [N]^T : C[A/\alpha]
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 15. MON's kinding and typing (extending Fig. 5 and 6)

Fig. 15 presents the natural extension to MAM’s kind and type system for monadic reflection. Effects are a stack of monads. The empty effect is the identity monad. A monad T can be *layered* on top of an existing stack E :

$$E < \mathbf{instance\ monad}(\alpha.C) \mathbf{where} \{ \mathbf{return} \ x = M; y \gg f = N \}$$

The intention is that the type constructor $C[-/\alpha]$ has an associated monad structure given by the bodies of the return M and the bind N , and can use effects from the rest of the stack E . To be well-kinded, C must be an E -computation, and T must be a well-typed monad, i.e., the return should have type $C[A/\alpha]$ when substituted for some value $V : A$, and the bind should implement a Kleisli extension operation.

Example 4.3. Fig. 14 demonstrates a kind and type assignment to the user-defined global state example.

The choice of keywords for monads and their types is modelled on their syntax in Haskell. We stress that our calculus does not, however, include a type-class mechanism. The *type* of a monad contains the return and bind *terms*, which means that we need to check for equality of terms during type-checking, for example, to ensure that we are sequencing two computations with compatible effect annotation. For our purposes, α -equivalence suffices. This need comes from our choice to use structural, anonymous, monads. In practice, monads are given *nominally*, and two monads are compatible if they have exactly the same name. It is for this reason also that the bodies of the return and the bind operations must be closed, apart from their immediate arguments. If they were allowed to contain open terms, types in type contexts would contain these open terms through the effect annotations in thunks, requiring us to support dependently-typed contexts. The monad abstraction is parametric, so naturally requires the use of type variables, and for this reason we include type variables in the base calculus MAM. We choose monads to be structural and closed to keep them closer to the other abstractions and to reduce the additional lingual constructs involved.

Our calculus deviates from Filinski’s (2010) in the following ways. First, our effect definitions are local and structural, whereas his allow nominal declaration of new effects only at the top level. Because we do not allow the bodies of the return and the bind to contain open terms, this distinction between the two calculi is minor. As a consequence, effect definitions in both calculi are *static*, and the monadic bindings can be resolved at compile time. Filinski’s calculus also includes a sophisticated *effect-basing* mechanism, that allows a computation to immediately use, via reflection, effects from any layer in the hierarchy below it, whereas our calculus only allows reflecting effects from the layer immediately below. In the presence of Filinski’s type system, this deviation does not significantly change the expressiveness of the calculus: the monad stack is statically known, and, having access to the type information, we can insert multiple reflection operators and lift effects from lower levels into the current level.

We also prove MON’s Felleisen-Wright soundness in our Abella formalisation:

THEOREM 4.4 (MON SAFETY). *Well-typed programs don’t go wrong: for all closed MON returners $\Theta; \vdash_{\emptyset} M : FA$, either $M \rightsquigarrow N$ for some $\Theta; \vdash_{\emptyset} N : FA$ or else $M = \mathbf{return} \ V$ for some $\Theta; \vdash V : A$.*

As with EFF, MON’s ground types are the same as MAM’s. While we can define an observational equivalence relation in the same way as for MAM and EFF, we will not do so. Monads as a programming abstraction have a well-known conceptual complication — user-defined monads must obey the *monad laws*. These laws are a syntactic counterpart to the three equations in the definition of (set-theoretic/categorical) monads. The difficulty involves deciding what equality between such terms means. The natural candidate is observational equivalence, but as the contexts can themselves define additional monads, it is not straightforward to do so. Giving an acceptable operational interpretation to the monad laws is an open problem. We avoid the issue by giving a *partial* denotational semantics to MON.

Extend MAM’s denotational semantics to MON as follows. Given a type variable assignment θ , we assign to each

- monad type and effect: a monad $\llbracket \Theta \vdash_m T : E \rrbracket \theta = \llbracket \Theta \vdash_k E : \mathbf{Eff} \rrbracket \theta$, if the sub-derivations have well-defined denotations, and this data does indeed form a set-theoretic monad.

<p>Effects ...</p> <p>$\llbracket E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) N_u N_b \rrbracket_\theta := \langle T, \text{return}, \ggg \rangle$</p> <p>where $TX := \llbracket [C]_{(\theta[\alpha \mapsto X])} \rrbracket$ $\text{return}^X := \llbracket N_u \rrbracket_{(\theta[\alpha \mapsto X])} : X \rightarrow TX$</p> <p> $\ggg^{X,Y} := \llbracket N_b \rrbracket_{(\theta[\alpha_1 \mapsto X, \alpha_2 \mapsto Y])} : TX \rightarrow (X \rightarrow TY) \rightarrow TY$</p> <p> (provided these form a monad)</p>	<p>Monads</p> <p>$\llbracket \Theta \vdash_m T : E \rrbracket := \llbracket E \rrbracket$</p> <p>Computation terms ...</p> <p>$\llbracket [N]^T \rrbracket(\gamma) := \llbracket N \rrbracket(\gamma)$</p> <p>$\llbracket \mu(N) \rrbracket(\gamma) := \llbracket N \rrbracket(\gamma)$</p>
--	--

Fig. 16. MON denotational semantics (extending Fig. 7 and 8)

Consequently, the denotation of any derivation is undefined if at least one of its sub-derivations has undefined semantics. Moreover, the definition of kinding judgement denotations now depend on term denotation.

