A Type Theory for Probabilistic and Bayesian Reasoning

Robin Adams\textsuperscript{1} and Bart Jacobs\textsuperscript{2}

1 Institututt for Informatikk, Universitetet i Bergen,
Postboks 7803, 5020 Bergen, Norway
robin.adams@uib.no

2 Institute for Computing and Information Sciences, Radboud Universiteit,
Postbus 9010, 6500 GL Nijmegen, The Netherlands
bart@cs.ru.nl

Abstract
This paper introduces a novel type theory and logic for probabilistic reasoning. Its logic is quantitative, with fuzzy predicates. It includes normalisation and conditioning of states. This conditioning uses a key aspect that distinguishes our probabilistic type theory from quantum type theory, namely the bijective correspondence between predicates and side-effect free actions (called instrument, or assert, maps). The paper shows how suitable computation rules can be derived from this predicate-action correspondence, and uses these rules for calculating conditional probabilities in two well-known examples of Bayesian reasoning in (graphical) models. Our type theory may thus form the basis for a mechanisation of Bayesian inference.

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1 Introduction

A probabilistic program is understood (semantically) as a stochastic process. A key feature of probabilistic programs as studied in the 1980s and 1990s is the presence of probabilistic choice, for instance in the form of a weighted sum $x + r \cdot y$, where the number $r \in [0,1]$ determines the ratio of the contributions of $x$ and $y$ to the result. This can be expressed explicitly as a convex sum $r \cdot x + (1 - r) \cdot y$. Some of the relevant sources are [13, 15, 16, 18], and also [22] for the combination of probability and non-determinism. In the language of category theory, a probabilistic program is a map in the Kleisli category of the distribution monad $\mathcal{D}$ (in the discrete case) or of the Giry monad $\mathcal{G}$ (in the continuous case), see [10] for details.

In recent years, with the establishment of Bayesian machine learning as an important area of computer science, the emphasis of probabilistic programming shifted towards conditional inference. The key feature is no longer probabilistic choice, but normalisation of distributions (states), see \textit{e.g.} [3, 7, 21, 14, 19]. Interestingly, this can be done in basically the same

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underlying models, where a program still produces a distribution – discrete or continuous – over its output.

This paper contributes to this latest line of work by formulating a novel type theory for probabilistic and Bayesian reasoning. We list the key features of our type theory.

- It includes a logic, which is quantitative in nature. This means that its predicates are best understood as ‘fuzzy’ predicates, taking values in the unit interval \([0, 1]\) of probabilities, instead of in the two-element set \(\{0, 1\}\) of Booleans.

- As a result, the predicates of this logic do not form Boolean algebras, but effect modules (see e.g. [9]). The double negation rule \(p\perp\perp = p\) does hold, but the sum \(\uplus\) is a partial operation. Moreover, there is a scalar multiplication \(s \cdot p\), for a scalar \(s\) and a predicate \(p\), which produces a scaled version of the predicate \(p\).

- The type theory includes normalisation (and also probabilistic choice). Abstractly, normalisation means that each non-zero ‘substate’ in the type theory can be turned into a proper state (like in [11]). This involves, for instance, turning a subdistribution \(\sum_i r_i x_i\), where the probabilities \(r_i \in [0, 1]\) satisfy \(0 < r \leq 1\) for \(r \triangleq \sum_i r_i\), into a proper distribution \(\sum_i \frac{r_i}{\sum_i r_i} x_i\) – where, by construction, \(\sum_i \frac{r_i}{\sum_i r_i} = 1\).

- The type theory also includes conditioning, via the combination of assert maps and normalisation (from the previous two points). Hence, we can calculate conditional probabilities inside the type theory, via appropriate (derived) computation rules. In contrast, in the language of [3], probabilistic (graphical) models can be formulated, but actual computations are done in the underlying mathematical models. Since these computations are done inside our calculus, our type theory can form the basis for mechanisation.

This work concentrates on an integrated type theory and logic for probability, and not so much on the underlying semantics (like in [3, 21]) nor on the programming language aspects (like in [7, 19, 14]), since we do not have a ‘while’ construct, for instance.

The type theory that we present is based on a new categorical foundation for quantum logic, called effectus theory, see [9, 11, 4, 6]. This theory involves a basic duality between states and effects (predicates), which is implicitly also present in our type theory. A subclass of ‘commutative’ effectuses can be defined, forming models for probabilistic computation and logic. Our type theory corresponds to these commutative effectuses, and will thus be called \textsc{COMET}, as an abbreviation for \textsc{COMmutative Effectus Theory}. This system \textsc{COMET} can be seen as an internal language for commutative effectuses.

