

# Logical Mobility and Locality Types

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## Abstract

We present a type theory characterizing the mobility and locality of program terms in a calculus for distributed computation. The type theory is derived from logical notions of necessity ( $\Box A$ ) and possibility ( $\Diamond A$ ) of the modal logic  $S4$  via a Curry-Howard style isomorphism. Logical worlds are interpreted as sites for computation, accessibility corresponds to dependency between processes at those sites. Necessity ( $\Box A$ ) describes terms of type  $A$  which have a structural kind of mobility or location-independence. Possibility ( $\Diamond A$ ) describes terms of type  $A$  located somewhere, perhaps at a remote site. We present the calculus in a setting where the locations are distinguished by stores. Store effects (mutable references) give rise to a class of location-dependent terms, namely the store addresses denoting reference cells. The system of modal types ensures that store addresses are not removed from the location where they are defined.

## 1 Introduction

Our claim is that modal logic with necessity  $\Box A$  and possibility  $\Diamond A$  can serve as the basis of a *location-aware* type theory for distributed computation. In support, we present a statically typed, distributed calculus derived from a natural deduction formulation of  $S4$  modal logic — derived, in the sense that programs correspond to proof terms, and types to propositions. The modal propositions  $\Box A$  (“mobile  $A$ ”) and  $\Diamond A$  (“remote  $A$ ”) capture spatial properties of terms relevant to distributed computation. Mobility and locality are explicit, but the particular locations involved remain abstract. A programmer need not deal with low-level issues such as assigning terms to be evaluated at particular locations, communication, or manipulation of addresses.

We give a semantics for the calculus which is type-sound, permitting movement of code and values known to be portable, while disallowing it in other cases. The logical reading of the typing rules leads naturally to the following operational interpretation:  $\Box$  elimination spawns a freely mobile term of type  $\Box A$  for evaluation at an arbitrary, indefinite location, and  $\Diamond$  elimination sends a mobile fragment of code to a definite location where the remote term of type  $\Diamond A$  resides.

From a purely operational perspective, these behaviors are not novel. Our process spawning model is similar to futures of Multilisp [13], and jumping (or something similar) is a feature of many mobile process calculi such as Mobile Ambients [6], DPI [9], and others [18, 16]. Jagannathan [10] calls it “communication-passing” style. But in this work, we focus on the logical origins of these mechanisms and give a static type-theory which ensures distributed programs are safe with respect to the locality of resources. In section 6, we discuss other distributed calculi, their approach to modeling locations, and their static type theories (if any). Most closely related are calculi due to Jia and Walker [12, 11], and Murphy *et. al* [20, 21]. These authors give a distributed interpretation to the modalities  $\Box A$  and  $\Diamond A$  — one based on  $S5$  semantics (as opposed to  $S4$ ). Though the approaches are similar, our calculus is qualitatively different, both in terms of execution model and the programming discipline it imposes.

A type theory of mobility and locality is only useful when locations are distinguishable from the perspective of a running program. We assume a number of definite locations distinguishable by fixed resources, as well as some indefinite or interchangeable locations. This allows us to model localized values and location-dependent actions accurately. For example, memory addresses or file handles become meaningless when removed from a particular location (machine). Actions may also have a location-dependent meaning; it matters fundamentally *where* a program reads from an input stream or pops up a dialog box. Our approach is to distinguish some locations by mutable state, specifically a store mapping addresses to values. Thus our type system is an extension of the pure  $S4$  theory with mutable references and a simple form of effect typing.

## 2 Logical Preliminaries

Modal logic is built on a foundational assumption that truth is localized. The Kripke semantics for classical modal logic ascribes to each world  $w$  a local valuation function  $V_w(A_0)$  for the atomic propositions. Thus proposition  $A_0$  may be true at world  $w$  but false at  $w'$ . This localized conception of truth is what gives modal logic the capacity to describe distributed computation. In a constructive formulation, we no longer have localized truth valuations, but proofs of a certain form may be portable, establishing the truth of  $A$  in the context of assumptions true at any accessible world. Others proofs may be tied to a particular world. When removed from that local context, they no longer establish truth of  $A$ .

The types, syntax, and static semantics of our calculus are derived from a constructive formalization of modal logic developed by Pfenning and Davies [17]. This was chosen over other intuitionistic formalisms, such as Simpson’s [19], since proof reduction and substitution have simple explanations and the logic does not rely on explicit reasoning about worlds and accessibility. The Pfenning/Davies formalism is based on three primitive judgments on  $A$ , a proposition:  $A$  **true**, meaning that  $A$  is locally true “here”;  $A$  **valid**, meaning that  $A$  **true** holds in *every* accessible world; and  $A$  **poss**, meaning that  $A$  **true** holds in *some* accessible world. Validity ( $A$  **valid**) is also commonly referred to as necessary truth. These judgments and the propositions  $A \rightarrow B$  (implication),  $\Box A$  (necessity), and  $\Diamond A$  (possibility) are defined in relationship to one another, culminating in a natural deduction system for a modal logic supporting axioms characteristic of constructive S4. The primary judgments are  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash A$  **true** and  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash A$  **poss**, where  $\Delta$  are assumptions  $A$  **valid**, and  $\Gamma$  are assumptions  $A$  **true**.

The intuition behind our application of modal logic to distributed programming is the following: If, following the Curry-Howard approach, we interpret propositions as types and proofs as programs, it is also quite natural to interpret the logical worlds as sites for computation. Proofs of validity ( $A$  **valid**) correspond to mobile, portable terms. And proofs of possibility ( $A$  **poss**) correspond to computations that produce a term in some definite, perhaps remote, location. An extended discussion of the background and logical motivation of the calculus can be found in the technical report [15].

