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# Decorated proofs for computational effects: States 

Jean-Guillaume Dumas*, Dominique Duval† Laurent Fousse ${ }^{\ddagger}$ Jean-Claude Reynaud ${ }^{\S}$

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#### Abstract

Abstract. The syntax of an imperative language does not mention explicitly the state, while its denotational semantics has to mention it. In this paper we show that the equational proofs about an imperative language may hide the state, in the same way as the syntax does.


## Introduction

The evolution of the state of the memory in an imperative program is a computational effect: the state is never mentioned as an argument or a result of a command, whereas in general it is used and modified during the execution of commands. Thus, the syntax of an imperative language does not mention explicitly the state, while its denotational semantics has to mention it. This means that the state is encapsulated: its interface, which is made of the functions for looking up and updating the values of the locations, is separated from its implementation; the state cannot be accessed in any other way than through his interface. In this paper we show that equational proofs in an imperative language may also encapsulate the state: proofs can be performed without any knowledge of the implementation of the state. We will see that a naive approach (called "apparent") cannot deal with the updating of states, while this becomes possible with a slightly more sophisticated approach (called "decorated"). This is expressed in an algebraic framework relying on category theory. To our knowledge, the first categorical treatment of computational effects, using monads, is due to Moggi Moggi 1991. The examples proposed by Moggi include the side-effects monad $T(A)=(A \times S t)^{S t}$ where $S t$ is the set of states. Later on, Plotkin and Power used Lawvere theories for dealing with the operations and equations related to computational effects. The Lawvere theory for the side-effects monad involves seven equations Plotkin \& Power 2002]. In Section 1 we describe the intended denotational semantics of states. Then in Section 2 we introduce three variants of the equational logic for formalizing the computational effects due to the states: the apparent, decorated an explicit logics. This approach is illustrated in Section 3 by proving some of the equations from [Plotkin \& Power 2002], using rules which do not mention any type of states.

## 1 Motivations

This section is made of three independent parts. Section 1.1 is devoted to the semantics of states, an example is presented in Section 1.2 and our logical framework is described in Section 1.3 ,

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### 1.1 Semantics of states

This section deals with the denotational semantics of states, by providing a set-valued interpretation of the lookup and update operations. Let St denote the set of states. Let Loc denote the set of locations (also called variables or identifiers). For each location $i$, let $V a l i_{i}$ denote the set of possible values for $i$. For each location $i$ there is a lookup function for reading the value of location $i$ in the given state, without modifying this state: this corresponds to a function lookup $i_{i, 1}: S t \rightarrow V a l_{i}$ or equivalently to a function lookup ${ }_{i}: S t \rightarrow V_{i} \times S t$ such that $\operatorname{lookup}_{i}(s)=\left\langle\operatorname{lookup}_{i, 1}(s), s\right\rangle$ for each state $s$. In addition, for each location $i$ there is an update function update ${ }_{i}: V a l_{i} \times S t \rightarrow S t$ for setting the value of location $i$ to the given value, without modifying the values of the other locations in the given state. This is summarized as follows, for each $i \in L o c$ : a set $V a l_{i}$, two functions lookup $i_{i, 1}: S t \rightarrow V a l_{i}$ and update ${ }_{i}: V a l_{i} \times S t \rightarrow S t$, and equations (1):
(1.1) $\forall a \in \operatorname{Val}_{i}, \forall s \in S t$, lookup $_{i, 1}\left(\right.$ update $\left._{i}(a, s)\right)=a$,
(1.2) $\forall a \in \operatorname{Val}_{i}, \forall s \in S t$, lookup $_{j, 1}\left(\operatorname{update}_{i}(a, s)\right)=\operatorname{lookup}_{j, 1}(s)$ for every $j \in L o c, j \neq i$.

The state can be observed thanks to the lookup functions. We may consider the tuple $\left\langle l o o k u p_{i, 1}\right\rangle_{i \in L o c}$ : $S t \rightarrow \prod_{i \in L o c} V a l_{i}$. If this function is an isomorphism, then Equations (1) provide a definition of the update functions. In Plotkin \& Power 2002] an equational presentation of states is given, with seven equations: in Remark 1.1 these equations are expressed according to Melliès 2010 and they are translated in our framework. We use the notations $l_{i}=\operatorname{lookup}_{i}: S t \rightarrow \operatorname{Val}_{i} \times S t, l_{i, 1}=\operatorname{lookup}_{i, 1}: S t \rightarrow \operatorname{Val}_{i}$ and $u_{i}=$ update $_{i}: V a l_{i} \times S t \rightarrow S t$, and in addition $i d_{i}: V a l_{i} \rightarrow V a l_{i}$ and $q_{i}: V a l_{i} \times S t \rightarrow S t$ respectively denote the identity of $V a l_{i}$ and the projection, while $\operatorname{perm}_{i, j}: V a l_{j} \times V a l_{i} \times S t \rightarrow V a l_{i} \times V a l_{j} \times S t$ permutes its first and second arguments.

Remark 1.1. The equations in Plotkin \& Power 2002 can be expressed as the following Equations (2):
(2.1) Annihilation lookup-update. Reading the value of a location $i$ and then updating the location $i$ with the obtained value is just like doing nothing.
$\forall i \in L o c, \forall s \in S t, \quad u_{i}\left(l_{i}(s)\right)=s \in S t$
(2.2) Interaction lookup-lookup. Reading twice the same location loc is the same as reading it once. $\forall i \in L o c, \forall s \in S t, \quad l_{i}\left(q_{i}\left(l_{i}(s)\right)\right)=l_{i}(s) \in \operatorname{Val}_{i} \times S t$
(2.3) Interaction update-update. Storing $a$ value $a$ and then a value $a^{\prime}$ at the same location $i$ is just like storing the value $a^{\prime}$ in the location.
$\forall i \in L o c, \forall s \in S t, \forall a, a^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Val}_{i}, u_{i}\left(a^{\prime}, u_{i}(a, s)\right)=u_{i}\left(a^{\prime}, s\right) \in S t$
(2.4) Interaction update-lookup. When one stores a value a in a location $i$ and then reads the location $i$, one gets the value $a$. $\forall i \in L o c, \forall s \in S t, \forall a \in \operatorname{Val}_{i}, \quad l_{i, 1}\left(u_{i}(a, s)\right)=a \in V a l_{i}$
(2.5) Commutation lookup-lookup. The order of reading two different locations $i$ and $j$ does not matter. $\forall i \neq j \in L o c, \forall s \in S t, \quad\left(i d_{i} \times l_{j}\right)\left(l_{i}(s)\right)=\operatorname{perm}_{i, j}\left(\left(i d_{j} \times l_{i}\right)\left(l_{j}(s)\right)\right) \in \operatorname{Val}_{i} \times \operatorname{Val}_{j} \times S t$
(2.6) Commutation update-update. The order of storing in two different locations $i$ and $j$ does not matter. $\forall i \neq j \in L o c, \forall s \in S t, \forall a \in \operatorname{Val}_{i}, \forall b \in \operatorname{Val}_{j}, u_{j}\left(b, u_{i}(a, s)\right)=u_{i}\left(a, u_{j}(b, s)\right) \in S t$
(2.7) Commutation update-lookup. The order of storing in a location $i$ and reading in another location $j$ does not matter. $\forall i \neq j \in L o c, \forall s \in S t, \forall a \in \operatorname{Val}_{i}, l_{j}\left(u_{i}(a, s)\right)=\left(i d_{j} \times u_{i}\right)\left(\operatorname{perm}_{j, i}\left(a, l_{j}(s)\right)\right) \in \operatorname{Val}_{j} \times S t$

Proposition 1.2. Let us assume that $\left\langle l_{i, 1}\right\rangle_{i \in L o c}: S t \rightarrow \prod_{i \in L o c} V a l_{i}$ is invertible. Then Equations (1) are equivalent to Equations (2).