Effectus theory thus forms the categorical basis for \textsc{COMET}. At the same time it forms the basis for an embedded language \textsc{EfProb} in the programming language Python\(^1\). \textsc{EfProb} forms a uniform ‘calculator’ for discrete, continuous and quantum probability. \textsc{EfProb} is an unsafe language, which is in a sense orthogonal to the \textsc{COMET} type theory.

The idea that predicates come with an associated action is familiar in mathematics. For instance, in a Hilbert space \(\mathcal{H}\), a closed subspace \(P \subseteq \mathcal{H}\) (a predicate) can equivalently be described as a linear idempotent operator \(p: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}\) (an action) that has \(P\) as image. We sketch how these predicate-action correspondences also exist in the models that underlie our type theory.

First, in the category \textbf{Sets} of sets and functions, a predicate \(p\) on a set \(X\) can be identified with a subset of \(X\), but also with a ‘characteristic’ map \(p: X \to 1 + 1\), where \(1 + 1 = 2\) is the two-element set. We prefer the latter view. Such a predicate corresponds bijectively to a ‘side-effect free’ instrument \(\text{instr}_p: X \to X + X\), namely to:

\(^1\) See the website \texttt{efprob.cs.ru.nl} for details.
We shall define conditioning via normalisation after assert. More specifically, for a state with some key results, without giving all the details and proofs. Section 3 takes two familiar nrm where assert what we call assert maps. The (partial) map does not change the state. It is easy to see that we get a bijective correspondence.

This instrument makes a left-right distinction, with the weight of the distinction given by the predicate, but does not change the state. It is called side-effect free because it satisfies $\nabla \circ \text{instr}_p = \text{id}$, where $\nabla = [\text{id}, \text{id}] : X + X \to X$ is the codiagonal. It is easy to see that each map $f : X \to X + X$ with $\nabla \circ f = \text{id}$ corresponds to a predicate $p : X \to 1 + 1$, namely to $p = (! + !) \circ f$, where $!: X \to 1$ is the unique map to the final (singleton, unit) set $1$.

Our next example describes the same predicate-action correspondence in a probabilistic setting. It assumes familiarity with the discrete distribution monad $D$ – see [9] for details, and also Section 4.1 – and with its Kleisli category $\mathcal{K}(D)$. A predicate map $p : X \to 1 + 1$ in $\mathcal{K}(D)$ is (essentially) a fuzzy predicate $p : X \to [0,1]$, since $D(1 + 1) = D(2) \cong [0,1]$. There is also an associated instrument map $\text{instr}_p : X \to X + X$ in $\mathcal{K}(D)$, given by the function $\text{instr}_p : X \to D(X + X)$ that sends an element $x \in X$ to the distribution (formal convex combination):

$$\text{instr}_p(x) = p(x) \cdot \text{inl}(x) + (1 - p(x)) \cdot \text{inr}(x).$$

This instrument makes a left-right distinction, with the weight of the distinction given by the fuzzy predicate $p$. Again we have $\nabla \circ \text{instr}_p = \text{id}$, in the Kleisli category, since the instrument map does not change the state. It is easy to see that we get a bijective correspondence.

These instrument maps $\text{instr}_p : X \to X + X$ can in fact be simplified further into what we call assert maps. The (partial) map $\text{assert}_p : X \to X + 1$ can be defined as $\text{assert}_p = (id + !) \circ \text{instr}_p$. We say that such a map is side-effect free if there is an inequality $\text{assert}_p \leq \text{inl}(\_)$, for a suitable order on the homset of partial maps $X \to X + 1$. Given assert maps for $p$, and for its orthosupplement (negation) $p^\perp$, we can define the associated instrument via a partial pairing operation as $\text{instr}_p = «\text{assert}_p, \text{assert}_p^\perp»$, see below for details. We shall define conditioning via normalisation after assert. More specifically, for a state $\omega : X$ and a predicate $p$ on $X$ we define the conditional state $\omega|_p = \text{cond}(\omega, p)$ as:

$$\text{cond}(\omega, p) = \text{nrm}(\text{assert}_p(\omega)),$$

where $\text{nrm}(-)$ describes normalisation (of substates to states). This description occurs in semantical form in [11]. Here we formalise it at a type-theoretic level and derive suitable computation rules from it that allow us to do (exact) conditional inference.