## 3 Modal Type Theory and Calculus

The syntax of terms  $M$  and types  $A$  is given in figure 1. We call the fragment with types  $A \rightarrow B$ ,  $\Box A$  and  $\Diamond A$  the core calculus. To support interesting examples, we include several extensions: generic effectful computation characterized by the monadic type  $\bigcirc A$ , and mutable references  $\text{ref } A$  as store-effects. We also assume a set of base types  $\text{nat}$ ,  $\text{bool}$ ,  $1$  (unit type), *etc.*

Corresponding to the judgments  $A$  **true** and  $A$  **poss** of the modal deduction system, we have typing judgments  $M : A$  and  $M \div A$ , respectively. To characterize

	Types ( $A, B$ )	Syntactic Forms ( $M, N$ )
Local	$A \rightarrow B$ $1, \text{bool}, \text{nat}$	$x \mid \lambda x : A. M \mid M N$ $() \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid (\text{defn. elided} \dots)$
Spatial	$\Box A$ $\Diamond A$	$u \mid \text{box } M \mid \text{let box } u = M \text{ in } N$ $\text{dia } M \mid \text{let dia } x = M \text{ in } N$
Effects	$\bigcirc A$ $\text{ref } A$	$\text{comp } M \mid \text{let comp } x = M \text{ in } N$ $\text{ref } M \mid !M \mid M := N$

Figure 1: Types and terms of the modal calculus.

local, effectful computations we add a third form of judgment  $M \approx A$ . We summarize the typing judgments and their informal readings:

Judgment	Significance
$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A$	$M$ has type $A$ here (local pure term)
$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \approx A$	$M$ produces result of type $A$ here (local effects)
$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div A$	$M$ produces result somewhere (non-localized comp.)

The hypothetical form(s)  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A$ , *etc.* are made in the context of some mobile variables  $u :: A \in \Delta$ , corresponding to assumptions  $A$  **valid**, and local variables  $x : A \in \Gamma$  corresponding to assumptions  $A$  **true**. The typing rules are presented in figure 2.

Locations are implicit in the local context  $\Gamma$ , in the following sense:  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A$  means  $M$  has type  $A$  *in a location where* local bindings for  $\Gamma$  are available. Thus certain forms of judgment have a special significance.  $\Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A$ , means that  $M : A$  *any* place via weakening on  $\Gamma$ . This form of typing derivation corresponds to a proof of  $A$  **valid** in the deduction system. By analogy,  $\Delta; x : B \vdash M \div A$ , means that  $M \div A$  holds *in a location where*  $x : B$ .

### 3.1 Spatial Content of Typing

Neither the deductive formalism [17] nor the typing rules involve locations explicitly, but a few of the typing rules nonetheless have spatial content, by virtue of interaction between the local context  $\Gamma$ , and judgments  $M : A$ ,  $M \div A$ , *etc.* For example, rule  $\Box I$  states that mobile terms are those which depend only on other mobile terms in  $\Delta$ . Effects are prohibited under  $\text{box } M$  by requiring  $M : A$ .<sup>1</sup> The elimination form allows us to bind such a term to  $u :: A$  in  $\Delta$ . Such variables have a scope extending beyond the confines of a single location, so it is essential that only mobile values be

<sup>1</sup>This might be weakened to allow some benign, non-observable classes of effects, but executing I/O effects at an arbitrary location leads to unpredictable behavior.

Mobile Context  $\Delta ::= \cdot \mid \Delta, u :: A$   
 Local Context  $\Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : A$

$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{}{\Delta; \Gamma, x : A, \Gamma' \vdash x : A} \text{hyp} \qquad \frac{}{\Delta, u :: A, \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash u : A} \text{hyp}^* \\
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash M : B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x : A. M : A \rightarrow B} \rightarrow I \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A \rightarrow B \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash N : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M N : B} \rightarrow E \\
 \frac{\Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{box } M : \Box A} \Box I \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \Box A \quad \Delta, u :: A; \Gamma \vdash N : B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let box } u = M \text{ in } N : B} \Box E \\
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \sim A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{comp } M : \bigcirc A} \bigcirc I \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{dia } M : \Diamond A} \Diamond I
 \end{array}$$

$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \sim A$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \sim A} \text{comp} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \bigcirc A \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash N \sim B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let comp } x = M \text{ in } N \sim B} \bigcirc E \\
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{ref } M \sim \text{ref } A} \text{talloc} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \Box A \quad \Delta, u :: A; \Gamma \vdash N \sim B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let box } u = M \text{ in } N \sim B} \Box E_c \\
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \text{ref } A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash !M \sim A} \text{tget} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \text{ref } A \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash N : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M := N \sim 1} \text{tset}
 \end{array}$$

$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div A$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div A} \text{poss} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \Diamond A \quad \Delta; x : A \vdash N \div B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let dia } x = M \text{ in } N \div B} \Diamond E \\
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash Q \sim A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash Q \div A} \text{poss}' \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \Box A \quad \Delta, u :: A; \Gamma \vdash N \div B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let box } u = M \text{ in } N \div B} \Box E_p \\
 \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \bigcirc A \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash N \div B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let comp } x = M \text{ in } N \div B} \bigcirc E_p
 \end{array}$$

Figure 2: Typing rules for the core modal calculus extended with effects. Allocation, dereference, update of reference cells are considered effectful computations. Rules for base types, other type constructors, *etc.* are omitted since they are orthogonal and defined in the usual ways under local term typing ( $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A$ ). The diagram illustrates subsumptions between the judgments (*poss*, *poss'* and *comp*).

bound to  $u :: A$ .

$$\frac{\Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{box } M : \Box A} \Box I \quad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \Box A \quad \Delta, u :: A; \Gamma \vdash N : B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let box } u = M \text{ in } N : B} \Box E$$

The rule  $\circ E$  describes binding the result of a local computation  $M : \circ A$  to a local variable  $x : A$ . Of course, some variables in  $\Gamma$  could be bound to values dependent on prior effects. Under the assumption that effects are not destructive, it is sound to retain the local context  $\Gamma$  in typing  $\Delta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash N \approx B$ .

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \circ A \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash N \approx B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let comp } x = M \text{ in } N \approx B} \circ E$$

Finally,  $\diamond E$  describes the binding of a remote term value to a local variable  $x : A$ . For this to be sound, it must be the case that the continuation  $\Delta; x : A \vdash N \div B$  be well-formed at the remote location. This is ensured by restricting the local context to a single binding  $x : A$  available at some remote location. The  $\diamond I$  rule allows us to encapsulate a term  $M \div A$  as a remote term  $\diamond A$ .