Fig. 16 shows how MON extends MAM's denotational semantics. The assigned type-constructor, and user-defined return and bind, if well-defined, have the appropriate type to give the structure of a monad, and the semantics's definition posits they do. For the term semantics, recall that $T_{\llbracket E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T \rrbracket} X = \llbracket [C]_{(\theta[\alpha \mapsto X])} \rrbracket$ and therefore, semantically, we can view any computation of type and kind $\Theta \vdash_k FA : \text{Comp}_{E < \text{instance monad } (\alpha.C) T}$ as an E -computation of type $C[A/\alpha]$.

We define a *proper derivation* to be a derivation whose semantics is well-defined for all type variable assignments, and a *proper term or type* to be a term or type that has a proper derivation. Thus, a term is proper when all the syntactic monads it contains denote semantic set-theoretic monads. When dealing with the typed fragment of MON, we restrict our attention to such proper terms as they reflect the intended meaning of monads. Doing so allows us to mirror the meta-theory of MAM and EFF for proper terms.

We define *plugged proper contexts* as with MAM and EFF with the additional requirement that all terms are proper. The definitions of the equivalences \simeq and \simeq_{cong} are then identical to those of MAM and EFF.

THEOREM 4.5 (MON TERMINATION). *There are no infinite reduction sequences: for all proper MON terms; $\vdash_\emptyset M : FA$, we have $M \not\rightarrow^\infty$, and there exists some unique; $\vdash V : A$ such that $M \rightsquigarrow^* \text{return } V$.*

Our proof uses Lindley and Stark's $\top\top$ -lifting (2005).

THEOREM 4.6 (MON COMPOSITIONALITY). *The semantics depends only on the semantics of sub-terms: for all pairs of well-typed plugged proper MON contexts M_P, M_Q in $\Xi[\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X]$, if $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$ then $\llbracket M_P \rrbracket = \llbracket M_Q \rrbracket$.*

The proof is identical to MAM, with two more cases for \rightsquigarrow_β . Similarly, we have:

THEOREM 4.7 (MON SOUNDNESS). *Reduction preserves the semantics: for every pair of well-typed proper MON terms $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X$, if $P \simeq_{\text{cong}} Q$ then $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$. in particular, for every well-typed closed term of ground type; $\vdash_\emptyset P : FG$, if $P \rightsquigarrow^* \text{return } V$ then $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket V \rrbracket$.*

We combine the previous results, as with MAM and EFF:

THEOREM 4.8 (MON ADEQUACY). *Denotational equivalence implies contextual equivalence: for all well-typed proper MON terms $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P, Q : X$, if $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \llbracket Q \rrbracket$ then $P \simeq Q$.*

Therefore, the *proper* fragment of MON also has a well-behaved operational semantics: for all well-typed proper computations $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E M, M' : C$, if $M \rightsquigarrow_{\text{cong}} M'$ then $M \simeq M'$.

In contrast to EFF the semantics for MON is finite:

LEMMA 4.9 (FINITE DENOTATION PROPERTY). *For every type variable assignment $\theta = \langle X_\alpha \rangle_{\alpha \in \Theta}$ of finite sets, every proper MON value type $\Theta \vdash_k A$: and computation type $\Theta \vdash_k C$: denote finite sets $\llbracket A \rrbracket_\theta, \llbracket C \rrbracket_\theta$.*

$M, N ::= \dots$ computations $ S_0k.M$ shift-0 $ \langle M x.N \rangle$ reset	Frames and contexts $\dots \mathcal{F} ::= \dots \langle [\] x.N \rangle$ computation frame	
	Beta reduction \dots (ret) $\langle \langle \text{return } V \rangle x.M \rangle \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M[V/x]$ (capture) $\langle \mathcal{H}[S_0k.M] x.N \rangle \rightsquigarrow_{\beta} M[\lambda y. \langle \mathcal{H}[\text{return } y] x.N \rangle/k]$	

(a) Syntax extensions to Fig. 2

(b) Operational semantics extensions to Fig. 3

Fig. 17. DEL

5 DELIMITED CONTROL: DEL

Delimited control operators can implement algorithms with sophisticated control structure, such as tree-fringe comparison, and other control mechanisms, such as coroutines (Felleisen 1988) yet enjoy an improved meta-theory in comparison to their undelimited counterparts (Felleisen et al. 1988). The operator closest in spirit to handlers, S_0 pronounced “shift zero”, was introduced by Danvy and Filinski (Danvy and Filinski 1990) as part of a systematic study of continuation-passing-style conversion.