The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 provides an overview of the type theory, with some key results, without giving all the details and proofs. Section 3 takes two familiar examples of Bayesian reasoning and formalises them in our type theory COMET. Next, Section 4 sketches how our type theory can be interpreted in set-theoretic and probabilistic models. Subsequently, Section 5 explores the type theory in greater depth, and provides justification for the computation rules in the examples. Appendix A contains a formal presentation of the type theory COMET.
1.1 Previous Work

The system COMET is related to the quantum type theory QPEL described in [1]. The two type theories have a common subsystem. The type theory in [1] extends this subsystem with rules for qubits. The theory COMET extends the subsystem with new computation rules for the instrument maps, which provides a bijective correspondence between predicates and side-effect free assert maps (see below for details); as well as normalisation, and the scalar constants \(1/n\).

A key feature of quantum theory is that observations have a side-effect: measuring a system disturbs it at the quantum level. In order to perform such measurements, each quantum predicate comes with an associated ‘measurement’ instrument operation which acts on the underlying space. Probabilistic theories also have such instruments... but they are side-effect free!

The key aspect of a probabilistic model, in contrast to a quantum model, is that there is a bijective correspondence between:

- predicates \(X \rightarrow 1 + 1\)
- side-effect free instruments \(X \rightarrow X + X\) – or equivalently, side-effect free assert maps \(X \rightarrow X + 1\).

2 Syntax and Rules of Deduction

We present here the terms and types of COMET. We shall describe the system at a high level here, giving the intuition behind each construction. The complete list of the rules of deduction of COMET is given in Appendix A, and the properties that we use are all proved in Section 5.

2.1 Syntax

Assume we are given a set of type constants \(C\), representing the base data types needed for each example. (These may typically include for instance \(\text{nat}\) and \(\text{real}\).) Then the types and terms of COMET are the following.

**Type**

\[
A, B ::= C \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid A + B \mid A \otimes B
\]

**Term**

\[
r, s, t ::= x \mid s \otimes t \mid \text{let } x \otimes y = s \text{ in } t \mid s \mid \text{inl } (t) \mid \text{inr } (t) \mid \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \mapsto s \mid \text{inr } (y) \mapsto t \mid s, t \mid \text{left } (t) \mid \text{instr}_\lambda x s (t) \mid 1/n \mid \text{nrm } (t)\]

We explain the intended meaning of these terms in the remaining parts of Section 2.

The variables \(x\) and \(y\) are bound within \(s\) in \(\text{let } x \otimes y = s \text{ in } t\). The variable \(x\) is bound within \(s\) and \(y\) within \(t\) in \(\text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \mapsto s \mid \text{inr } (y) \mapsto t\), and \(x\) is bound within \(t\) in \(\text{instr}_\lambda x s (t)\). We identify terms up to \(\alpha\)-conversion (change of bound variable). We write \(t[x := s]\) for the result of substituting \(s\) for \(x\) within \(t\), renaming bound variables to avoid variable capture. We shall write \(\_\) for a vacuous bound variable; for example, we write \(\text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (\_) \mapsto s \mid \text{inr } (y) \mapsto t\) for \(\text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \mapsto s \mid \text{inr } (y) \mapsto t\) when \(x\) does not occur free in \(s\).

The typing rules for these terms are given in Figure 1. (Note that some of these rules make use of defined expressions, which will be introduced in the sections below. Note also that, in the rules \((1/n)\) and \((\text{nrm})\), the \(n\) that occurs is a constant natural number, not a term that may contain free variables.)

The computation rules that these terms obey are given in Figure 2.
2.2 Affine Type Theory

Figure 1 Typing rules for COMET.

Figures 1 and 2 should be understood simultaneously. So the term «s,t» is well-typed if and only if we can type s : A + 1 and t : B + 1 (using the rules in Figure 1), and derive the equation s ⊥ t = t ↑ using the rules in Figure 2.

The full set of rules of deduction for the system is given in Appendix A.

## 2.2 Affine Type Theory

Note the form of several of the typing rules in Figure 1, including (∗) and (let). These rules do not allow a variable to be duplicated. In particular, we cannot derive the judgement x : A ⊢ x ⊗ x : A ⊗ A. The contraction rule does not hold in our type theory – it is not the case in general that, if Γ, x : A, y : B ⊢ J, then Γ, z : A ⊢ J[x := z, y := z]. Our theory is thus an affine type theory, which is similar to a linear type theory (see for example [2]).