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{dia } M : \diamond A} \diamond I \quad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : \diamond A \quad \Delta; x : A \vdash N \div B}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let dia } x = M \text{ in } N \div B} \diamond E$$

### 3.2 Examples

The definition of  $\Box A$  (mobility) is orthogonal to the rest of the type constructors; even lexically scoped closures of type  $\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$  can be mobile  $\Box(\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat})$ . This is more powerful than ad-hoc restrictions on mobility based on the form of types.

```
let plusk :  $\Box \text{nat} \rightarrow \Box(\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}) =$ 
  ( $\lambda x : \Box \text{nat} .$ 
    let box k = x in
      box ( $\lambda y : \text{nat} . y + k$ ))
  (* incr a mobile function *)
let box incr ::  $\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} = \text{plusk } (\text{box } 1)$ 
```

Moving the closure representation of `incr` is sound since we know the free variable  $k :: \text{nat}$  in `box ( $\lambda y : \text{nat} . y + k$ )` is bound to a mobile value.

Mobile terms ( $\text{box } M : \Box A$ ) are  $\Gamma$ -closed and free of local dependencies. They can be evaluated at *any* location without regard to local resources. The elimination form `let box u = box M in N` spawns  $M$  for evaluation in an independent process (at an arbitrary location). It is straightforward to introduce parallelism with `box` and `let box`. Consider the Fibonacci function, implemented in a recursive fashion:

```

let fib :  $\square$ nat  $\rightarrow$  nat =
  mfix f .  $\lambda$  bn .
    let box n = bn in
    if n < 2 then n
    else let box f1 = box f (box (n-1)) in
          let box f2 = box f (box (n-2)) in
            f1 + f2
in fib (box 5)

```

Here the definition of  $f$  must itself be mobile, since  $f$  occurs under  $\text{box}$ . The typing rule for mobile fixpoint  $\text{mfix}$  requires that the body be  $\Gamma$ -closed analogous to the rule  $\square I$ . Fixpoint operators are defined in appendix section 8.3.

Values of type  $\diamond A$  can be used to model locations with special roles during computation. Type  $A$  describes the resource/interface provided by that site. Non-trivial values of this type must be obtained through a primitive binding mechanism. We can form a term  $\text{dia } M : \diamond A$  in the source language, but  $M$  is only “remote” in a trivial sense.

```

(* rqueue :  $\diamond$ ({insert:nat $\rightarrow$  $\bigcirc$ unit, ...}) *)
let rqueue = bind_queue ... in

(* insert (x :  $\square$ nat) into rqueue *)
let box v = x in
let dia q = rqueue in (* jump to queue location *)
  let comp () = q.insert v in
  ...

```

The actual location of  $\text{rqueue}$  is hidden by the type constructor  $\diamond$ , so the binding mechanism is free to choose which location will provide the service. Our type discipline requires that the code sent to the remote location be free of any dependence on local bindings in  $\Gamma$  with the exception of  $q$  itself, which can be bound upon arrival. Primitive remote resources and their properties are discussed in section 8.4.

## 4 Operational Interpretation

### 4.1 Model of Locations

We now formalize the operational semantics in a way that is consistent with the logical readings of  $\square A$  and  $\diamond A$  described above. The semantics should reflect clearly the spatial distribution of program fragments, so that communication (movement) of terms is evident. To this end we introduce processes  $\langle l : M \rangle$  consisting of a term  $M$  labeled uniquely by  $l$ . The semantics should also represent concretely the distinguishing features of each location. In this instance, locations are distinguished by a store  $H$  mapping addresses  $a$  to values. Finally, processes are placed in structured configurations  $C$  that reflect the relationships between processes, stores, and other processes.



Store $H ::= \cdot \mid H[a \mapsto \bar{V}]$
Co-located Processes $P ::= \cdot \mid P, \langle l : M \rangle$
Configuration $C ::= \cdot \mid \langle l : M \rangle \triangleleft C \mid [H \vDash P] \triangleleft C$

Figure 3: Runtime Structures: processes, stores, and configurations

The notation  $[H \vDash P]$  represents a collection of processes  $P$  executing inside a definite location under the store  $H$ . Some processes have no definite location, only a placement  $\langle l : M \rangle \triangleleft C$  relative to other processes  $C$ . If one thinks of processes as worlds of a Kripke model, the connective  $\triangleleft$  can be viewed as an assertion of accessibility. For example,  $[H \vDash P] \triangleleft C$  means that processes  $C$  are accessible from  $P$ .

We permit process labels and store addresses in terms at runtime. Process labels occur in two forms:  $l$  and  $@l$ . Both refer to a process  $\langle l : M \rangle$  but  $l$  denotes the result value of a mobile process and  $@l$  denotes the value “at” process  $l$  (which may not be mobile). Typing contexts  $\Delta$  and  $\Gamma$  are generalized to account for labels and addresses. We provide typing rules for these new syntactic forms in figure 4.

A configuration  $C$  is well-formed iff  $\cdot \vdash^c C : \Gamma$ . That is, all processes in  $C$  are well-formed, and the processes  $P$  at definite locations  $[H \vDash P]$  have types given by  $\Gamma$ . See figure 4 for the definition. There are subsidiary judgments for typing stores  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^s H : \Gamma'$ , and co-located processes  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^c P : \Gamma'$ . The label-binding structure of a configuration is determined by accessibility ( $\triangleleft$ ). The form  $\langle l : M \rangle \triangleleft C$  binds  $l :: A$  in the subsequent portion  $C$ . The form  $[H \vDash P] \triangleleft C$  binds the labels  $l_i : A_i$  due to  $C$  in the processes  $P$ . Local store addresses  $a$  defined by  $H$  are also bound in  $P$ .

## 4.2 Substitution and Values

We adopt the definitions of substitution from Pfenning and Davies [17] with trivial extensions to account for labels and store addresses. There are multiple forms of substitution, two of which are relevant here.  $\llbracket M/\mathbf{u} \rrbracket$  is the substitution of a mobile term for  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $[M/\mathbf{x}]$  is substitution of a local term for  $\mathbf{x}$ . They are defined in the usual compositional way, avoiding variable capture. Labels and store addresses denote syntactically closed terms, so  $\llbracket M/\mathbf{u} \rrbracket @r = @r$ , for example. Because of this, we can say that substitution acts *locally* (within a single process). Variables of the two sorts have different typing properties so the relevant substitution properties are subtly different.