Fig. 17(a) presents the extension DEL. The construct $S_0k.M$, which we often call “shift” (as we find “shift zero” awkward), captures the current continuation and binds it to k , and replaces it with M . The construct $\langle M|x.N \rangle$, which we will call “reset”, delimits any continuations captured by shift inside M . Once M runs its course and returns a value, this value is bound to x and N executes. For delimited control cognoscenti this construct is known as “dollar”, and it is capable of macro expressing the entire CPS hierarchy (Materzok and Biernacki 2012).

Example 5.1. Fig. 18 demonstrates how to add user-defined boolean state in DEL (Danvy 2006). The code assumes the environment outside the closest reset will apply it to the currently stored state. By shifting and abstracting over this state, *get* and *put* can access this state and return the appropriate result to the continuation. When running a stateful computation, we discard the state when we reach the final return value.

The extension to the operational semantics in Fig. 17(b) reflects our informal description. The *ret* rule states that once the delimited computation returns a value, this value is substituted in the remainder of the reset computation. For the *capture* rule, the definition of hoisting contexts guarantees that in the reduct $\langle \mathcal{H}[S_0k.M]|x.N \rangle$ there are no intervening resets in \mathcal{H} , and as a consequence \mathcal{H} is the delimited continuation of the evaluated shift. After the reduction takes place, the continuation is re-wrapped with the reset, while the body of the shift has access to the enclosing continuation. If we were to, instead, not re-wrap the continuation with a reset, we would obtain the control/prompt-zero operators, (cf. Shan’s (2007) and Kiselyov et al.’s (2005) analyses of macro expressivity relationships between these two, and other, variations on untyped delimited control).

Example 5.2. With this semantics, we have:

$$\text{runState! toggle True} \rightsquigarrow^* \langle \text{True}|x.\lambda s.x \rangle \text{False} \rightsquigarrow^* \text{return True}$$

$\text{toggle} = \{x \leftarrow \text{get!};$ $ y \leftarrow \text{not! } x;$ $ \text{put! } y;$ $ x\}$	$\text{get} = \{ S_0k.\lambda s.k! s s \}$ $\text{put} = \{ \lambda s'.S_0k.\lambda_.k! () s' \}$ $\text{runState} = \{ \lambda c. \langle c! x.\lambda s.x \rangle \}$	$\text{State} = \emptyset, \text{bit} \rightarrow \text{Fbit} : \text{Eff}$ $\text{toggle} : U_{\text{State}}\text{Fbit}$ $\text{runState} : U_{\emptyset}((U_{\text{State}}\text{Fbit}) \rightarrow \text{bit} \rightarrow \text{Fbit})$ $\text{get} : U_{\text{State}}\text{Fbit}$ $\text{put} : U_{\text{State}}(\text{bit} \rightarrow \text{F1})$
---	---	--

Fig. 18. User-defined boolean state in DEL

Kinds and types

$$E ::= \dots \text{ effects}$$

$$| E, C \quad \text{enclosing continuation type}$$
Effect kinding \dots

$$\frac{\Theta \vdash_k E : \mathbf{Eff} \quad \Theta \vdash_k C : \mathbf{Comp}_E}{\Theta \vdash_k E, C : \mathbf{Eff}}$$
Computation typing \dots

$$\frac{\Theta; \Gamma, k : U_E(A \rightarrow C) \vdash_E M : C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_{E,C} S_0 k.M : FA} \quad \frac{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_{E,C} M : FA \quad \Theta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash_E N : C}{\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E \langle M | x.N \rangle : C}$$

Fig. 19. DEL's kinding and typing (extending Fig. 5 and 6)

Fig. 19 presents the natural extension to MAM's kind and type system for delimited control. It is based on Danvy and Filinski's description (Danvy and Filinski 1989); they were the first to propose a type system for delimited control. Effects are now a stack of computation types, with the empty effect standing for the empty stack. The top of this stack is the return type of the currently delimited continuation. Thus, as Fig. 19 presents, a shift pops the top-most type off this stack and uses it to type the current continuation, and a reset pushes the type of the delimited return typed onto it.

Example 5.3. Fig. 18 demonstrates a type assignment to the user-defined global state example.

In this type system, the return type of the continuation remains fixed inside every reset. Existing work on type systems for delimited control (Kiselyov and Shan (2007) provide a substantial list of references) focuses on type systems that allow *answer-type modification*, as these can express typed printf and type-state computation (as in Asai's analysis (2009)). We exclude answer-type modification to keep the fundamental account clearer and simpler: the type system with answer-type modification is further removed from the well-known abstractions for effect-handlers and monadic reflection. We conjecture that the relative expressiveness of delimited control does not change even with answer-type modification, once we add analogous capabilities to effect handlers (Brady 2013; Kiselyov 2016) and monadic reflection (Atkey 2009).