The reason is that these judgements do not behave well with respect to substitution. For example, take the computation x : 2 ⊢ x ⊗ x : 2 ⊗ 2. If we apply this computation to the scalar 1/2, we presumably wish the result to be ⊤ ⊗ ⊤ with probability 1/2, and ⊥ ⊗ ⊥ with probability 1/2. But this is not the semantics for the term ⊢ 1/2 ⊗ 1/2 : 2 ⊗ 2. This term assigns probability 1/4 to all four possibilities ⊤ ⊗ ⊤, ⊤ ⊗ ⊥, ⊥ ⊗ ⊤, ⊥ ⊗ ⊥.

We discuss this further in Section 4.3.
2.3 States, Predicates and Scalars

A closed term $\vdash t : A$ will be called a state of type $A$, and intuitively it represents a probability distribution over the elements of $A$.

A predicate on type $A$ is a term $p$ such that $\vdash p : 2$. These shall be the formulas of the logic of COMET (see Section 2.7).

The closed terms $t$ such that $\vdash t : 2$ are called scalars, and represent the probabilities or truth values of our system. In our intended semantics for discrete and continuous probabilities, these denote elements of the real interval $[0,1]$.

Given a state $\vdash s : A$ and a predicate $x : A \vdash p : 2$, we can find the probability that $p$ is true when measured on $t$; this probability is simply the scalar $p[x := t]$. This validity is written as $t \models p$ in effectus theory [5].

A term $x : A \vdash c : B$ may be understood as a channel from $A$ to $B$. One can do state transformation and predicate transformation along a channel. In the current setting this is done simply via substitution. A state $\vdash s : A$ is transformed into a state $\vdash c[s := s] : B$. In the other direction, a predicate $y : B \vdash p : 2$ is transformed into a predicate on $A$ as $x : A \vdash p[y := c] : 2$. This predicate is the weakest precondition of $p$ with respect to $c$. State and predicate transformation, together with conditioning, are used in [12] to describe learning in a Bayesian context. These same ideas are used in Section 3 below.
The judgement \( \Gamma \vdash \tau : A + 1 \) says that from an inhabitant \( \Gamma \vdash \tau \) in any type \( \tau \). Intuitively, this says ‘If the empty type is inhabited, then every type is inhabited’, which is vacuously true.

### 2.5 Coproducts and Copowers

Since we have the coproduct \( A + B \) of two types, we can construct the disjoint union of \( n \) types \( A_1 + \cdots + A_n \) in the obvious way. We write \( \text{inl}_i() \), \( \ldots \), \( \text{inr}_n() \) for its constructors; thus, if \( a : A_i \) then \( \text{inl}_i(a) : A_1 + \cdots + A_n \). And given \( t : A_1 + \cdots + A_n \), we can eliminate it as:

\[
\text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}_i(x_1) \mapsto t_1 \mid \cdots \mid \text{inr}_n(x_n) \mapsto t_n.
\]

We abbreviate this expression as \( \text{case}_{i=1}^n t \text{ of } \text{inl}_i(x_i) \mapsto t_i \).

The term \( \text{left}(t) \) is understood as follows. If we have a term \( t : A + B \) and we have derived the judgement \( \Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(?) \vdash t = \top \), then we know that we know that \( t \) always has the form \( \text{inl}(a) \) for some term \( a : A \). We denote this unique term \( a \) by \( \text{left}(t) \).

We have a similar right() construction, but there is no need to give primitive rules for this one, as it can be defined in terms of left(): \( \text{right}(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{left}(\text{swap}(t)) \), where \( \text{swap} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{inr}(x) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y) \).

For the special case where all the types are equal, we write \( n \cdot A \) for the type \( A + \cdots + A \), where there are \( n \) copies of \( A \). In category theory, this is known as the \( n \)th copower of \( A \). (We include the special cases \( 0 \cdot A \overset{\text{def}}{=} 0 \) and \( 1 \cdot A \overset{\text{def}}{=} A \).)

The codiagonal \( \nabla(t) : A \) for \( \n \cdot A \) is defined by \( \nabla(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case}_{i=1}^n t \text{ of } \text{inl}_i(x) \mapsto x \). In particular, when \( n = 2 \) and \( t : A + A \), then \( \nabla(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto x \mid \text{inr}(x) \mapsto x \).

We write \( n \) for \( n \cdot 1 \). We denote the canonical elements by \( 1, 2, \ldots, n \), via definitions \( i \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{inl}_i(*) : n \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq n \). For \( t : n \cdot A \), we define \( \text{index}(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case}_{i=1}^n t \text{ of } \text{inl}_i(\_*) \mapsto i : n \).