<p style="text-align: center;">Runtime Term <math>M, N ::= \dots \mid l \mid @l \mid a</math></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mobile Context <math>\Delta ::= \cdot \mid \Delta, u :: A \mid \Delta, l :: A</math></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Local Context <math>\Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : A \mid \Gamma, a : A \mid \Gamma, @l : A</math></p> $\frac{\Delta = \Delta_1, l :: A, \Delta_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash l : A} \text{res} \quad \frac{\Gamma = \Gamma_1, @l : A, \Gamma_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash @l \div A} \text{loc} \quad \frac{\Gamma = \Gamma_1, a : A, \Gamma_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash a : \text{ref } A} \text{addr}$
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; margin-bottom: 10px;"><math>\Delta \vdash^c C : \Gamma</math></div> $\frac{\Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A \quad \Delta, l :: A \vdash^c C : \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash^c \langle l : M \rangle \triangleleft C : \Gamma} \text{indef} \quad \frac{}{\Delta \vdash^c \cdot : \cdot} \text{none}$ $\frac{\Delta \vdash^c C : \Gamma \quad \Delta \vdash^s H : \Gamma^H \quad \Delta; \Gamma, \Gamma^H \vdash^c P : \Gamma'}{\Delta \vdash^c [H \vDash P] \triangleleft C : \Gamma', \Gamma} \text{location}$ <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; margin-bottom: 10px;"><math>\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^c P : \Gamma'</math></div> $\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^c P : \Gamma' \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^c P, \langle l : M \rangle : \Gamma', @l : A} \text{proc} \quad \frac{}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^c \cdot : \cdot} \text{empty}$ <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; margin-bottom: 10px;"><math>\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^s H : \Gamma'</math></div> $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash^s H : \Gamma' \iff \forall a \in \text{Dom}(H \cup \Gamma') . \Delta; \Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash H(a) : \Gamma'(a)$

Figure 4: Runtime terms, generalized typing contexts, and configuration typing.

**Lemma 1 (Substitution Properties)**

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A \quad \wedge \quad \Delta, u :: A, \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash N : B &\implies \Delta, \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash \llbracket M/u \rrbracket N : B \\ \Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A \quad \wedge \quad \Delta, u :: A, \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash N \sim B &\implies \Delta, \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash \llbracket M/u \rrbracket N \sim B \\ \Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A \quad \wedge \quad \Delta, u :: A, \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash N \div B &\implies \Delta, \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash \llbracket M/u \rrbracket N \div B \\ \Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A \quad \wedge \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : A, \Gamma' \vdash N : B &\implies \Delta; \Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash [M/x]N : B \\ \Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A \quad \wedge \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : A, \Gamma' \vdash N \sim B &\implies \Delta; \Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash [M/x]N \sim B \\ \Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : A \quad \wedge \quad \Delta; \Gamma, x : A, \Gamma' \vdash N \div B &\implies \Delta; \Gamma, \Gamma' \vdash [M/x]N \div B \end{aligned}$$

Proof: straightforward, by induction on the typing derivation for  $N$ . The property is established for derivations of  $N : B$  first, then  $N \sim B$  assuming the former case, then  $N \div B$  assuming substitution properties hold in both the former cases.  $\square$

Substitutions  $\llbracket M/u \rrbracket N$  and  $[M/x]N$  are only properly defined for terms  $M$  satisfying  $M : A$ . For example,  $\llbracket \text{let } \text{dia } x = M \text{ in } N / u \rrbracket$  is undefined. Terms  $M \sim A$  and  $M \div A$  have different logical properties which are not respected by ordinary substitution. Special forms of substitution can be defined for these cases (see [17]), but our operational semantics is designed so that only  $\llbracket M/u \rrbracket N$  and  $[M/x]N$  are required.

The values of the calculus are as follows, eliding values of base type which are standard. Local values correspond to the typing judgment  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash V : A$  (or  $V \approx A$ ). General values correspond to  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash V^* \div A$ .

Local Value  $V ::= x \mid u \mid \lambda x : A. M \mid \text{box } M \mid \text{dia } M \mid \text{comp } M \mid a \mid \dots$   
 Value  $V^* ::= @l \mid V$

To achieve more concurrency, we treat labels  $l$  as pseudo-values, though they can be reduced further by synchronizing on the result of process  $l$ . We use the notation  $\bar{V}$  to denote local value *or* label  $l$ .

### 4.3 Reduction Rules

We use evaluation context notation to specify where reduction steps may occur inside of terms;  $\mathcal{R}[N]$  denotes a term decomposed into context  $\mathcal{R}[\ ]$  and subterm  $N$ . Any well-formed term has one or more decompositions. Non-uniqueness arises from the treatment of labels  $r$ . Pseudo-values  $\bar{V}$  occur throughout the definition of contexts and redices, so  $M = l N$  is decomposed as either  $\mathcal{R} = [l] N$  (function position) or  $\mathcal{R} = l \mathcal{R}'$  (argument position).

We present the reduction rules  $C \Longrightarrow C'$  in a way that elides unchanged, irrelevant parts of the configuration. For example, the rule  $\langle l : M \rangle \Longrightarrow \langle l : M' \rangle$  applies to any single process, in a definite location  $[H \vDash \dots]$  or not.

The most revealing reduction rules are those governing  $\square$  and  $\diamond$  introduction and elimination. This is where the *spatial* content of the calculus is found, and our semantics permits creation and interaction between processes in these rules. To reduce  $(\text{let } \text{box } u = \text{box } M \text{ in } N)$ , we spawn an independent process  $l_2$  to carry out the evaluation of subterm  $M$ . The spawned process  $l_2$  is placed outside of a definite location, reflecting the fact that  $M$  may be evaluated at anywhere. The rule *syncr* allows retrieving the mobile result value of such a process. Reducing  $(\mathcal{R}[\text{let } \text{dia } x = \text{dia } @l_2 \text{ in } N])$  involves sending  $\mathcal{R}[\ ]$  and  $N$  to the location where  $\langle l_2 : \bar{V} \rangle$  resides. Notice that the value  $\bar{V}$  is never moved outside  $[H \vDash \dots]$ , though it is duplicated in the fresh process  $l_3$ . Rule *resolve* allows traversing chains of indirection to locate a remote value, and *letdia* covers the trivial case of a local term.

There are also pure and effectful local reduction steps. The local reductions involve only one process, and, in the latter case, the local store  $H$ . Reductions associated with additional base types, products  $(A \times B)$ , sums  $(A + B)$ , *etc.* would be in this family.

### 4.4 Properties

Type preservation and progress theorems hold for our semantics; mobility ( $\square A$ ) and locality ( $\diamond A$ ) types ensure that our distributed programs are safe. This would be unremarkable but for the presence of certain localized terms in our semantics — the store addresses  $a$ . The criterion for well-formed configurations specifies that addresses bound by store  $H$  only occur in processes  $P$  inside the definite location  $[H \vDash P]$ . The modal type discipline ensures that programs respect the locality of store addresses.