Proof. It may be observed that (2.4) is exactly (1.1). In addition, (2.7) is equivalent to (1.2) : indeed, (2.7) is equivalent to the conjunction of its projection on $V a l_{j}$ and its projection on $S t$; the first one is $l_{j, 1}\left(u_{i}(a, s)\right)=l_{j, 1}(s)$, which is (1.2), and the second one is $u_{i}(a, s)=u_{i}(a, s)$. Equations (2.2) and (2.5) follow from $q_{i}\left(l_{i}(s)\right)=s$. For the remaining equations (2.1), (2.3) and (2.6), which return states, it is easy to check that for each location $k$, by applying $l_{k}$ to both members and using equation (1.1) or (1.2) according to $k$, we get the same value in $\operatorname{Val}_{k}$ for both hand-sides. Then equations (2.1), (2.3) and (2.6) follow from the fact that $\left\langle l_{i, 1}\right\rangle_{i \in L o c}: S t \rightarrow \prod_{i \in L o c} V a l_{i}$ is invertible.

Proposition 1.2 will be revisited in Section 3, where it will be proved that equations (1) imply equations (2) without ever mentioning explicitly the state in the proof.

### 1.2 Computational effects: an example

In an informal way, we consider that a computational effect occurs when there is an apparent mismatch, i.e., some lack of soundness, between the syntax and the denotational semantics of a language. For instance in an object-oriented language, the state of an object does not appear explicitly as an argument nor as a result of any of its methods. In this section, as a toy example, we build a class BankAccount for managing (very simple!) bank accounts. We use the types int and void, and we assume that int is interpreted by the set of integers $\mathbb{Z}$ and void by a singleton $\{\star\}$. In the class BankAccount, there is a method balance() which returns the current balance of the account and a method deposit ( x ) for the deposit of x Euros on the account. The deposit method is a modifier, which means that it can use and modify the state of the current account. The balance method is an inspector, or an accessor, which means that it can use the state of the current account but it is not allowed to modify this state. In the object-oriented language C++, a method is called a member function; by default a member function is a modifier, when it is an accessor it is called a constant member function and the keyword const is used. So, the C++ syntax for declaring the member functions of the class BankAccount looks like:

```
int balance () const ;
void deposit (int);
```

- Forgetting the keyword const, this piece of C++ syntax can be translated as a signature Bank $\mathrm{app}^{\text {app }}$, which we call the apparent signature (we use the word "apparent" in the sense of "seeming" i.e., "appearing as such but not necessarily so").

$$
B a n k_{\text {app }}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { balance }: \text { void } \rightarrow \text { int } \\
\text { deposit }: \text { int } \rightarrow \text { void }
\end{array}\right.
$$

In a model (or algebra) of the signature $B a n k_{\text {app }}$, the operations would be interpreted as functions:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
{[[\text { balance }]]:\{\star\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}} \\
{[[\text { deposit }]]: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow\{\star\}}
\end{array}\right.
$$

which clearly is not the intended interpretation.

- In order to get the right semantics, we may use another signature Bank $k_{\text {expl }}$, which we call the explicit signature, with a new symbol state for the "type of states":

$$
B a n k_{\text {expl }}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { balance }: \text { state } \rightarrow \text { int } \\
\text { deposit }: \text { int } \times \text { state } \rightarrow \text { state }
\end{array}\right.
$$

The intended interpretation is a model of the explicit signature Bank $\operatorname{expl}$, with $S t$ denoting the set of states of a bank account:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
{[[\text { balance }]]: S t \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}} \\
{[[\text { deposit }]]: \mathbb{Z} \times S t \rightarrow S t}
\end{array}\right.
$$

So far, in this example, we have considered two different signatures. On the one hand, the apparent signature $B a n k_{\text {app }}$ is simple and quite close to the C++ code, but the intended semantics is not a model of Bank app. On the other hand, the semantics is a model of the explicit signature $B a n k_{\text {expl }}$, but $B a n k_{\text {expl }}$ is far from the C++ syntax: actually, the very nature of the object-oriented language is lost by introducing a "type of states". Let us now define a decorated signature Bank ${ }_{\text {deco }}$, which is still closer to the C++ code than the apparent signature and which has a model corresponding to the intended semantics. The decorated signature is not exactly a signature in the classical sense, because there is a classification of its operations. This classification is provided by superscripts called decorations: the decorations (1) and (2) correspond respectively to the object-oriented notions of accessor and modifier.

$$
\operatorname{Bank}_{\text {deco }}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { balance } \\
\text { deposit }^{(2)}: \text { void } \rightarrow \text { int } \\
\text { int } \rightarrow \text { void }
\end{array}\right.
$$

The decorated signature is similar to the C++ code, with the decoration (1) corresponding to the keyword const. The apparent specification $B a n k_{\text {app }}$ may be recovered from $B a n k_{\text {deco }}$ by dropping the decorations. In addition, we claim that the intended semantics can be seen as a decorated model of this decorated signature: this will become clear in Section 2.3. In order to add to the signature constants of type int like 0, 1, 2, $\ldots$ and the usual operations on integers, a third decoration is used: the decoration ( 0 ) for pure functions, which means, for functions which neither inspect nor modify the state of the bank account. So, we add to the apparent and explicit signatures the constants $0,1, \ldots$ void $\rightarrow$ int and the operations,,$+- *$ : int $\times$ int $\rightarrow$ int, and we add to the decorated signature the pure constants $0^{(0)}, 1^{(0)}, \ldots$ void $\rightarrow$ int and the pure operations $+^{(0)},-^{(0)}, *^{(0)}$ : int $\times$ int $\rightarrow$ int. For instance the $\mathrm{C}++$ expressions

$$
\text { deposit(7); balance() and } 7+\text { balance() }
$$

can be seen as the decorated terms:

$$
\text { balance }{ }^{(1)} \circ \operatorname{deposit}^{(2)} \circ 7^{(0)} \text { and }+^{(0)} \circ\left\langle 7^{(0)}, \text { balance }{ }^{(1)}\right\rangle
$$

which may be illustrated as:


These two decorated terms have different effects: the first one does modify the state while the second one is an accessor; however, both return the same integer. Let us introduce the symbol $\sim$ for the relation "same result, maybe distinct effects". Then:

$$
\text { balance }{ }^{(1)} \circ \operatorname{deposit}^{(2)} \circ 7^{(0)} \sim \quad+^{(0)} \circ\left\langle 7^{(0)}, \text { balance }^{(1)}\right\rangle
$$

### 1.3 Diagrammatic logics

In this paper, in order to deal with a relevant notion of morphisms between logics, we define a logic as a diagrammatic logic, in the sense of Domínguez \& Duval 2010. For the purpose of this paper let us simply say that a logic $\mathcal{L}$ determines a category of theories $\mathbf{T}$ which is cocomplete, and that a morphism of logics is a left adjoint functor, so that it preserves the colimits. The objects of $\mathbf{T}$ are called the a theories of the $\operatorname{logic} \mathcal{L}$. Quite often, $\mathbf{T}$ is a category of structured categories. The inference rules of the logic $\mathcal{L}$ describe the structure of its theories. When a theory $\Phi$ is generated by some presentation or specification $\Sigma$, a model of $\Sigma$ with values in a theory $\Theta$ is a morphism $M: \Phi \rightarrow \Theta$ in $\mathbf{T}$.