Our Abella formalisation establishes:

THEOREM 5.4 (DEL SAFETY). *Well-typed programs don't go wrong: for all closed DEL returners $\Theta; \vdash_\emptyset M : FG$, either $M \rightsquigarrow N$ for some $\Theta; \vdash_\emptyset N : FG$ or else $M = \mathbf{return} V$ for some $\Theta; \vdash V : G$.*

Using the translation from DEL to MON we present in the next section, DEL inherits some of MON's meta-theory. We define DEL's ground types, plugged contexts and the equivalences \simeq and \simeq_{cong} as in MAM.

6 MACRO TRANSLATIONS

Felleisen (1991) argues that the usual notions of computability and complexity reduction do not capture the expressiveness of general-purpose programming languages. The Church-Turing thesis and its extensions assert that any reasonably expressive model of computation can be efficiently reduced to any other reasonably expressive model of computation. Therefore the notion of a polynomial-time reduction with a Turing-machine is too crude to differentiate expressive power of two general-purpose programming languages. As an alternative, Felleisen introduces *macro translation*: a *local* reduction of a language extension, in the sense that it is homomorphic with respect to the syntactic constructs, and *conservative*, in the sense that it does not change the core language. We extend this concept to local translations between conservative extensions of a shared core.

Translation notation. We define translations $S \rightarrow T$ from each source calculus S to each target calculus T . By default we assume untyped translations, writing EFF, MON, and DEL in translations that disregard typeability. In typeability preserving translations (which must also respect the monad laws where MON is concerned) we

explicitly write TYPED EFF, TYPED MON, and TYPED DEL. We allow translations to be *hygienic* and introduce fresh binding occurrences. We write $M \mapsto \underline{M}$ for the translation at hand. We include only the non-core cases in the definition of each translation.

Out of the six possible untyped macro-translations, the ideas behind the following four already appear in the literature: DEL→MON (Wadler 1994), MON→DEL (Filinski 1994), DEL→EFF (Bauer and Pretnar 2015), and EFF→MON (Kammar et al. 2013). The Abella formalisation contains the proofs of the simulation results for each of the six translations. Three translations formally simulate the source calculus by the target calculus: MON→DEL, DEL→EFF, and MON→EFF. The other translations, DEL→MON, EFF→DEL, and EFF→MON, introduce suspended redexes during reduction that invalidate simulation on the nose.

For the translations that introduce suspended redexes, we use a relaxed variant of simulation, namely the relations \sim_{cong} , which are the smallest relations containing \sim that are closed under the term formation constructs. We say that a translation $M \mapsto \underline{M}$ is a simulation *up to congruence* if for every reduction $M \sim N$ in the source calculus we have $\underline{M} \sim_{\text{cong}}^+ \underline{N}$ in the target calculus. In fact, the suspended redexes always β -reduce by substituting a variable, i.e., $\{\lambda x.M\}! x \sim_{\text{cong}}^+ \lambda x.M$, thus only performing simple rewiring.

6.1 Delimited continuations as monadic reflection (DEL→MON)

We adapt Wadler’s analysis of delimited control (Wadler 1994), using the continuation monad (Moggi 1989):

LEMMA 6.1. *For all $\Theta \vdash_k E : \mathbf{Eff}$, $\Theta \vdash_k C : \mathbf{Comp}_E$, we have the following proper monad Cont:*

$$\Theta \vdash_k E < \mathbf{instance\ monad} (\alpha.U_E (\alpha \rightarrow C) \rightarrow C) \mathbf{where} \{\mathbf{return} \ x = \lambda c.c! \ x; \\ m \gg f = \lambda c.m! \ \{\lambda y.f! \ y \ c\}\} : \mathbf{Eff}$$

Using Cont we define the macro translation DEL→MON as follows:

$$\underline{S_0 k.M} := \mu(\lambda k.M) \qquad \underline{\langle M | x.N \rangle} := [\underline{M}]^{\text{Cont}} \{\lambda x.N\}$$

Shift is interpreted as reflection and reset as reification in the continuation monad.