Proof: Each is proved in order, assuming the prior one(s) hold. Individually, we proceed by induction on evaluation contexts. For each form of context, we can invert to the relevant typing rule or a subsumption rule (*comp*, *poss*, or *poss'*) applies.  $\square$

Under certain conditions, a context  $\mathcal{R}[\ ]$  can be moved from one environment to another because its constituent subterms are  $\Gamma$ -closed. That is,  $\mathcal{R}[\ ]$  may be independent of local bindings and mobile, just as a term  $M$  encapsulated as  $\mathbf{box} M$  is mobile.

**Lemma 3 (Mobile Continuations)** *Assume a context  $\mathcal{R}[\ ]$  such that  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div A \implies \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{R}[M] \div B$  (for any  $M$ ). Then  $\Delta, \Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash N \div A \implies \Delta, \Delta'; \Gamma' \vdash \mathcal{R}[N] \div B$  (for any  $\Delta', \Gamma'$ , and  $N$ ).*

Proof: by induction on the structure of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Due to typing, the only possibility is  $\mathcal{R} = \mathbf{let} \ \mathbf{dia} \ x_1 = \mathbf{dia} \ \mathcal{R}' \ \mathbf{in} \ N_1$ . By inversion on typing we can apply the IH to  $\mathcal{R}'$ . Also by inversion,  $\Delta; x_1 : A_1 \vdash N_1 \div B$ . The conclusion follows by  $\Delta$ -weakening and the  $\diamond E$  typing rule.  $\square$

**Theorem 1 (Type Preservation)** *If  $\vdash^c C : \Gamma$  and  $C \implies C'$  then  $\vdash^c C' : \Gamma'$  for some  $\Gamma'$  which extends  $\Gamma$ .*

Proof: by cases on derivation of  $C \implies C'$ , using the definition of  $\vdash^c C : \Gamma$ , inversion on typing derivations, and substitution properties. In the critical cases where fragments of the program move from one process to another, these mobile terms, values, or contexts remain well-formed via weakening (of  $\Delta$  and/or  $\Gamma$ ). See appendix section 8.1 for selected cases.  $\square$

To establish progress, we first enumerate the redices of the semantics and give a decomposition lemma. The category  $\langle \mathit{localredex} \rangle$  corresponds to local reduction rules. But note that reducing  $l$  or  $\mathbf{let} \ \mathbf{dia} \ x = \mathbf{dia} \ @l \ \mathbf{in} \ N$  requires interaction with other processes.

**Definition 1 (Redex and Local Redex)**

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathit{redex} \rangle &::= l \mid \mathbf{let} \ \mathbf{dia} \ x = \mathbf{dia} \ @l \ \mathbf{in} \ N \mid \langle \mathit{localredex} \rangle \\ \langle \mathit{localredex} \rangle &::= (\lambda x : A. M) \bar{V} \mid \mathbf{let} \ \mathbf{box} \ u = \mathbf{box} \ M \ \mathbf{in} \ N \\ &\quad \mid \mathbf{let} \ \mathbf{dia} \ x = \mathbf{dia} \ \bar{V} \ \mathbf{in} \ N \mid \mathbf{let} \ \mathbf{comp} \ x = \mathbf{comp} \ \bar{V} \ \mathbf{in} \ N \\ &\quad \mid \mathbf{ref} \ \bar{V} \mid !a \mid a := \bar{V} \end{aligned}$$

**Lemma 4 (Decomposition)** *Well-formed terms  $M$  are either values, or can be decomposed as  $\mathcal{R}[N]$  where  $N$  is of the form  $\langle \mathit{redex} \rangle$ .*

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta; \Gamma \vdash M : B &\implies M = V \quad \vee \quad \exists \mathcal{R}. M = \mathcal{R}[\langle \mathit{redex} \rangle] \\ \Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \approx B &\implies M = V \quad \vee \quad \exists \mathcal{R}. M = \mathcal{R}[\langle \mathit{redex} \rangle] \\ \Delta; \Gamma \vdash M \div B &\implies M = V^* \quad \vee \quad \exists \mathcal{R}. M = \mathcal{R}[\langle \mathit{redex} \rangle] \end{aligned}$$

Proof: Each is proved in order, assuming the prior one(s) hold. The proof is by induction on typing derivations. If  $M$  is a value  $V$  (or  $M = V^*$ ), we are done. Otherwise,  $M$  is a redex in the empty context (trivial decomposition), or we invert the relevant typing rule and proceed by induction on a typing subderivation to show that  $M$  has a non-trivial decomposition.  $\square$

**Theorem 2 (Progress)** *If  $\vdash^c C : \Gamma$  then either (1) there exists  $C'$  such that  $C \Longrightarrow C'$  or (2)  $C$  is terminal (all processes contain  $V^*$ ).*

Proof: Generalize the statement as follows: If  $\Delta \vdash^c C : \Gamma$  then (1)  $C \Longrightarrow C'$  or (2)  $C$  is terminal or (3)  $C$  has a process  $\langle l : \mathcal{R}[l'] \rangle$  blocked on label  $l' :: A \in \Delta$ . The proof is by induction on derivations and relies on case analysis and the decomposition lemma. The main progress theorem is an instance where  $C$  is closed ( $\Delta = \cdot$ ), so case (3) is vacuous. See appendix section 8.2.  $\square$

## 5 Consequences of Modal Types

Basing the calculus on a modal logic has benefits, but also imposes a certain programming discipline. One benefit is that the logic gives us a clear definition of mobility  $\Box A$ , orthogonal to the rest of the type theory. On the other hand, the calculus contains only the constructs necessary for logical completeness and nothing unsound (wrt  $S4$ ). Some mechanisms which seem natural to a programmer, such as remote procedure calls, and mobile remote references are not present or present only in restricted forms.