The monadic equational logic．For instance，and for future use in the paper，here is the way we describe the monadic equational logic $\mathcal{L}_{\text {meqn }}$ ．In order to focus on the syntactic aspect of the theories，we use a congruence symbol＂$\equiv$＂rather than the equality symbol＂$=$＂．Roughly speaking，a monadic equational theory is a sort of category where the axioms hold only up to congruence（in fact，it is a 2 －category）．Precisely， a monadic equational theory is a directed graph（its vertices are called objects or types and its edges are called morphisms or terms）with an identity term $i d_{X}: X \rightarrow X$ for each type $X$ and a composed term $g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z$ for each pair of consecutive terms $(f: X \rightarrow Y, g: Y \rightarrow Z)$ ；in addition it is endowed with equations $f \equiv g: X \rightarrow Y$ which form a congruence，which means，an equivalence relation on parallel terms compatible with the composition；this compatibility can be split in two parts：substitution and replacement． In addition，the associativity and identity axioms hold up to congruence．These properties of the monadic equational theories can be described by a set of inference rules，as in Figure 1 ．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (id) } \frac{X}{i d_{X}: X \rightarrow X} \quad \text { (comp) } \frac{f: X \rightarrow Y \quad g: Y \rightarrow Z}{g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z} \\
& \text { (id-src) } \frac{f: X \rightarrow Y}{f \circ i d_{X} \equiv f} \quad(\text { id-tgt }) \frac{f: X \rightarrow Y}{i d_{Y} \circ f \equiv f} \quad(\text { assoc }) \frac{f: X \rightarrow Y \quad g: Y \rightarrow Z \quad h: Z \rightarrow W}{h \circ(g \circ f) \equiv(h \circ g) \circ f} \\
& \text { (三-refl) } \frac{(\equiv-\text { sym }) \frac{f \equiv g}{g \equiv f} \quad(\equiv-\text { trans }) \frac{f \equiv g \quad g \equiv h}{f \equiv h}, ~}{f \equiv f} \\
& \text { (三-subs) } \frac{f: X \rightarrow Y \quad g_{1} \equiv g_{2}: Y \rightarrow Z}{g_{1} \circ f \equiv g_{2} \circ f: X \rightarrow Z} \quad \text { (三-repl) } \frac{f_{1} \equiv f_{2}: X \rightarrow Y \quad g: Y \rightarrow Z}{g \circ f_{1} \equiv g \circ f_{2}: X \rightarrow Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 1：Rules of the monadic equational logic

Adding products to the monadic equational logic．In contrast with equational theories，the existence of products is not required in a monadic equational theory．However some specific products may exist．A product in a monadic equational theory $\mathbf{T}$ is＂up to congruence＂，in the following sense．Let $\left(Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of objects in $\mathbf{T}$ ，indexed by some set $I$ ．A product with base $\left(Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ is a cone $\left(q_{i}: Y \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ such that for every cone $\left(f_{i}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ on the same base there is a term $f=\left\langle f_{i}\right\rangle_{i \in I}: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $q_{i} \circ f \equiv f_{i}$ for each $i$ ，and in addition this term is unique up to congruence，in the sense that if $g: X \rightarrow Y$ is such that $q_{i} \circ g \equiv f_{i}$ for each $i$ then $g \equiv f$ ．When $I$ is empty，we get a terminal object $\mathbb{1}$ ，such that for every $X$ there is an arrow $\left\rangle_{X}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}\right.$ which is unique up to congruence．The corresponding inference rules are given in Figure 2 The quantification＂$\forall i$＂，or＂$\forall i \in I$＂，is a kind of＂syntactic sugar＂：when occuring in the premisses of a rule it stands for a conjunction of premisses．

## 2 Three logics for states

In this section we introduce three logics for dealing with states as computational effects．This generalizes the example of the bank account in Section 1．2．We present first the explicit logic（close to the semantics）， then the apparent logic（close to the syntax），and finally the decorated logic and the morphisms from the decorated logic to the apparent and the explicit ones．In the syntax of an imperative language there is no type of states（the state is＂hidden＂）while the interpretation of this language involves a set of states St． More precisely，if the types $X$ and $Y$ are interpreted as the sets $[[X]]$ and $[[Y]]$ ，then each term $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is interpreted as a function $[[f]]:[[X]] \times S t \rightarrow[[Y]] \times S t$ ．In Moggi＇s paper introducing monads for effects Moggi 1991 such a term $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is called a computation，and whenever the function $[[f]]$ is $[[f]]_{0} \times i d_{S t}$ for some $[[f]]_{0}:[[X]] \rightarrow[[Y]]$ then $f$ is called a value．We keep this distinction，using modifier and pure

When $\left(q_{i}: Y \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ is a product:

$$
\text { (tuple) } \left.\frac{\left(f_{i}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}}{\left\langle f_{i}\right\rangle_{i}: X \rightarrow Y} \quad \text { (tuple-proj- } i\right) \frac{\left(f_{i}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}}{q_{i} \circ\left\langle f_{j}\right\rangle_{j} \equiv f_{i}} \quad \text { (tuple-unique) } \frac{g: X \rightarrow Y \quad \forall i q_{i} \circ g \equiv f_{i}}{g \equiv\left\langle f_{j}\right\rangle_{j}}
$$

When $\mathbb{1}$ is a terminal type ("empty product"):

$$
\text { (final) } \frac{X}{\left\rangle_{X}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}\right.} \quad \text { (final-unique) } \frac{g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}}{g \equiv\left\rangle_{X}\right.}
$$

Figure 2: Rules for products
term instead of computation and value, respectively. In addition, an accessor (or inspector) is a term $f: X \rightarrow Y$ that is interpreted by a function $[[f]]=\left\langle[[f]]_{1}, q_{X}\right\rangle$, for some $[[f]]_{1}:[[X]] \times S t \rightarrow[[Y]]$, where $q_{X}:[[X]] \times S t \rightarrow S t$ is the projection. It follows that every pure term is an accessor and every accessor is a modifier. We will respectively use the decorations (0), (1) and (2), written as superscripts, for pure terms, accessors and modifiers. Moreover, we distinguish two kinds of equations: when $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ are parallel terms, then a strong equation $f \equiv g$ is interpreted as the equality $[[f]]=[[g]]:[[X]] \times S t \rightarrow[[Y]] \times S t$, while a weak equation $f \sim g$ is interpreted as the equality $p_{Y} \circ[[f]]=p_{Y} \circ[[g]]:[[X]] \times S t \rightarrow[[Y]]$, where $p_{Y}:[[Y]] \times S t \rightarrow[[Y]]$ is the projection. Clearly, strong and weak equations coincide on accessors and on pure terms, while they differ on modifiers. As in Section 1.1 we consider some given set of locations Loc and for each location $i$ a set $V a l_{i}$ of possible values for $i$. The set of states is defined as $S t=\prod_{i \in L o c} V a l_{i}$, and the projections are denoted by lookup $i_{1,1}: S t \rightarrow V a l_{i}$. For each location $i$, let update ${ }_{i}: V a l_{i} \times S t \rightarrow S t$ be defined by Equations (1) as in Section 1.1. In order to focus on the fundamental properties of states as effects, the three logics for states are based on the "poor" monadic equational logic (as described in Section 1.3).