THEOREM 6.2 (DEL→MON CORRECTNESS). *MON simulates DEL up to congruence: $M \sim N \implies \underline{M} \sim_{\text{cong}}^+ \underline{N}$.*

The only suspended redex arises in simulating the reflection rule, where we substitute a continuation into the bind of the continuation monad yielding a term of the form $\{\lambda y.\{\lambda y.M\} \ y \ c\}$ which we must reduce to $\{\lambda y.M \ c\}$. DEL→MON extends to a macro translation at the type level:

$$\underline{E}, \underline{C} := \underline{E} < \mathbf{instance\ monad} (\alpha.U_E (\alpha \rightarrow \underline{C}) \rightarrow \underline{C}) \mathbf{Cont}$$

THEOREM 6.3 (DEL→MON PRESERVES TYPEABILITY). *Every well-typed DEL phrase $\Theta; \Gamma \vdash_E P : X$ translates into a proper well-typed MON phrase: $\Theta; \underline{\Gamma} \vdash_{\underline{E}} \underline{P} : \underline{X}$.*

We use this result to extend the meta-theory of DEL:

COROLLARY 6.4 (DEL TERMINATION). *All well-typed closed ground returners in DEL must reduce to a unique normal form: if $\vdash_{\emptyset} M : FG$ then there exists V such that $\vdash V : G$ and $M \sim^* \mathbf{return} \ V$.*

6.2 Monadic reflection as delimited continuations (MON→DEL)

We define the macro translation MON→DEL as follows:

$$\underline{\mu}(M) := \underline{S_0 k}.\lambda b.b! (\{\underline{M}\}, \{\lambda x.k! \ x \ b\}) \qquad \underline{[M]}^{\mathbf{where} \ \{\mathbf{return} \ x=N_u; y \gg f=N_b\}} := \underline{\langle M | x.\lambda b.N_u \rangle} \{\lambda(y, f).N_b\}$$

Reflection is interpreted by capturing the current continuation and abstracting over the bind operator which is then invoked with the reflected computation and a function that wraps the continuation in order to ensure it

uses the same bind operator. Reification is interpreted as an application of a reset. The continuation of the reset contains the unit of the monad. We apply this reset to the bind of the monad.

THEOREM 6.5 (MON \rightarrow DEL CORRECTNESS). *DEL simulates MON up to congruence: $M \rightsquigarrow N \implies \underline{M} \rightsquigarrow_{\text{cong}}^+ \underline{N}$.*

This translation does not preserve typeability because the bind operator can be used at different types. We conjecture that a) any other macro translation will suffer from the same issue and b) adding (predicative) polymorphism to the base calculus is sufficient to adapt this translation to one that does preserve typeability.

Filinski's translation from monadic reflection to delimited continuations (1994) does preserve typeability, but it is a global translation. It is much like our translation except each instance of bind is inlined (hence it does not need to be polymorphic).

6.2.1 Alternative translation with nested delimited continuations. An alternative to MON \rightarrow DEL is to use two nested shifts for reflection and two nested resets for reification:

$$\underline{\mu}(M) := \mathbf{S}_0 k. \mathbf{S}_0 b. b! (\{ \underline{M} \}, \{ \lambda x. \langle k! x | z. b! z \rangle \}) \quad \underline{[M]}^{\text{where } \{ \text{return } x=N_a; y \gg f=N_b \}} := \left\langle \left\langle \underline{M} \middle| x. \mathbf{S}_0 b. \underline{N}_u \right\rangle \right\rangle (y, f). \underline{N}_b$$

In the translation of reflection, the reset inside the wrapped continuation ensures that any further reflections in the continuation are interpreted appropriately: the first shift, which binds k , has popped one continuation off the stack so we need to add one back on. In the translation of reification, the shift guarding the unit garbage collects the bind once it is no longer needed.

6.3 Delimited continuations as effect handlers (DEL \rightarrow EFF)

We define DEL \rightarrow EFF as follows:

$$\underline{\mathbf{S}_0} k. \underline{N} := \text{shift}_0 \{ \lambda k. \underline{N} \} \quad \langle \underline{M} \middle| x. \underline{N} \rangle := \text{handle } \underline{M} \text{ with } \{ \text{return } x \mapsto \underline{N} \} \uplus \{ \text{shift}_0 y f \mapsto f! y \}$$

Shift is interpreted as an operation and reset is interpreted as a straightforward handler.

THEOREM 6.6 (DEL \rightarrow EFF CORRECTNESS). *EFF simulates DEL on the nose: $M \rightsquigarrow N \implies \underline{M} \rightsquigarrow^+ \underline{N}$.*

This translation does not preserve typeability because inside a single reset shifts can be used at different types. We conjecture that a) any other macro translation will suffer from the same issue and b) adding polymorphic operations (Kammar et al. 2013) to EFF is sufficient to ensure this translation does preserve typeability.

One can adapt our translation to a global translation in which every static instance of a shift is interpreted as a separate operation, thus avoiding the need for polymorphic operations.