Well-formed programs respect the locality of both effects *and* of values produced through those effects. Effects are only executed at definite locations, and localized values are never taken out of the context where they are well-defined. The following program is disallowed, because a local variable `xr`, bound to a store address, occurs in a mobile fragment of the program.

```
let comp xr = ref 0 in
let box () = box (xr := !xr + 1) in
  (* spawned computation synchronized *)
let comp y = !xr in
  (* y = 0 or y = 1? *)
```

Abandoning the idea that store addresses distinguish locations and thus *should* be localized, it is quite possible to give a reasonable semantics for mobile references — passing a special remote reference (perhaps  $a@l$ ) as a proxy for the store address  $a$  as defined in  $l$ . But this is a more complicated mechanism than the copying interpretation. It also sidesteps the assumption of *distinguishable* locations; if proxies are indistinguishable from local values under the semantics and its primitive operations, there is no observable difference between the locations. While one can adopt indistinguishability as a design goal, there are costs to maintaining the illusion: communication latency makes performance unpredictable, and the implementor must provide for distributed garbage collection of remote references.

The modal type system forces us to recognize mobility and locality explicitly, so execution costs are more apparent. Our notion of mobility is static, there is nothing in our semantics analogous to a runtime marshalling exception. This is remarkable when one considers mobile closures of type  $\Box(A \rightarrow B)$  which might capture a non-mobile bindings were it not for the type discipline of  $\Box$ . There are other, more subtle,

consequences that are apparent when the  $S4$  calculus is compared to calculi based on  $S5$  modal logic or alternative type theories. We briefly discuss these in sections 6 and 7.

## 6 Related Work

There are many prior foundational calculi which have a distributed operational interpretation. Most notably the Pi-calculus [14] and offspring. Pi-calculus processes interact by communicating names over named channels. Locations are thought of as implicit in the connectivity of processes. And names, the only form of resource, do not have a definite location or fixed scope (due to scope-extrusion). Thus locations in the Pi-calculus have no fixed properties or identity. Our approach differs in that our main focus is on locations and their distinguishing properties. The modal calculus assumes a set of definite locations with fixed resources, as well as some indefinite locations which are indistinguishable/interchangeable.

Various proposed calculi have added explicit locations to the Pi-calculus. Examples are the DPI calculus of Hennessy *et. al* [9] and  $lsd\pi$  by Ravara, Matos, *et. al* [18]. These calculi allow some channel names to be declared fixed to a location, while others follow the laws of scope extrusion. DPI has a type system that tracks the locality of channel names, and associates each location with a set of resources (names) bound in that location. The Klaim calculus is also based on localized resources (multiple tuple spaces). De Nicola, *et. al* give a type system for Klaim [16] that checks process behaviors against administratively granted capabilities.

The ambient calculus [6] proposed by Cardelli and Gordon is a more radical departure, replacing channels with ambients  $n[ ]$ . Ambients are places which may contain other ambients and running processes. They also serve as locations in which fragments of the program exchange messages. Cardelli and Gordon [8, 7] and Caires and Cardelli [2, 3] have developed an ambient logic with modal operators to characterize the location structure and behavior of ambient calculus programs. In their work, accessibility is interpreted as containment of ambients,  $\boxplus\Psi$  requires all sub-locations satisfy  $\Psi$ , and  $\diamond\Psi$  requires that some sub-location satisfy  $\Psi$ . As with names in the Pi-calculus, untyped ambients have no fixed locality or scope; in the absence of a specification, nested ambients may move freely in and out of other ambients in response to actions of the running program. Cardelli, Ghelli, and Gordon also developed a static type system for ambients [4, 5] which restricts ambient mobility. But their notion of mobility is quite different from the one we derived from logical necessity.

Modal logics should be referred to in the plural, because there are several different ways to define the meaning of  $\Box A$  and  $\Diamond A$ . Following a similar intuition, others have derived distributed calculi from  $S5$  or  $S5$ -like hybrid logics.  $S5$  is distinguished from  $S4$  by the assumption that accessibility between worlds is symmetric, in addition to reflexive and transitive. The Lambda 5 calculus of Murphy, Cray, Harper, and Pfenning [20, 21] is derived from pure  $S5$ . And Jia and Walker's  $\lambda_{rpc}$  language [12, 11] is based on a  $S5$ -like hybrid logic with spatial types  $A@w$  and  $n[A]$  (absolute and

relative locations) in addition to the pure modalities  $\Box A$  and  $\Diamond A$ . Both type theories are based in a formalism with explicit worlds; the programmer specifies directly where all fragments of the program are evaluated. This is qualitatively different than our  $S4$  calculus, in which boxed terms are evaluated at any indefinite location. But in some ways,  $S5$  allows a programmer to do more than  $S4$ . For the most part, this is explained by the axiom schemas (5)  $\Diamond A \rightarrow \Box \Diamond A$  and (5')  $\Diamond \Box A \rightarrow \Box A$ . Axiom (5) represents the ability to make (references to) remote terms mobile, and (5') the ability to return a mobile term which happens to be remote. Both can be given a safe and sensible semantics, but there are costs to be weighed. For example, supporting (5) complicates storage management since it allows references to arbitrary local values to be exported.

In [1] Borghuis and Feijs present a language based on a single  $\Box^o$  modality. However, their operational interpretation of this modality is not based on the spatial interpretation of  $\Box$  that we adopt. Rather  $\Box^o(A \rightarrow B)$  represents location  $o$ 's knowledge of how to transform a value of type  $A$  to one of type  $B$ . The calculus allows composing services and applying them to values, which are all assumed to be mobile.

## 7 Conclusions

While  $S4$  does not lead to the most computationally powerful distributed language, it has a relatively simple programming model and type system. It is also the right fit under a policy that new located resources may not be introduced during computation, or perhaps only through an external primitive. This policy could be advantageous because it encourages the programmer to work locally (as noted by Jagannathan [10]). It also simplifies the runtime support for marshalling and distributed garbage collection.

In this instance of the calculus, we treated stores  $H$  as the fundamental distinguishing property of locations, but the problem of distinguishability is more general. Store addresses serve as a canonical example of a localized entities, but the logically motivated type system is independent of this choice. One can imagine extending the calculus and operational model with other forms of localized resources. Besides mutable references, file handles, or other pointers to OS data structures, it is not so clear what other classes of localized value there might be. Concerns such as semantic transparency should guide the language designer — mobility (move-by-copy) is not tenable in situations where identity of an object must be preserved. In other cases, we might choose to fix certain resources to locations for reasons of efficiency, privacy, or security. Once this choice is made, the abstract principles of modal logic determine the global properties of the language.