### 2.1 The explicit logic for states

The explicit logic for states $\mathcal{L}_{\text {expl }}$ is a kind of "pointed" monadic equational logic: a theory $\Theta_{\text {expl }}$ for $\mathcal{L}_{\text {expl }}$ is a monadic equational theory with a distinguished object $S$, called the type of states, and with a product-with- $S$ functor $X \times S$. As in Section 1.2, the explicit logic provides the relevant semantics, but it is far from the syntax. The explicit theory for states $S_{t a t e}$ expl is generated by a type $V_{i}$ and an operation $l_{i, 1}: S \rightarrow V_{i}$ for each location $i$, which form a product $\left(l_{i, 1}: S \rightarrow V_{i}\right)_{i \in L o c}$. Thus, for each location $i$ there is an operation $u_{i}: V_{i} \times S \rightarrow S$, unique up to congruence, which satisfies the equations below (where $p_{i}: V_{i} \times S \rightarrow V_{i}$ and $q_{i}: V_{i} \times S \rightarrow S$ are the projections):

$$
\text { State }_{\text {expl }}: \begin{cases}\text { operations } & l_{i, 1}: S \rightarrow V_{i}, u_{i}: V_{i} \times S \rightarrow S \\ \text { product } & \left(l_{i, 1}: S \rightarrow V_{i}\right)_{i \in L o c} \\ \text { equations } & l_{i, 1} \circ u_{i} \equiv p_{i}: V_{i} \times S \rightarrow V_{i}, l_{j, 1} \circ u_{i} \equiv l_{j, 1} \circ q_{i}: V_{i} \times S \rightarrow V_{j} \text { for each } j \neq i\end{cases}
$$

Let us define the explicit theory $S e t_{\text {expl }}$ as the category of sets with the equality as congruence and with the set of states $S t=\prod_{j \in L o c} V a l_{j}$ as its distinguished set. The semantics of states, as described in Section 1.1, is the model $M_{\text {expl }}: S t a t e_{\text {expl }} \rightarrow S e t_{\text {expl }}$ which maps the type $V_{i}$ to the set $V a l_{i}$ for each $i \in L o c$, the type $S$ to the set $S t$, and the operations $l_{i, 1}$ and $u_{i}$ to the functions lookup $i_{i, 1}$ and update ${ }_{i}$, respectively.

### 2.2 The apparent logic for states

The apparent logic for states $\mathcal{L}_{\text {app }}$ is the monadic equational logic (Section 1.3). As in Section 1.2, the apparent logic is close to the syntax but it does not provide the relevant semantics. The apparent theory for
states State $_{\text {app }}$ can be obtained from the explicit theory $S^{\text {State }}{ }_{\text {expl }}$ by identifying the type of states $S$ with the unit type $\mathbb{1}$. So, there is in $S_{\text {Sate }}^{\text {app }}$ a terminal type $\mathbb{1}$ and for each location $i$ a type $V_{i}$ for the possible values of $i$ and an operation $l_{i}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}$ for observing the value of $i$. A set-valued model for this part of State $_{\text {app }}$, with the constraint that for each $i$ the interpretation of $V_{i}$ is the given set $V a l_{i}$, is made of an element $a_{i} \in V a l_{i}$ for each $i$ (it is the image of the interpretation of $l_{i}$ ). Thus, such a model corresponds to a state, made of a value for each location; this is known as the states-as-models or states-as-algebras point of view Gaudel et al. 1996. In addition, it is assumed that in State $_{\text {app }}$ the operations $l_{i}$ 's form a product $\left(l_{i}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}\right)_{i \in L o c}$. This assumption implies that each $l_{i}$ is an isomorphism, so that each $V_{i}$ must be interpreted as a singleton: this does not fit with the semantics of states. However, we will see in Section 2.3 that this assumption becomes meaningful when decorations are added, in a similar way as in the bank example in Section 1.2 Formally, the assumption that $\left(l_{i}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}\right)_{i \in L o c}$ is a product provides for each location $i$ an operation $u_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow \mathbb{1}$, unique up to congruence, which satisfies the equations below (where $i d_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow V_{i}$ is the identity and $\left\rangle_{i}=\langle \rangle_{V_{i}}: V_{i} \rightarrow \mathbb{1}\right):$

$$
\text { State }_{\text {app }}: \begin{cases}\text { operations } & l_{i}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}, u_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow \mathbb{1} \\ \text { product } & \left(l_{i}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}\right)_{i \in L o c} \text { with terminal type } \mathbb{1} \\ \text { equations } & l_{i} \circ u_{i} \equiv i d_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow V_{i}, l_{j} \circ u_{i} \equiv l_{j} \circ\langle \rangle_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow V_{j} \text { for each } j \neq i\end{cases}
$$

At first view, these equations mean that after $u_{i}(a)$ is executed, the value of $i$ is put to $a$ and the value of $j$ (for $j \neq i$ ) is unchanged. However, as noted above, this intuition is not supported by the semantics in the apparent logic. We will see in Section 2.3 that these equations become sound when relevant decorations are added, so that the apparent logic can be used for checking the validity of a decorated proof, as explained in Section 2.4

### 2.3 The decorated logic for states

Now, as in Section 1.2, we introduce a third logic for states, which is close to the syntax and which provides the relevant semantics. It is defined by adding "decorations" to the apparent logic. A theory $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ for the decorated logic for states $\mathcal{L}_{\text {deco }}$ is made of:

- A monadic equational theory $\Theta^{(2)}$. The terms in $\Theta^{(2)}$ may be called the modifiers and the equations $f \equiv g$ may be called the strong equations.
- Two additional monadic equational theories $\Theta^{(0)}$ and $\Theta^{(1)}$, with the same types as $\Theta^{(2)}$, and such that $\Theta^{(0)} \subseteq \Theta^{(1)} \subseteq \Theta^{(2)}$ and the congruence on $\Theta^{(0)}$ and on $\Theta^{(1)}$ is the restriction of the congruence on $\Theta^{(2)}$. The terms in $\Theta^{(1)}$ may be called the accessors, and if they are in $\Theta^{(0)}$ they may be called the pure terms.
- A second equivalence relation $\sim$ between parallel terms in $\Theta^{(2)}$, which is only "weakly" compatible with the composition; the relation $\sim$ satisfies the substitution property but only a weak version of the replacement property, called the pure replacement: if $f_{1} \sim f_{2}: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ then in general $g \circ f_{1} \nsim g \circ f_{2}$, except when $g$ is pure. The relations $f \sim g$ are called the weak equations. It is assumed that every strong equation is a weak equation and that every weak equation between accessors is a strong equation, so that the relations $\equiv$ and $\sim$ coincide on $\Theta^{(0)}$ and on $\Theta^{(1)}$.