### 2.6 Partial Functions

A term of type \( A \) is intended to represent a total computation, that always terminates and returns a value of type \( A \). We can think of a term of type \( A + 1 \) as a partial computation that may return a value \( a \) of type \( A \) (by outputting \( \text{inl}(a) \)) or diverge (by outputting \( \text{inr}(\_*) \)). The judgement \( s \leq t \) should be understood as: the probability that \( s \) returns \( \text{inl}(a) \) is at most the probability that \( t \) returns \( \text{inl}(a) \), for all \( a \). The rule for this ordering relation is given in Figure 3.

We define:

- If \( \Gamma \vdash t : A \) then \( \Gamma \vdash \text{return } t \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{inl}(t) : A + 1 \). This program converges with probability 1.
- \( \Gamma \vdash \text{fail} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{inr}(\_*) : A + 1 \). This program diverges with probability 1.
If $\Gamma \vdash s : A + 1$ and $\Delta, x : A \vdash t : B + 1$ then
$\Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow s; t \defeq \text{case } s \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto t \mid \text{inr}(\_\_) \mapsto \text{fail}.$

The term $\text{do } x \leftarrow s; t$ should be read as the following computation: Run $s$. If $s$ returns a value, pass this as input $x$ to the computation $t$; otherwise, diverge.

These constructions satisfy these computation rules:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(do-return)} & \quad \text{do } x \leftarrow r; t = r[x := s] \\
\text{(do-fail)} & \quad \text{do } x \leftarrow \text{fail}; t = \text{fail} \\
\text{(return-do)} & \quad \text{do } x \leftarrow r; \text{return } x = r \\
\text{(fail-do)} & \quad \text{do } x \leftarrow r; \text{fail} = \text{fail} \\
\text{(do-do)} & \quad \text{do } x \leftarrow r; (\text{do } y \leftarrow s; t) = \text{do } y \leftarrow (\text{do } x \leftarrow r; s); t
\end{align*}
\]

This construction also allows us to define \textit{scalar multiplication}. If we are given a scalar $\vdash s : 2$ and a substate $\vdash t : A + 1$, then the result of multiplying or scaling $t$ by $s$ is $\vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow s; t : A + 1$.

### 2.6.1 Partial Projections

Given $t : A + B$, the \textit{partial projections} $\triangleright_1^{AB}(t) : A + 1$ and $\triangleright_2^{AB}(t) : B + 1$ are defined by

\[
\begin{align*}
\triangleright_1^{AB}(t) & \defeq \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{return } x \mid \text{inr}(\_\_) \mapsto \text{fail} \\
\triangleright_2^{AB}(t) & \defeq \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_\_) \mapsto \text{fail} \mid \text{inr}(x) \mapsto \text{return } x
\end{align*}
\]

We shall often omit the superscripts $A$ and $B$.

Given $t : n \cdot A$, the \textit{partial projection} $\triangleright^n_i(t) : A + 1$ is defined to be

\[
\triangleright^n_i(t) \defeq \text{case}_{j=1}^{n} t \text{ of } \text{inl}^n_i(\_\_) \mapsto \begin{cases} 
\text{return } x & \text{if } i = j \\
\text{fail} & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

We shall often omit the superscript $n$.

### 2.6.2 Partial Sum

Let $\Gamma \vdash s, t : A + 1$. If these terms have disjoint domains (i.e. given any input $x$ and output $a$, the sum of the probabilities that $s$ and $t$ return $a$ given $x$ is never greater than 1), then we may form the computation $\Gamma \vdash s \oplus t$, the \textit{partial sum} of $s$ and $t$. The probability that this program converges with output $a$ is the sum of the probability that $s$ returns $a$, and the probability that $t$ returns $a$. The definition is given by the rule $\oplus$-def. We write $n \cdot t$ for the sum $t \cdot \cdots \cdot t$ with $n$ summands. We include the special cases $0 \cdot t \defeq \text{fail}$ and $1 \cdot t \defeq t$.

With this operation, the partial functions in $A + 1$ form a \textit{partial commutative monoid} (PCM) (see Lemma 13).

### 2.7 Logic

The type $2 = 1 + 1$ shall play a special role in this type theory. It is the type of \textit{propositions} or \textit{predicates}, and its objects shall be used as the formulas of our logic.

We define $\top \defeq \text{inl}(\_\_)$ and $\bot \defeq \text{inr}(\_\_) : 2$. We also define the \textit{orthosupplement} of a predicate $p$, which roughly corresponds to negation:

\[
p^\bot \defeq \text{case } p \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_\_) \mapsto \bot \mid \text{inr}(\_\_) \mapsto \top
\]
We immediately have that $p \perp \perp = p$, $\top \perp = \perp$ and $\bot \perp = \top$.