6.4 Effect handlers as delimited continuations (EFF \rightarrow DEL)

We define EFF \rightarrow DEL as follows:

$$\underline{\text{op}} V := \mathbf{S}_0 k. \lambda h. h! (\text{inj}_{\text{op}} (\underline{V}, \{ \lambda y. k! y h \})) \quad \text{handle } M \text{ with } H := \langle \underline{M} \middle| H^{\text{ret}} \rangle \{ H^{\text{ops}} \}$$

$$\left(\text{handle } M \text{ with } \begin{array}{l} \{ \text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}} \} \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1 \} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n \} \end{array} \right)^{\text{ret}} := x. \lambda h. \underline{N}_{\text{ret}}$$

$$\left(\text{handle } M \text{ with } \begin{array}{l} \{ \text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}} \} \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1 \} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n \} \end{array} \right)^{\text{ops}} := \lambda y. \text{case } y \text{ of } \{ \begin{array}{l} \text{inj}_{\text{op}_1} (p_1, k_1) \rightarrow \underline{N}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \text{inj}_{\text{op}_n} (p_n, k_n) \rightarrow \underline{N}_n \end{array} \}$$

Operation invocation is interpreted by capturing the current continuation and abstracting over a dispatcher which is passed an encoding of the operation. The encoded operation is an injection whose label is the name of the operation containing a pair of the operation parameter and a wrapped version of the captured continuation, which ensures the same dispatcher is threaded through the continuation.

Handling is interpreted as an application of a reset whose continuation contains the return clause. The reset is applied to a dispatcher function that encodes the operation clauses.

THEOREM 6.7 (EFF→DEL CORRECTNESS). *DEL simulates EFF up to congruence: $M \rightsquigarrow N \implies \underline{M} \rightsquigarrow_{\text{cong}}^+ \underline{N}$.*

The EFF→DEL translation is simpler than Kammar et al.'s which uses a global higher-order memory cell storing the handler stack (Kammar et al. 2013).

This translation does not preserve typeability because the interpretation of operations needs to be polymorphic in the return type of the dispatcher over which it abstracts. We conjecture that a) any other macro translation will suffer from the same issue and b) adding polymorphism to the base calculus is sufficient to adapt this translation to one that preserves typeability.

6.4.1 Alternative translation with nested delimited continuations. Similarly to the MON→DEL translation there is an alternative to EFF→DEL which uses two nested shifts for operations and two nested resets for handlers:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\text{op}} V &:= \text{S}_0 k. \text{S}_0 h. h! (\text{inj}_{\text{op}} (\underline{V}, \{\lambda x. \langle k! x | y. h! y \rangle\})) & \underline{\text{handle}} M \text{ with } H &:= \langle \langle \underline{M} | H^{\text{ret}} \rangle | H^{\text{ops}} \rangle \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} \{\text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}}\}^{\text{ret}} \\ \uplus \{\text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1\} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{\text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n\} \end{array} \right) &:= x. \text{S}_0 h. \underline{N}_{\text{ret}} & \left(\begin{array}{c} \{\text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}}\}^{\text{ops}} \\ \uplus \{\text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1\} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{\text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n\} \end{array} \right) &:= \begin{array}{l} y. \text{case } y \text{ of } \{ \\ \text{inj}_{\text{op}_1} (p_1, k_1) \rightarrow \underline{N}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \text{inj}_{\text{op}_n} (p_n, k_n) \rightarrow \underline{N}_n \} \end{array} \end{aligned}$$

6.5 Monadic reflection as effect handlers (MON→EFF)

We simulate reflection with an operation and reification with a handler. Formally, for every anonymous monad T given by **where** $\{\text{return } x = N_u; y \gg f = N_b\}$ we define MON→EFF as follows:

$$\underline{\mu}(N) := \text{reflect } \{N\} \quad \underline{[M]^T} := \text{handle } \underline{M} \text{ with } \underline{T} \quad \underline{T} := \{\text{return } x \mapsto \underline{N}_u\} \uplus \{\text{reflect } y f \mapsto \underline{N}_b\}$$

Reflection is interpreted as a reflect operation and reification as a handler with the unit of the monad as a handler and the bind of the handler as the implementation of the reflect operation.

THEOREM 6.8 (MON→EFF CORRECTNESS). *EFF simulates MON on the nose: $M \rightsquigarrow N \implies \underline{M} \rightsquigarrow^+ \underline{N}$.*

MON→EFF does not preserve typeability. For instance, consider the following computation of type $F\text{bit}$ using the environment monad Reader given on the right:

$$\begin{array}{ll} [b \leftarrow \mu(\{\lambda(b, f). b\}); & \vdash_k \emptyset < \text{instance monad } (\alpha. \text{bit} \times U_\emptyset (\text{bit} \rightarrow F \text{bit}) \rightarrow F\alpha) \\ f \leftarrow \mu(\{\lambda(b, f). f\}); & \text{where } \{\text{return } x = \lambda e. \text{return } x; \\ f! b]^{\text{Reader}} (\text{inj}_{\text{true}} (), \{\lambda b. \text{return } b\}) & m \gg f = \lambda e. x \leftarrow m! e; f! x e\} : \text{Eff} \end{array}$$

Its translation into EFF is not typeable: reflection can appear at any type, whereas a single operation is monomorphic. We conjecture that a) this observation can be used to prove that *no* macro translation TYPED MON→TYPED EFF exists and that b) adding polymorphic operations (Kammar et al. 2013) to EFF is sufficient for typing this translation.