We use the following notations, called decorations: a pure term $f$ is denoted $f^{(0)}$, an accessor $f$ is denoted $f^{(1)}$, and a modifier $f$ is denoted $f^{(2)}$; this last decoration is unnecessary since every term is a modifier, however it may be used for emphasizing. Figure 3 provides the decorated rules, which describe the properties of the decorated theories. For readability, the decoration properties may be grouped with other properties: for instance, " $f^{(1)} \sim g^{(1)}$ " means " $f^{(1)}$ and $g^{(1)}$ and $f \sim g$ ".

Some specific kinds of products may be used in a decorated theory, for instance:

- A distinguished type $\mathbb{1}$ with the following decorated terminality property: for each type $X$ there is a pure term $\left\rangle_{X}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}\right.$ such that every modifier $g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}$ satisfies $g \sim\left\rangle_{X}\right.$. It follows from the properties of weak equations that $\mathbb{1}$ is a terminal type in $\Theta^{(0)}$ and in $\Theta^{(1)}$.

Rules of the monadic equational logic, and:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (0-\mathrm{id}) \frac{X}{i d_{X}^{(0)}: X \rightarrow X} \quad(0-\mathrm{comp}) \frac{f^{(0)} g^{(0)}}{(g \circ f)^{(0)}} \quad\left(0 \text {-to-1) } \frac{f^{(0)}}{f^{(1)}} \quad \text { (1-comp) } \frac{f^{(1)} g^{(1)}}{(g \circ f)^{(1)}}\right. \\
& \text { (1-~-to- } \equiv) \frac{f^{(1)} \sim g^{(1)}}{f \equiv g} \quad(\equiv-\text { to- } \sim) \frac{f \equiv g}{f \sim g} \\
& \text { (~-refl) } \frac{}{f \sim f} \quad(\sim \text {-sym }) \frac{f \sim g}{g \sim f} \quad(\sim \text {-trans }) \frac{f \sim g \quad g \sim h}{f \sim h} \\
& \text { (~-subs) } \frac{f: X \rightarrow Y \quad g_{1} \sim g_{2}: Y \rightarrow Z}{g_{1} \circ f \sim g_{2} \circ f: X \rightarrow Z} \quad(0-\sim-r e p l) \frac{f_{1} \sim f_{2}: X \rightarrow Y \quad g^{(0)}: Y \rightarrow Z}{g \circ f_{1} \sim g \circ f_{2}: X \rightarrow Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 3: Rules of the decorated logic for states

- An observational product with base $\left(Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ is a cone of accessors $\left(q_{i}: Y \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ such that for every cone of accessors $\left(f_{i}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ on the same base there is a modifier $f=\left\langle f_{i}\right\rangle_{i \in I}: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $q_{i} \circ f \sim f_{i}$ for each $i$, and in addition this modifier is unique up to strong equations, in the sense that if $g: X \rightarrow Y$ is a modifier such that $q_{i} \circ g \sim f_{i}$ for each $i$ then $g \equiv f$. An observational product allows to prove strong equations from weak ones: by looking at the results of some observations, thanks to the properties of the observational product, we get information on the state.

When $\mathbb{1}$ is a decorated terminal type:

$$
\text { (0-final) } \frac{X}{\left\rangle_{X}^{(0)}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}\right.} \quad \text { (~-final-unique) } \frac{g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}}{g \sim\left\rangle_{X}\right.}
$$

When $\left(q_{i}^{(1)}: Y \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}$ is an observational product: (obs-tuple) $\frac{\left(f_{i}^{(1)}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}}{\left\langle f_{i}\right\rangle_{i}^{(2)}: X \rightarrow Y}$
(obs-tuple-proj- $i) \frac{\left(f_{i}^{(1)}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}}{q_{i} \circ\left\langle f_{j}\right\rangle_{j} \sim f_{i}} \quad$ (obs-tuple-unique) $\frac{g^{(2)}: X \rightarrow Y \forall i q_{i} \circ g \sim f_{i}^{(1)}}{g \equiv\left\langle f_{j}\right\rangle_{j}}$

Figure 4: Rules for some decorated products for states
The decorated theory of states $S_{\text {State }}^{\text {deco }}$ is generated by a type $V_{i}$ and an accessor $l_{i}^{(1)}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}$ for each $i \in L o c$, which form an observational product $\left(l_{i}^{(1)}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}\right)_{i \in L o c}$. The modifiers $u_{i}$ 's are defined (up to strong equations), using the property of the observational product, by the weak equations below:

$$
\text { State }_{\text {deco }}: \begin{cases}\text { operations } & l_{i}^{(1)}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}, u_{i}^{(2)}: V_{i} \rightarrow \mathbb{1} \\ \text { observational product } & \left(l_{i}^{(1)}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}\right)_{i \in L o c} \quad \text { with decorated terminal type } \mathbb{1} \\ \text { equations } & l_{i} \circ u_{i} \sim i d_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow V_{i}, l_{j} \circ u_{i} \sim l_{j} \circ\langle \rangle_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow V_{j} \text { for each } j \neq i\end{cases}
$$

The decorated theory of sets $S_{\text {deco }}$ is built from the category of sets, as follows. There is in $S e t_{\text {deco }}$ a type for each set, a modifier $f^{(2)}: X \rightarrow Y$ for each function $f: X \times S t \rightarrow Y \times S t$, an accessor $f^{(1)}: X \rightarrow Y$
for each function $f: X \times S t \rightarrow Y$, and a pure term $f^{(0)}: X \rightarrow Y$ for each function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, with the straightforward conversions. Let $f^{(2)}, g^{(2)}: X \rightarrow Y$ corresponding to $f, g: X \times S t \rightarrow Y \times S t$. A strong equation $f \equiv g$ is an equality $f=g: X \times S t \rightarrow Y \times S t$, while a weak equation $f \sim g$ is an equality $p \circ f=p \circ g: X \times S t \rightarrow Y$, where $p: Y \times S t \rightarrow Y$ is the projection. For each location $i$ the projection lookup $: S t \rightarrow \operatorname{Val}_{i}$ corresponds to an accessor lookup ${ }_{i}^{(1)}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow \operatorname{Val}_{i}$ in Set $_{\text {deco }}$, so that the family $\left(\text { lookup }_{i}^{(1)}\right)_{i \in L o c}$ forms an observational product in $S e t_{\text {deco }}$. We get a model $M_{\text {deco }}$ of State ${ }_{\text {deco }}$ with values in $S_{\text {Seco }}$ by mapping the type $V_{i}$ to the set $V a l_{i}$ and the accessor $l_{i}^{(1)}$ to the accessor lookup ${ }_{i}^{(1)}$, for each $i \in L o c$. Then for each $i$ the modifier $u_{i}^{(2)}$ is mapped to the modifier update $e_{i}^{(2)}$.