The ordering on 2 shall play the role of the derivability relation in our logic: $p \leq q$ will indicate that $q$ is derivable from $p$, or that $p$ implies $q$. The rules for this logic are not the familiar rules of classical or intuitionistic logic. Rather, the predicates over any context form an effect algebra (Proposition 16).

### 2.7.1 n-tests

An $n$-test in a context $\Gamma$ is an $n$-tuple of predicates $(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ on $A$ such that $\Gamma \vdash p_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes p_n = \top : 2$.

Intuitively, this can be thought of as a set of $n$ fuzzy predicates whose probabilities always sum to 1. We can think of this as a test that can be performed on the types of $\Gamma$ with $n$ possible outcomes; and, indeed, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the $n$-tests of $\Gamma$ and the terms of type $n$ (Lemma 21).

### 2.7.2 Instrument Maps

Let $x : A \vdash t : n$ and $\Gamma \vdash s : A$. The term $\text{instr}_{\lambda x}(s) : n \cdot A$ is interpreted as follows: we read the computation $x : A \vdash t : n$ as a test on the type $A$, with $n$ possible outcomes. The computation $\text{instr}_{\lambda x}(s)$ runs $t$ on (the output of) $s$, and returns $\text{inl}_n(s)$, where $t$ is the outcome of the test.

Given an $n$-test $(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ on $A$, we can write a program that tests which of $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ is true of its input, and performs one of $n$ different calculations as a result. We write this program as $\Gamma \vdash \text{measure } p_1 \mapsto t_1 \mid \cdots \mid p_n \mapsto t_n$. It will be defined in Definition 24.

If $x : A \vdash p : 2$ and $\Gamma, x : A \vdash s, t : B$, we define $\Gamma, x : A \vdash (\text{if } p \text{ then } s \text{ else } t) \defeq \text{measure } p \mapsto s \mid p \perp \mapsto t$. In the case where $s$ and $t$ do not depend on $x$, we have the following fact (Lemma 26.2): if $p$ then $s$ else $t = \text{case } p \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_):=s \mid \text{inr}(\_):=t$.

### 2.7.3 Assert Maps

If $x : A \vdash p : 2$ is a predicate, we define

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{assert}_{\lambda x}(t) \defeq \text{case } \text{instr}_{\lambda x}(t) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{return } x \mid \text{inr}(\_):=\text{fail} : A + 1$$

The computation $\text{assert}_{\lambda x}(t)$ is a partial computation with output type $A$. It tests whether $p$ is true of $t$; if so, it leaves $t$ unchanged; if not, it diverges. That is, if $p[x := t]$ returns $\top$, the computation converges and returns $t$; if not, it diverges.

These constructions satisfy the following computation rules (see Section 5.6 below for the proofs).

\begin{enumerate}
    \item (assert↓) $(\text{assert}_{\lambda x}(t))\downarrow = p[x := t]$
    \item (assert-scalar) For a scalar $\vdash s : 2$: $\text{assert}_{\lambda \cdot s}(\_):=s : 2$.
    \item (instr+) For $x : A + B \vdash t : n$:
        \[ \text{instr}_{\lambda x}(s) = \text{case } s \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \mapsto \text{case } \text{inr}_{i=1}^n \text{instr}_{\lambda a.t[x:=\text{inl}(a)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}_n(z) \mapsto \text{inl}_n(\text{inl}(z)) \]
        \[ \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{case } \text{inr}_{i=1}^n \text{instr}_{\lambda b.t[x:=\text{inr}(b)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}_n(z) \mapsto \text{inl}_n(\text{inr}(z)) \]
    \item (assert+) For $x : A + B \vdash p : 2$:
        \[ \text{assert}_{\lambda x}(t) = \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{do } z \leftarrow \text{assert}_{\lambda a.p[x:=\text{inl}(a)]}(x); \text{return } \text{inl}(z) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{do } z \leftarrow \text{assert}_{\lambda b.p[x:=\text{inr}(b)]}(y); \text{return } \text{inr}(z) \]
\end{enumerate}
A Type Theory for Probabilistic and Bayesian Reasoning

We can define predicates which, given a term written as the two-element distribution. The term « is understood intuitively as follows. We are given two partial computations s and t, and we have derived the judgement \( s \downarrow = t \uparrow \), which tells us that exactly one of s and t converges on any given input. We may then form the computation \( s \cup t \) which, given an input \( x \), returns either \( s(x) \) or \( t(x) \), whichever of the two converges.