In future work, we plan to pursue this kind of abstract investigation of distributed computation. We hope to draw conclusions about marshalling and abstraction-safety in distributed computation. The types  $A$ , whose structure we can examine at runtime, have a kind of inherent potential for mobility, in the sense that functions of type  $A \rightarrow \Box A$  exist. That is, a marshalling function takes a local value of type  $A$  and produces



an equivalent boxed value of type  $\Box A$ , for some notion of equivalence. But what of values whose type is abstract? It should not be possible to distinguish a (potentially) mobile implementation type from a non-mobile one. Hence abstraction becomes a secondary source of location-dependence; we cannot automatically conclude  $\alpha \rightarrow \Box \alpha$  (for some unknown  $\alpha$ ). Various second-order extensions of the type theory are under investigation. Hopefully this will shed new light on how abstract datatypes should behave in a distributed computation, and the meaning of abstraction-safety in that context.

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## 8 Appendix

### 8.1 Type Preservation: selected cases

**Case:** *syncr*

$$\langle l_2 : \bar{V} \rangle \triangleleft \dots \langle l_1 : \mathcal{R}[l_2] \rangle \implies \langle l_2 : \bar{V} \rangle \triangleleft \dots \langle l_1 : \mathcal{R}[\bar{V}] \rangle$$

Let $\Delta = \Delta_2, l_2 :: A, \Delta_1$	
Process $l_1: \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{R}[l_2] \div B$	Assumption
$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash l_2 : A$	Context Inversion
Process $l_2: \Delta_2; \cdot \vdash \bar{V} : A$	Assumption
$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \bar{V} : A$	Weakening ( $\Delta_2; \cdot \subseteq \Delta; \Gamma$ )
Process $l_1: \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{R}[\bar{V}] \div B$	Typing

**Case:** *letbox*

$$\langle l_1 : \mathcal{R}[\text{let box } u = \text{box } M \text{ in } N] \rangle \implies \langle l_2 : M \rangle \triangleleft \langle l_1 : \mathcal{R}[[l_2/u]N] \rangle$$

(where  $l_2$  fresh)

Process $l_1: \Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{R}[\text{let box } u = \text{box } M \text{ in } N] \div C$	Assumption
$\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \text{let box } u = \text{box } M \text{ in } N \div B$	Context Inversion
(1) $\Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A$	Inversion
$\Delta, u :: A; \Gamma \vdash N \div B$	Inversion
Let $\Delta' = \Delta, l_2 :: A$	
Process $l_2: \Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A$	by (1)
$\Delta', u :: A; \Gamma \vdash N \div B$	Weakening ( $\Delta \subseteq \Delta'$ )
$\Delta'; \Gamma \vdash [[l_2/u]N] \div B$	Substitution
Process $l_1: \Delta'; \Gamma \vdash \mathcal{R}[[l_2/u]N] \div C$	Typing

**Case:** *syncr*

$$\langle l_1 : \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } x = \text{dia } (@l_2) \text{ in } N] \rangle \triangleleft \dots [H \vDash \langle l_2 : \bar{V} \rangle]$$

$$\implies \langle l_1 : @l_3 \rangle \triangleleft \dots [H \vDash \langle l_2 : \bar{V} \rangle, \langle l_3 : \mathcal{R}[[\bar{V}/x]N] \rangle]$$

(where  $l_3$  fresh)

Let $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma, @l_2 : A, \Gamma_2$	
Let $\Delta_2 = \Delta_1, \Delta$	
Process $l_1: \Delta_1; \Gamma_1, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } x = \text{dia } (@l_2) \text{ in } N] \div C$	Assumption
Process $l_2: \Delta_2; \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2} \vdash \bar{V} \div A$	Assumption
$\Delta_1; \Gamma_1, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash \text{let dia } x = \text{dia } (@l_2) \text{ in } N \div B$	Context Inversion
$\Delta_1; \Gamma_1, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash @l_2 \div A$	Inversion
$\Delta_1; x : A \vdash N \div B$	Inversion
Let $\Gamma'_1 = \Gamma, @l_2 : A, @l_3 : C, \Gamma_2$	
Process $l_1: \Delta_1; \Gamma'_1, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash @l_3 \div C$	Rule <i>loc</i>
Process $l_2: \Delta_2; @l_3 : C, \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2} \vdash \bar{V} \div A$	Weakening

$\Delta_2; \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2}, \mathbf{x} : A \vdash N \div B$	$(\Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2} \subseteq @l_3 : C, \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2})$
	Weakening ( $\Delta_1 \subseteq \Delta_2$ )
$\Delta_2; \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2} \vdash [\overline{V}/\mathbf{x}]N \div B$	$(\mathbf{x} : A \subseteq \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2}, \mathbf{x} : A)$
	Substitution
Process $l_3 : \Delta_2; \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2} \vdash \mathcal{R}[[\overline{V}/\mathbf{x}]N] \div C$	Mobile Continuation

**Case:** *resolve*

$$\langle l_1 : \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia}(@l_2) \text{ in } N] \rangle \triangleleft \dots \langle l_2 : @l_3 \rangle$$

$$\implies \langle l_1 : \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia}(@l_3) \text{ in } N] \rangle \triangleleft \dots \langle l_2 : @l_3 \rangle$$

Let $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma, @l_2 : A, \Gamma_2$	
Let $\Delta_2 = \Delta_1, \Delta$	
Process $l_1 : \Delta_1; \Gamma_1, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia}(@l_2) \text{ in } N] \div C$	Assumption
Process $l_2 : \Delta_2; \Gamma_2, \Gamma^{H_2} \vdash @l_3 \div A$	Assumption
$\Gamma_2 = \dots, @l_3 : A, \dots$	Inversion
$\Delta_1; \Gamma_1, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash \text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia}(@l_2) \text{ in } N \div B$	Context Inversion
$\Delta_1; \Gamma_1, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash @l_3 \div A$	Rule <i>loc</i>
$\Delta_1; \Gamma, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash \text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia}(@l_3) \text{ in } N \div B$	Rules $\diamond I, \diamond E$
Process $l_1 : \Delta_1; \Gamma, \Gamma^{H_1} \vdash \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia}(@l_3) \text{ in } N] \div C$	Typing

## 8.2 Progress Theorem

**Case:** *none*

$$\frac{}{\Delta \vdash^c \cdot : \cdot} \text{none}$$

$(C = \cdot)$  is terminal Definition

**Case:** *indef*

$$\frac{\Delta; \cdot \vdash M : A \quad \frac{\mathcal{D}}{\Delta, l :: A \vdash^c C : \Gamma}}{\Delta \vdash^c \langle l : M \rangle \triangleleft C : \Gamma} \text{indef}$$