### 2.4 From decorated to apparent

Every decorated theory $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ gives rise to an apparent theory $\Theta_{\text {app }}$ by dropping the decorations, which means that the apparent theory $\Theta_{\text {app }}$ is made of a type $X$ for each type $X$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$, a term $f: X \rightarrow Y$ for each modifier $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ (which includes the accessors and the pure terms), and an equation $f \equiv g$ for each weak equation $f \sim g$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ (which includes the strong equations). Thus, the distinction between modifiers, accessors and pure terms disappears, as well as the distinction between weak and strong equations. Equivalently, the apparent theory $\Theta_{\text {app }}$ can be defined as the apparent theory $\Theta^{(2)}$ together with an equation $f \equiv g$ for each weak equation $f \sim g$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ which is not associated to a strong equation in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ (otherwise, it is yet in $\Theta^{(2)}$ ). Thus, a decorated terminal type in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ becomes a terminal type in $\Theta_{\text {app }}$ and an observational product $\left(q_{i}^{(1)}: Y \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ becomes a product $\left(q_{i}: Y \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}$ in $\Theta_{\text {app }}$. In the same way, each rule of the decorated logic is mapped to a rule of the apparent logic by dropping the decorations. This property can be used for checking a decorated proof in two steps, by checking on one side the undecorated proof and on the other side the decorations. This construction of $\Theta_{\text {app }}$ from $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$, by dropping the decorations, is a morphism from $\mathcal{L}_{\text {deco }}$ to $\mathcal{L}_{\text {app }}$, denoted $F_{\text {app }}$.

### 2.5 From decorated to explicit

Every decorated theory $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ gives rise to an explicit theory $\Theta_{\text {expl }}$ by expanding the decorations, which means that the explicit theory $\Theta_{\text {expl }}$ is made of:

- A type $X$ for each type $X$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$; projections are denoted by $p_{X}: X \times S \rightarrow X$ and $q_{X}: X \times S \rightarrow S$.
- A term $f: X \times S \rightarrow Y \times S$ for each modifier $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$, such that:
- if $f$ is an accessor then there is a term $f_{1}: X \times S \rightarrow Y$ in $\Theta_{\text {expl }}$ such that $f=\left\langle f_{1}, q_{X}\right\rangle$,
- if moreover $f$ is a pure term then there is a term $f_{0}: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\Theta_{\text {expl }}$ such that $f_{1}=f_{0} \circ p_{X}$ : $X \times S \rightarrow Y$, hence $f=\left\langle f_{0} \circ p_{X}, q_{X}\right\rangle=f_{0} \times i d_{S}$ in $\Theta_{\operatorname{expl}}$.
- An equation $f \equiv g: X \times S \rightarrow Y \times S$ for each strong equation $f \equiv g: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$.
- An equation $p_{Y} \circ f \equiv p_{Y} \circ g: X \times S \rightarrow Y$ for each weak equation $f \sim g: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$.
- A product $\left(q_{i, 1}: Y \times S \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}$ for each observational product $\left(q_{i}^{(1)}: Y \rightarrow Y_{i}\right)_{i}$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$.

This construction of $\Theta_{\text {expl }}$ from $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ is a morphism from $\mathcal{L}_{\text {deco }}$ to $\mathcal{L}_{\text {expl }}$, denoted $F_{\text {expl }}$ and called the expansion. The expansion morphism makes explicit the meaning of the decorations, by introducing a "type of states" $S$. Thus, each modifier $f^{(2)}$ gives rise to a term $f$ which may use and modify the state, while whenever $f^{(1)}$ is an accessor then $f$ may use the state but is not allowed to modify it, and when moreover $f^{(0)}$ is a pure term then $f$ may neither use nor modify the state. When $f^{(2)} \equiv g^{(2)}$ then $f$ and $g$ must return the same result and the same state; when $f^{(2)} \sim g^{(2)}$ then $f$ and $g$ must return the same result but maybe not the same state. We have seen that the semantics of states cannot be described in the apparent logic, but can be described both in the decorated logic and in the explicit logic. It should be reminded that every morphism of logics is a left adjoint functor. This is the case for the expansion morphism $F_{\text {expl }}: \mathcal{L}_{\text {deco }} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text {expl }}$ :
it is a left adjoint functor $F_{\text {expl }}: \mathbf{T}_{\text {deco }} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\text {expl }}$, its right adjoint is denoted $G_{\text {expl }}$. In fact, it is easy to check that $\operatorname{Set}_{\text {deco }}=G_{\text {expl }}\left(\right.$ Set $\left._{\text {expl }}\right)$, and since State $_{\text {expl }}=F_{\text {expl }}\left(\right.$ State $\left._{\text {deco }}\right)$ it follows that the decorated model $M_{\text {deco }}:$ State $_{\text {deco }} \rightarrow$ Set $_{\text {deco }}$ and the explicit model $M_{\text {expl }}: S t a t e_{\text {expl }} \rightarrow$ Set $_{\text {expl }}$ are related by the adjunction $F_{\text {expl }} \dashv G_{\text {expl }}$. This means that the models $M_{\text {deco }}$ and $M_{\text {expl }}$ are two different ways to formalize the semantics of states from Section 1.1. In order to conclude Section 2 the morphims of logic $F_{\text {app }}$ and $F_{\text {expl }}$ are summarized in Figure 5

| $\Theta_{\text {app }}$ | $F_{\text {app }}$ |  | $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $f: X \rightarrow Y$ | modifier | $f: X \rightarrow Y$ | $f: X \times S \rightarrow Y \times S$ |
| expl |  |  |  |
| $f: X \rightarrow Y$ | accessor | $f^{(1)}: X \rightarrow Y$ | $f_{1}: X \times S \rightarrow Y$ |
| $f: X \rightarrow Y$ | pure term | $f^{(0)}: X \rightarrow Y$ | $f_{0}: X \rightarrow Y$ |
| $f \equiv g: X \rightarrow Y$ | strong equation | $f \equiv g: X \rightarrow Y$ | $f \equiv g: X \times S \rightarrow Y \times S$ |
| $f \equiv g: X \rightarrow Y$ | weak equation | $f \sim g: X \rightarrow Y$ | $p_{Y} \circ f \equiv p_{Y} \circ g: X \times S \rightarrow Y$ |

Figure 5: A span of logics for states

## 3 Decorated proofs

The inference rules of the decorated logic $\mathcal{L}_{\text {deco }}$ are now used for proving some of the Equations (2) (in Remark 1.1). All proofs in this section are performed in the decorated logic; for readability the identity and associativity rules (id-src), (id-tgt) and (assoc) are omitted. Some derived rules are proved in Section 3.1, then Equation (2.1) is proved in Section 3.2. In order to deal with the equations with two values as argument or as result, we use the semi-pure products introduced in Dumas et al. 2011a; the rules for semi-pure products are reminded in Section 3.3, then all seven Equations (2) are expressed in the decorated logic and Equation (2.6) is proved in Section 3.4. Proving the other equations would be similar. We use as axioms the fact that $l_{i}$ is an accessor and the weak equations in State $_{\text {deco }}$ (Section (2.3).

### 3.1 Some derived rules

Let us now derive some rules from the rules of the decorated logic (Figures 3 and 4).