2.9 Scalar Constants

The term \( 1/n \) represents the probability distribution on \( 2 = \{ \top, \bot \} \) which returns \( \top \) with probability \( 1/n \) and \( \bot \) with probability \( (n-1)/n \). It can be thought of as a coin toss, with a weighted coin that returns heads with probability \( 1/n \). In other languages it is sometimes written as the two-element distribution \( \text{flip}(1/n) \).
From this, we have a representation of the rational numbers between 0 and 1. Let \( \frac{m}{n} \) denote the term \( \frac{1}{n} \otimes \cdots \otimes \frac{1}{n} \), where there are \( m \) summands. The usual arithmetic of rational numbers can be carried out in our system (see Section 5.9).

2.10 Normalisation

Let \( \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \). Then \( t \) represents a substate of \( A \). As long as the probability \( t \downarrow \) is non-zero, we can normalise this program over the probability of non-termination. The result is the state denoted by \( \text{nrm}(t) \). Intuitively, the probability that \( \text{nrm}(t) \) will output \( a \) is the probability that \( t \) will output \( \text{inl}(a) \), conditioned on the event that \( t \) terminates.

In order to type \( \text{nrm}(t) \), we must first prove that \( t \) has a non-zero probability of terminating by deriving an inequality of the form \( \frac{1}{n} \leq t \downarrow \) for some positive integer \( n \geq 2 \).

If \( \Gamma \vdash t : A \) and \( x : A \vdash p : 2 \), we write \( \text{cond}(t, \lambda x p) \) for

\[
\text{cond}(t, \lambda x p) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{nrm}(\text{assert}_{\lambda x p}(t)) .
\]

The term \( t \) denotes a computation whose output is given by a probability distribution over \( A \). Then \( \text{cond}(t, \lambda x p) \) gives the result of normalising that conditional probability distribution with respect to \( p \).

2.10.1 Note

In COMET, we only allow normalisation of closed terms, because we have not been able to find a satisfactory way to express that an open term is non-zero for all inputs. For closed terms, this is done by finding a constant \( \frac{1}{n} \) which the term exceeds. For open terms, it is possible that there is no \( n \) such that \( \frac{1}{n} \) is always less than \( t \), if the probabilities of \( t \) are all positive with infimum 0.

2.11 Marginalisation

The tensor product of type \( A \otimes B \) comes with two projections. Given \( \Gamma \vdash t : A \otimes B \), define

\[
\Gamma \vdash \pi_1(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } x \otimes _{\_} = t \text{ in } x : A \quad \Gamma \vdash \pi_2(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } _{\_} \otimes y = t \text{ in } y : B
\]

If \( t \) is a state (i.e. \( \Gamma \) is the empty context), then \( \pi_1(t) \) denotes the result of marginalising \( t \), as a probability distribution over \( A \otimes B \), to a probability distribution over \( A \).

2.12 Local Definition

In our examples, we shall make free use of local definition. This is not a part of the syntax of COMET itself, but part of our metalanguage. We write \( \text{let } x = s \text{ in } t \) for \( t[x := s] \). We shall also locally define functions: we write \( \text{let } f(x) = s \text{ in } t \) for the result of replacing every subterm of the form \( f(r) \) with \( s[x := r] \) in \( t \).

3 Examples

This section describes two examples of (Bayesian) reasoning in our type theory COMET. Since this kind of reasoning is not very intuitive, a formal calculus is very useful. The first example is a typical exercise in Bayesian probability theory. The second example involves a simple graphical model.
Example 1. (See also [23, 3]) Consider the following situation.

1% of a population have a disease. 80% of subjects with the disease test positive, and 9.6% without the disease also test positive. If a subject is positive, what are the odds he/she has the disease?

This situation can be described as a very simple graphical model, with associated (conditional) probabilities.

\[
\begin{array}{c|cc}
\text{HasDisease} & \text{Pr}(HD) & \text{HD} \\
\downarrow & 0.01 & t \\
\text{PositiveResult} & \text{Pr}(PR) & f \\
0.096 & 0.8 \\
\end{array}
\]

In our type theory COMET, we use the following description.

```plaintext
let subject = 0.01 in
let positive_result(x) = (if x then 0.8 else 0.096) in
cond (subject, positive_result)
```

We thus obtain a state `subject : 2`, conditioned on the predicate `positive_result` on `2`. We calculate the outcome in semi-formal style. The conditional state `cond (subject, positive_result)` is defined via normalisation of assert, see Section 2.10. We first calculate what this assert term is:

\[
\text{assert}_{x, \text{positive_result}(x)}(x) = \text{if } x \text{ then if } \text{positive_result}(\top) \text{ then return \top else fail}
\]

\[
\text{else if } \text{positive_result}(\bot) \text{ then return \bot else fail by (assert m)}
\]

\[
= \text{if } x \text{ then if } 0.8 \text{ then return \top else fail}
\]

\[
\text{else if } 0.096 \text{ then return \bot else fail}
\]