6.6 Effect handlers as monadic reflection (EFF→MON)

We define EFF→MON as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\text{op}} V &:= \mu(\lambda k. \lambda h. h! (\text{inj}_{\text{op}} (V, \{\lambda y. k! y h\}))) & \underline{\text{handle}} M \text{ with } H &:= [\underline{M}]^{\text{Cont}} \{H^{\text{ret}}\} \{H^{\text{ops}}\} \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{handle } M \text{ with} \\ \{ \text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}} \} \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1 \} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n \} \end{array} \right)^{\text{ret}} &:= \lambda x. \lambda h. \underline{N_{\text{ret}}} & \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{handle } M \text{ with} \\ \{ \text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}} \} \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1 \} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n \} \end{array} \right)^{\text{ops}} &:= \lambda y. \text{case } y \text{ of } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{inj}_{\text{op}_1} (p_1, k_1) \rightarrow \underline{N_1} \\ \vdots \\ \text{inj}_{\text{op}_n} (p_n, k_n) \rightarrow \underline{N_n} \end{array} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

The translation is much like EFF→DEL, using the continuation monad in place of first class continuations.

Operation invocation is interpreted by using reflection to capture the current continuation and abstracting over a dispatcher which is passed an encoding of the operation. The encoded operation is an injection whose label is the name of the operation containing a pair of the operation parameter and a wrapped version of the captured continuation, which ensures the same dispatcher is threaded through the continuation.

Handling is interpreted as an application of a reified continuation monad computation to the return clause and a dispatcher function that encodes the operation clauses.

THEOREM 6.9 (EFF→MON CORRECTNESS). *MON simulates EFF up to congruence: $M \rightsquigarrow N \implies \underline{M} \rightsquigarrow_{\text{cong}}^+ \underline{N}$.*

This translation does not preserve typeability for the same reason as the EFF→DEL translations: the interpretation of operations needs to be polymorphic in the return type of the dispatcher over which it abstracts. We conjecture that a) any other macro translation will suffer from the same issue and b) adding polymorphism to the base calculus is sufficient to adapt this translation to one that does preserve typeability.

6.6.1 Alternative translation using a free monad. An alternative to interpreting effect handlers using a continuation monad is to use a free monad:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\text{op}} V &:= \mu(\text{return} (\text{inj}_{\text{op}} (V, \lambda x. \text{return } x))) & \underline{\text{handle}} M \text{ with } H &:= H^{\star} [\underline{M}]^{H^{\dagger}} \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} \{ \text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}} \} \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1 \} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n \} \end{array} \right)^{\dagger} & \text{where } \{ \text{return } x = \text{return} (\text{inj}_{\text{ret}} x); \\ & y \gg k = \text{case } y \text{ of } \{ \text{inj}_{\text{ret}} x \rightarrow k! x \\ & \text{inj}_{\text{op}_1} (p_1, k_1) \rightarrow \text{return} (\text{inj}_{\text{op}} (p_1, \lambda x. k_1! x \gg k)) \\ & \vdots \\ & \text{inj}_{\text{op}_n} (p_n, k_n) \rightarrow \text{return} (\text{inj}_{\text{op}} (p_n, \lambda x. k_n! x \gg k)) \} \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} \{ \text{return } x \mapsto N_{\text{ret}} \} \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_1 p_1 k_1 \mapsto N_1 \} \\ \uplus \dots \\ \uplus \{ \text{op}_n p_n k_n \mapsto N_n \} \end{array} \right)^{\star} & h = \lambda y. \text{case } y \text{ of } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{inj}_{\text{ret}} x \rightarrow \underline{N_{\text{ret}}} \\ \text{inj}_{\text{op}_1} (p_1, k) \rightarrow k_1 \leftarrow \text{return} \{ \lambda x. y \leftarrow k! x; h! y \}; \underline{N_1} \\ \vdots \\ \text{inj}_{\text{op}_n} (p_n, k) \rightarrow k_n \leftarrow \text{return} \{ \lambda x. y \leftarrow k! x; h! y \}; \underline{N_n} \end{array} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Both the bind operation for the free monad H^{\dagger} and the function h that interprets the free monad H^{\star} are recursive. Given that we are in an untyped setting we can straightforwardly implement the recursion using a suitable variation of the Y combinator. This translation does not extend to the typed calculi as they do not support recursion. Nevertheless, we conjecture that it can be adapted to a typed translation if we extend our base calculus to include inductive data types, as the recursive functions are structurally recursive.