Figure 6: Some derived rules in the decorated logic for states

Proof. The derived rules in the left part of Figure 6 can be proved as follows. The proof of the rules in the right part are left to the reader.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (1-\sim-\text { to- } \equiv) \frac{f^{(1)} \quad \begin{array}{r}
(0 \text {-final }) \\
(0 \text {-to-1 })
\end{array} \frac{X}{\langle \rangle_{X}^{(0)}}}{\left\rangle_{X}^{(1)}\right.} \quad(\sim \text {-final-unique }) \frac{f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}}{f \sim\left\rangle_{X}\right.}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (1-comp) } \frac{f^{(1)}: X \rightarrow Y \quad g^{(1)}: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{\mathbb { 1 }}}{\left(E_{2}^{(1)}\right) \frac{(g \circ f)^{(1)}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}}{g \circ f \equiv h\left(E_{3}^{(1)}\right)} \quad h^{(1)}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}} \\
& \left(E_{3}^{(1)}\right) \frac{f^{(1)}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow X \quad\left(0 \text {-to-1) } \frac{\lambda_{X}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}}{\langle \rangle_{X}^{(1)}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{1}}\right.}{\left\rangle_{X} \circ f \equiv i d_{\mathbb{1}}\left(E_{4}^{(1)}\right)\right.}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.2 Annihilation lookup-update

It is easy to check that the decorated equation $u_{i}^{(2)} \circ l_{i}^{(1)} \equiv i d_{1}^{(0)}$ gets expanded as $u_{i} \circ l_{i} \equiv i d_{S}$, which clearly gets interpreted as Equation (2.1) in Remark 1.1 Let us prove this decorated equation, using the axioms (for each location $i$ ), from State ${ }_{\text {deco }}$ in Section 2.3

$$
\left(A_{0}\right) l_{i}^{(1)}, \quad\left(A_{1}\right) l_{i} \circ u_{i} \sim i d_{i}, \quad\left(A_{2}\right) l_{j} \circ u_{i} \sim l_{j} \circ\langle \rangle_{i} \text { for each } j \neq i .
$$

Proposition 3.1. For each location $i$, reading the value of a location $i$ and then updating the location $i$ with the obtained value is just like doing nothing.

$$
u_{i}^{(2)} \circ l_{i}^{(1)} \equiv i d_{\mathbb{1}}^{(0)}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{1} .
$$

Proof. Let $i$ be a location. Using the unicity property of the observational product, we have to prove that $l_{k} \circ u_{i} \circ l_{i} \sim l_{k}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{k}$ for each location $k$.

- When $k=i$, the substitution rule for $\sim$ yields:

$$
(\sim-\text { subs }) \frac{\left(A_{1}\right) l_{i} \circ u_{i} \sim i d_{i}}{l_{i} \circ u_{i} \circ l_{i} \sim l_{i}}
$$

- When $k \neq i$, using the substitution rule for $\sim$ and the replacement rule for $\equiv$ we get:


### 3.3 Semi-pure products

Let $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ be a theory with respect to the decorated logic for states and let $\Theta^{(0)}$ be its pure part, so that $\Theta^{(0)}$ is a monadic equational theory. The product of two types $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ in $\Theta_{\text {deco }}$ is defined as their product in $\Theta^{(0)}$ (it is a product up to strong equations, as in Section 1.1). The projections from $X_{1} \times X_{2}$ to $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are respectively denoted by $\pi_{1}^{(0)}$ and $\pi_{2}^{(0)}$ (the types $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ will always be clear from the context). The product of two pure morphisms $f_{1}^{(0)}: X_{1} \rightarrow Y_{1}$ and $f_{2}^{(0)}: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}$ is a pure morphism $\left(f_{1} \times f_{2}\right)^{(0)}: X_{1} \times X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{1} \times Y_{2}$ subject to the rules in Figure 77 which are the usual rules for products up to strong equations. Moreover when $X_{1}$ or $X_{2}$ is $\mathbb{1}$ it can be proved in the usual way that the projections $\pi_{1}^{(0)}: X_{1} \times \mathbb{1} \rightarrow X_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}^{(0)}: \mathbb{1} \times X_{2} \rightarrow X_{2}$ are isomorphisms. The permutation $\operatorname{perm}_{X_{1}, X_{2}}^{(0)}: X_{1} \times X_{2} \rightarrow X_{2} \times X_{1}$ is defined as usual by $\pi_{1} \circ \operatorname{perm}_{X_{1}, X_{2}} \equiv \pi_{2}$ and $\pi_{2} \circ \operatorname{perm}_{X_{1}, X_{2}} \equiv \pi_{1}$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
(0-\text { prod }) \frac{f_{1}^{(0)}: X_{1} \rightarrow Y_{1} \quad f_{2}^{(0)}: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}}{\left(f_{1} \times f_{2}\right)^{(0)}: X_{1} \times X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{1} \times Y_{2}} \\
\text { (0-proj-1) } \frac{f_{1}^{(0)}: X_{1} \rightarrow Y_{1} \quad f_{2}^{(0)}: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}}{\pi_{1} \circ\left(f_{1} \times f_{2}\right) \equiv f_{1} \circ \pi_{1}} \quad\left(0-\text { proj-2) } \frac{f_{1}^{(0)}: X_{1} \rightarrow Y_{1} \quad f_{2}^{(0)}: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}}{\pi_{2} \circ\left(f_{1} \times f_{2}\right) \equiv f_{2} \circ \pi_{2}}\right. \\
\text { (0-prod-unique) } \frac{g^{(0)}: X_{1} \times X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{1} \times Y_{2} \quad \pi_{1} \circ g \equiv f_{1} \circ \pi_{1} \quad \pi_{2} \circ g \equiv f_{2} \circ \pi_{2}}{g \equiv f_{1} \times f_{2}} \\
\hline
\end{gathered}
$$

Figure 7: Rules for products of pure morphisms
The rules in Figure 7 , which are symmetric in $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$, cannot be applied to modifiers: indeed, the effect of building a pair of modifiers depends on the evaluation strategy. However, following Dumas et al. 2011a, we define the left semi-pure product of an identity $i d_{X}$ and a modifier $f: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}$, as a modifier $i d_{X} \ltimes f$ : $X \times X_{2} \rightarrow X \times Y_{2}$ subject to the rules in Figure 8, which form a decorated version of the rules for products. Symmetrically, the right semi-pure product of a modifier $f: X_{1} \rightarrow Y_{1}$ and an identity $i d_{X}$ is a modifier $f \rtimes i d_{X}: X_{1} \times X \rightarrow Y_{1} \times X$ subject to the rules symmetric to those in Figure 8

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\text { left-prod) } \frac{f^{(2)}: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}}{\left(i d_{X} \ltimes f\right)^{(2)}: X \times X_{2} \rightarrow X \times Y_{2}}\right. \\
\text { (left-proj-1) } \frac{f^{(2)}: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}}{\pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{X} \ltimes f\right) \sim \pi_{1}} \quad\left(\text { left-proj-2) } \frac{f^{(2)}: X_{2} \rightarrow Y_{2}}{\pi_{2} \circ\left(i d_{X} \ltimes f\right) \equiv f \circ \pi_{2}}\right. \\
\text { (left-prod-unique) } \frac{g^{(2)}: X \times X_{2} \rightarrow Y \times Y_{2} \quad \pi_{1} \circ g \sim \pi_{1} \quad \pi_{2} \circ g \equiv f \circ \pi_{2}}{g \equiv i d_{X} \ltimes f} \\
\hline
\end{gathered}
$$