$\Delta; \cdot \vdash^c M : A$	Assumption
$\Delta, l :: A \vdash^c C : \Gamma$	Assumption
Decomposition of $M$ :	Decomp. Lemma
(a) $M = V$ , or	
(b) $M = \mathcal{R}[\langle \text{redex} \rangle]$	
Progress for $C : \Gamma$	IH( $\mathcal{D}$ )
(1) $C \implies C'$ , or	
(2) $C$ is terminal, or	
(3) exists $\Delta$ -blocked $\langle l' : \mathcal{R}[l''] \rangle$ in $C$	

If (a) then:

  If (1) then:  $\langle l : V \rangle \triangleleft C \implies \langle l : V \rangle \triangleleft C'$  Immediate

If (2) then: $\langle l : V \rangle \triangleleft C$ is terminal	Definition
If (3) and $l = l''$ then: $\langle l : V \rangle \triangleleft C \implies \langle l : V \rangle \triangleleft C'$	Rule <i>syncr</i>
If (3) and $l \neq l''$ then: $l'' :: A \in \Delta$ ( $\Delta$ -blocked process)	Typing Inv.
If (b) and $M = \mathcal{R}[l''']$ then: $l''' :: A \in \Delta$ ( $\Delta$ -blocked process)	Typing Inv.
If (b) and $M = \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia } @l_4 \text{ in } N]$ then: Contradiction	Typing
If (b) and $M = \mathcal{R}[\langle \text{localredex} \rangle]$ then: $\langle l : M \rangle \triangleleft C \implies \langle l : M' \rangle \triangleleft C$	Local Redex

**Case:** *location*

$$\frac{\frac{\mathcal{D}}{\Delta \vdash^c C : \Gamma} \quad \Delta \vdash^s H : \Gamma^H \quad \Delta; \Gamma, \Gamma^H \vdash^c P : \Gamma'}{\Delta \vdash^c [H \vDash P] \triangleleft C : \Gamma', \Gamma} \text{location}$$

$\Delta \vdash^c C : \Gamma$	Assumption
$\Delta; \Gamma, \Gamma^H \vdash^c P : \Gamma'$	Assumption
Decomposition of $\langle l_i : M_i \rangle \in P$ :	Decomp. Lemma
(a) all $M_i = V_i$ , or	
(b) exists $M_i = \mathcal{R}[\langle \text{redex} \rangle]$	
Progress for $C : \Gamma$	IH( $\mathcal{D}$ )
(1) $C \implies C'$ , or	
(2) $C$ is terminal, or	
(3) exists $\Delta$ -blocked $\langle l' : \mathcal{R}[l''] \rangle$ in $C$	Typing Inv.
If (1) then: $[H \vDash P] \triangleleft C \implies [H \vDash P] \triangleleft C'$	Immediate
If (2) and (a) then: $[H \vDash P] \triangleleft C$ is terminal	Definition
If (2) and (b) then:	
If $M_i = \mathcal{R}[l''']$ then: $l''' :: A \in \Delta$ ( $\Delta$ -blocked process)	Typing Inv.
If $M_i = \mathcal{R}[\text{let dia } \mathbf{x} = \text{dia } @l_4 \text{ in } N]$ then: $[H \vDash \langle l_i : M_i \rangle] \triangleleft C \implies [H \vDash \langle l_i : M'_i \rangle] \triangleleft C'$	Rule <i>syncr</i> or <i>resolve</i>
Otherwise $M_i = \mathcal{R}[\langle \text{localredex} \rangle]$ then: $[H \vDash \langle l_i : M_i \rangle] \triangleleft C \implies [H' \vDash \langle l_i : M'_i \rangle] \triangleleft C'$	Local Redex
If (3) then: $l'' :: A \in \Delta$ ( $\Delta$ -blocked process)	Typing Inv.

### 8.3 Fixpoints

There are two natural forms of fixpoint corresponding to the distinction between variables  $(u :: A)$  and  $(x : A)$ . We refer to  $\mathbf{mfix}(u :: A).M$  as mobile fixpoint, and  $\mathbf{fix}(x : A).M$  as local fixpoint. The operational semantics is given in the conventional way, with substitution used to perform unrolling.

$$\frac{\Delta, u :: A; \cdot \vdash M : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{mfix}(u :: A).M : A} \text{ mfix} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma, x : A \vdash M : A}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{fix}(x : A).M : A} \text{ fix}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{unroll}_m \quad \langle r : \mathcal{R}[\mathbf{mfix}(u :: A).M] \rangle \implies \langle r : \mathcal{R}[\llbracket \mathbf{mfix}(u :: A).M/u \rrbracket M] \rangle \\ \text{unroll} \quad \langle r : \mathcal{R}[\mathbf{fix}(x : A).M] \rangle \implies \langle r : \mathcal{R}[\llbracket \mathbf{fix}(x : A).M/x \rrbracket M] \rangle \end{array}$$

One can encode recursive computations involving effects or remote locations using  $\mathbf{fix}(x : \odot A).M$  or  $\mathbf{mfix}(u :: \diamond A).M$ . The same encoding strategy fails for mobile fixpoints encoded as  $\mathbf{fix}(x : \square A).M$  because the encoding does not have the right behavior under reduction.

### 8.4 Configuration Topology and Resources

Ordinarily, one does not think of resource handles or pointers as themselves being localized. After all, the label  $@l$  is separated from the underlying term, and there is no obvious *operational* reason why it must behave differently than a label of the form  $l$ . There is, however, a subtle logical explanation. Assuming *only* reflexive and transitive accessibility (S4), a resource accessible at one world (location) may become inaccessible upon shifting perspective to a second world. Without stronger assumptions about the topology of worlds, treating labels  $@l$  as freely mobile terms is unsound. This presents difficulties when we try to explain binding of programs to external resources of type  $\square \diamond A$  that are both mobile and remote.

Our simple notion of a process configuration  $C$  is not able to reflect an accessibility relation (process dependencies) beyond a partial ordering. Programs in the S4 calculus execute safely in this class of process configurations, but we cannot represent any extra constraints on the topology. One natural extension is to assume certain processes denoting global resources are accessible from all others; their labels (written  $\overline{@l}$ ) are then treated as part of the mobile context  $\Delta$ . We do not pursue this extension here because it complicates the structure of process configurations without shedding much light on new phenomena.