6.7 Nonexistence results

THEOREM 6.10. *The following macro translations do not exist:*

- *TYPED EFF* \rightarrow *TYPED MON* satisfying: $M \rightsquigarrow N \implies \underline{M} \simeq \underline{N}$.
- *TYPED EFF* \rightarrow *TYPED DEL* satisfying: $M \rightsquigarrow N \implies \underline{M} \simeq \underline{N}$.

Our proof of the first part hinges on the finite denotation property (Lemma 4.9). Briefly, assume to the contrary that there was such a translation. Consider a single effect operation symbol $\text{tick} : 1 \rightarrow 1$ and the terms:

$$\text{tick}^0 := \text{return } () \qquad \text{tick}^{n+1} := \text{tick}(); \text{tick}^n$$

All these terms have the same type, and by the homomorphic property of the hypothesised translation, their translations all have the same type. By the finite denotation property there are two observationally equivalent translations and by virtue of a macro translation the two original terms are observationally equivalent in *EFF*. But every distinct pair of tick^n terms is observationally distinguishable using an appropriate handler. See Forster’s thesis (2016) for the full details. The second part follows from Theorem 6.3.

Regarding the remaining four possibilities, we have seen that there is a typeability-preserving macro translation *TYPED DEL* \rightarrow *TYPED MON* (Theorem 6.3), but we conjecture that there are no typeability-preserving translations *TYPED MON* \rightarrow *TYPED DEL*, *TYPED DEL* \rightarrow *TYPED EFF*, or, *TYPED MON* \rightarrow *TYPED EFF*.

7 CONCLUSION AND FURTHER WORK

We have given a uniform family of formal calculi expressing the common abstractions for user-defined effects: effect handlers (*EFF*), monadic reflection (*MON*), and delimited control (*DEL*) together with their natural type-and-effect systems. We have used these calculi to formally analyse the relative expressive power of the abstractions: monadic reflection and delimited control have equivalent expressivity; both are equivalent in expressive power to effect handlers when types are not taken into consideration; and neither abstraction can macro-express effect handlers and preserve typeability. We have formalised the more syntactic aspects of our work in the Abella proof assistant, and have used set-theoretic denotational semantics to establish inexpressivity results.

Further work abounds. We want to extend each type system until each translation preserves typeability. We conjecture that adding polymorphic operations to *EFF* would allow it to macro express *DEL* and *MON*, and that adding polymorphism to *MON* and *DEL* would allow them to macro express *EFF*. We conjecture polymorphism would also allow *DEL* to macro express *MON*, and inductive data types with primitive recursion would also allow *MON* to macro express *EFF*.

We are also interested in analysing *global* translations between these abstractions. In particular, while *MON* and *DEL* allow reflection/shifts to appear anywhere inside a piece of code, in practice, library designers define a fixed set of primitives using reflection/shifts and only expose those primitives to users. This observation suggests calculi in which each *reify/reset* is accompanied by declarations of this fixed set of primitives. We conjecture that *MON* and *DEL* can be simulated on the nose via a global translation into the corresponding restricted calculus, and that the restricted calculi can be macro translated into *EFF* while preserving typeability. Such two-stage translations would give a deeper reason why so many examples typically used for monadic reflection and delimited control can be directly recast using effect handlers. Other global pre-processing may also eliminate administrative reductions from our translations and establish simulation on the nose.

We hope the basic type systems we analysed will form a foundation for systematic further investigation, especially along the following extensions. Supporting answer-type modification (Asai 2009; Kobori et al. 2015) can inform more expressive type system design for effect handlers and monadic reflection, and account for type-state (Atkey 2009) and session types (Kiselyov 2016). In practice, effect systems are extended with sub-effecting or effect polymorphism (Bauer and Pretnar 2014; Pretnar 2014; Leijen 2017; Hillerström and Lindley 2016; Lindley et al. 2017). To these we add effect-forwarding (Kammar et al. 2013) and rebasing (Filinski 2010).

We have taken the perspective of a programming language designer deciding which programming abstraction to select for expressing user-defined effects. In contrast, Schrijvers et al. (2016) take the perspective of a library designer for a specific programming language, Haskell, and compare the abstractions provided by libraries based

on monads with those provided by effect handlers. They argue that both libraries converge on the same interface for user-defined effects via Haskell’s type-class mechanism.

Relative expressiveness results are subtle, and the potentially negative results that are hard to establish make them a risky line of research. We view denotational models as providing a fruitful method for establishing such inexpressivity results. It would be interesting to connect our work with that of Laird (2002, 2013, 2017), who analyses the macro-expressiveness of a hierarchy of combinations of control operators and exceptions using game semantics, and in particular uses such denotational techniques to show certain combinations cannot macro express other combinations. We would like to apply similar techniques to compare the expressive power of local effects such as ML-style reference cells with effect handlers.

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