Figure 8: Rules for left semi-pure products
Let us add the rules for semi-pure products to the decorated logic for states. In the decorated theory of states State $_{\text {deco }}$, let us assume that there are products $V_{i} \times V_{j}$ and $V_{i} \times \mathbb{1}$ and $\mathbb{1} \times V_{j}$ for all locations $i$ and $j$. Then it is easy to check that the expansion of the decorated Equations $(2)_{d}$ below gets interpreted as Equations (2) in Remark 1.1. We use the simplified notations $i d_{i}=i d_{V_{i}}$ and $\left\rangle_{i}=\langle \rangle_{V_{i}}\right.$ and perm ${ }_{i, j}=$ $\operatorname{perm}_{V_{i}, V_{j}}$. Equation $(2.1)_{d}$ has been proved in Section 3.2 and Equation $(2.6)_{d}$ will be proved in Section 3.4. The other equations can be proved in a similar way.
$(2.1)_{d}$ Annihilation lookup-update. $\forall i \in L o c, u_{i} \circ l_{i} \equiv i d_{\mathbb{1}}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{1}$
$(2.2)_{d}$ Interaction lookup-lookup. $\forall i \in L o c, l_{i} \circ\langle \rangle_{i} \circ l_{i} \equiv l_{i}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i}$
$(2.3)_{d}$ Interaction update-update. $\forall i \in L o c, u_{i} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{i}\right) \equiv u_{i} \circ \pi_{2}: V_{i} \times V_{i} \rightarrow \mathbb{1}$
$(2.4)_{d}$ Interaction update-lookup. $\forall i \in L o c, l_{i} \circ u_{i} \sim i d_{i}: V_{i} \rightarrow V_{i}$
$(2.5)_{d}$ Commutation lookup-lookup. $\forall i \neq j \in L o c, l_{j} \circ\langle \rangle_{i} \circ l_{i} \equiv \operatorname{perm}_{j, i} \circ l_{i} \circ\langle \rangle_{j} \circ l_{j}: \mathbb{1} \rightarrow V_{i} \times V_{j}$
$(2.6)_{d}$ Commutation update-update. $\forall i \neq j \in L o c, u_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right): V_{i} \times V_{j} \rightarrow \mathbb{1}$
$(2.7)_{d}$ Commutation update-lookup. $\forall i \neq j \in L o c, l_{j} \circ u_{i} \equiv \pi_{2} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes l_{j}\right) \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \circ \pi_{1}^{-1}: V_{i} \rightarrow V_{j}$

### 3.4 Commutation update-update

Proposition 3.2. For each locations $i \neq j$, the order of storing in two different locations $i$ and $j$ does not matter.

$$
u_{j}^{(2)} \circ \pi_{2}^{(0)} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right)^{(2)} \equiv u_{i}^{(2)} \circ \pi_{1}^{(0)} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right)^{(2)}: V_{i} \times V_{j} \rightarrow \mathbb{1}
$$

Proof. Let $i$ and $j$ be two distinct locations. Using the unicity property of the observational product, we have to prove that $l_{k} \circ u_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \sim l_{k} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right)$ for each location $k$.

- When $k \neq i, j$, let us prove independently four weak equations $\left(W_{1}\right)$ to $\left(W_{4}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (\sim-\text { subs }) \frac{\left(A_{2}\right) l_{k} \circ u_{j} \sim l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{j}}{l_{k} \circ u_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \sim l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right)\left(W_{1}\right)} \\
& \begin{array}{r}
\left(E_{3}^{(0)}\right) \frac{\vdots}{\left\rangle_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \equiv \pi_{1}\right.} \quad \text { (right-prod) } \frac{u_{i}}{u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}} \\
(\equiv \text {-subs })
\end{array} \frac{\left\langle\text { (right-proj-1) } \frac{u_{i}}{\lambda_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv \pi_{1} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right)} \quad\right.}{(\equiv-\text { repl }) \frac{\left\rangle_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv u_{i} \circ \pi_{1}\right) \equiv u_{i} \circ \pi_{1}}{l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv l_{k} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1}}} \\
& (\sim-\text { subs }) \frac{\left(A_{2}\right) l_{k} \circ u_{i} \sim l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{i}}{l_{k} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \sim l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{i} \circ \pi_{1}\left(W_{3}\right)} \\
& \begin{array}{c}
\left(E_{3}^{(0)}\right) \frac{\vdots}{\left\rangle_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \equiv\langle \rangle_{V_{i} \times V_{j}}\right.} \\
(\equiv-\text {-subs }) \frac{\left(l_{k} \circ\right)}{l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \equiv l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{V_{i} \times V_{j}}} \\
l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \sim l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{V_{i} \times V_{j}}\left(W_{4}\right)
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

Equations $\left(W_{1}\right)$ to $\left(W_{4}\right)$ together with the transitivity rule for $\sim$ give rise to the weak equation:

$$
l_{k} \circ u_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \sim l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{V_{i} \times V_{j}}
$$

A symmetric proof shows that $l_{k} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right) \sim l_{k} \circ\langle \rangle_{V_{i} \times V_{j}}$. With the symmetry and transitivity rules for $\sim$, this concludes the proof when $k \neq i, j$.

- When $k=i$, on the one hand it is easy to prove that $l_{i} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right) \sim \pi_{1}$, as follows.

$$
(\sim-\text { subs }) \frac{\left(A_{1}\right) l_{i} \circ u_{i} \sim i d_{i}}{(\sim-\text { trans })} \frac{\left(\text { left-proj-1) } \frac{u_{j}}{l_{i} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right) \sim \pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right)}\right.}{l_{i} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \circ\left(i d_{i} \ltimes u_{j}\right) \sim \pi_{1}}
$$

On the other hand it can also be proved that $l_{i} \circ u_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \sim \pi_{1}$, as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{aligned}
&(\equiv \text {-subs }) \frac{\left(E_{2}^{(0)}\right) \frac{\vdots}{\left\rangle_{1 \times V_{j}} \equiv \pi_{1}\right.}}{(\equiv \text {-trans })} \frac{( \rangle_{1 \times V_{j}} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv \pi_{1} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right)}{} \quad\left(\text { right-proj-1) } \frac{u_{i}}{\pi_{1} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv u_{i} \circ \pi_{1}}\right. \\
&(\equiv \text {-repl }) \frac{\left\rangle_{1 \times V_{j}} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv u_{i} \circ \pi_{1}\right.}{l_{i} \circ\langle \rangle_{1 \times V_{j}} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \equiv l_{i} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1}} \\
&(\equiv-\text { to- } \sim) \frac{l_{i} \circ\langle \rangle_{1 \times V_{j}} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \sim l_{i} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1}\left(W_{2}^{\prime}\right)}{l_{i}}
\end{aligned} \\
& (\sim \text { subs }) \frac{\left(A_{1}\right) l_{i} \circ u_{i} \sim i d_{i}}{l_{i} \circ u_{i} \circ \pi_{1} \sim \pi_{1}\left(W_{3}^{\prime}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Equations ( $W_{1}^{\prime}$ ) to ( $W_{3}^{\prime}$ ) and the transitivity rule for $\sim$ give rise to $l_{i} \circ u_{j} \circ \pi_{2} \circ\left(u_{i} \rtimes i d_{j}\right) \sim \pi_{1}$. With the symmetry and transitivity rules for $\sim$, this concludes the proof when $k=i$.

- The proof when $k=j$ is symmetric to the proof when $k=i$.


## Conclusion

In this paper, decorated proofs are used for proving properties of states. This can be applied to other computational effects, like exceptions Dumas et al. 2011b. In addition, associating to each effect a span of logics as in Section 2 should result in a simple framework for combining effects.

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