Conditioning requires that the domain of the substate `assert_{x, \text{positive_result}(x)}(subject)` is non-zero. We compute this domain as:

\[
\text{assert}_{x, \text{positive_result}(x)}(subject) \downarrow = \text{positive_result}(subject) \quad \text{(Rule (assert\downarrow))}
\]

\[
= \text{if } 0.01 \text{ then } 0.8 \text{ else } 0.096
\]

\[
= (0.01 \& 0.8) \cup (0.99 \& 0.096) \quad \text{(Lemma 26.2)}
\]

\[
= 0.10304 \quad \text{(Lemma 28)}
\]

Hence we can choose (e.g.) \( n = 10 \), to get \( \frac{1}{n} \leq 0.10304 = \text{assert}_{x, \text{positive_result}(x)}(subject) \downarrow \).
We now proceed to calculate the result, answering the question in the beginning of this example.

\[
\text{assert}^{\lambda x \text{positive_result}(x)}(\text{subject}) = \begin{cases} 
0.01 & \text{if } 0.01 \text{ then if } 0.8 \text{ then return } \top \text{ else fail} \\
0.06 & \text{else if } 0.096 \text{ then return } \bot \text{ else fail} \\
0.01 & \text{else if } 0.01 \text{ then return } \bot \text{ else fail} \\
0.008 & \text{else if } 0.01 \text{ then return } \top \text{ else fail} \\
0.008 & \text{else if } 0.09 \text{ then return } \bot \\
0.8969 & \text{else if } 0.008 \text{ then return } \bot \text{ else fail} \\
0.008 & \text{else if } 0.008 \text{ then return } \top \\
0.008 & \text{else if } 0.008 \text{ then return } \bot \\
0.008 & \text{else if } 0.008 \text{ then return } \bot \text{ else fail} \\
\end{cases}
\]

Then the probability of having the disease after a positive test result is approximately 7.8%.

**Example 2 (Bayesian Network).** The following is a standard example of a problem in Bayesian networks, created by [20, Chap. 14].

I’m at work, neighbor John calls to say my alarm is ringing. Sometimes it’s set off by minor earthquakes. Is there a burglar?

We are given that the situation is as described by the following Bayesian network.

The probability of each event given its preconditions is as given in the tables – for example, the probability that the alarm rings given that there is a burglar but no earthquake is 0.94.
We model the above question in COMET as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let } b &= 0.01 \text{ in let } c = 0.002 \text{ in} \\
\text{let } a(x,y) &= (\text{if } x \text{ then } (\text{if } y \text{ then } 0.95 \text{ else } 0.94) \\
&\quad \text{ else } (\text{if } y \text{ then } 0.29 \text{ else } 0.001)) \text{ in} \\
\text{let } j(z) &= (\text{if } z \text{ then } 0.9 \text{ else } 0.05) \text{ in} \\
\text{let } m(z) &= (\text{if } z \text{ then } 0.7 \text{ else } 0.01) \text{ in} \\
\pi_1(\text{cond } (b \otimes e, j \circ a))
\end{align*}
\]

We first elaborate the predicate \( j \circ a \), given in context as \( x: \mathbb{2}, y: \mathbb{2} \vdash j(a(x,y)) : \mathbb{2} \). It is:

\[
\begin{align*}
\pi_1(\text{cond } (b \otimes c, j \circ a))
\end{align*}
\]

Hence by Corollary 30 we obtain the marginalised conditional:
\[ \pi_1(\text{cond}(b \otimes e, j \circ a)) = \pi_1(\text{measure}\ 0.000001715/0.052138976 \mapsto \top \otimes \top) \]
\[ = \pi_1(\text{measure}\ 0.000847302/0.052138976 \mapsto \top \otimes \bot) \]
\[ = \pi_1(\text{measure}\ 0.000952407/0.052138976 \mapsto \bot \otimes \top) \]
\[ = \pi_1(\text{measure}\ 0.050697552/0.052138976 \mapsto \bot \otimes \bot) \]
\[ = \pi_1(\text{measure}\ 0.000032893 \mapsto \top \otimes \bot) \]
\[ = \pi_1(\text{measure}\ 0.016250837 \mapsto \bot \otimes \top) \]
\[ = \pi_1(\text{measure}\ 0.98371627 \mapsto \bot \otimes \bot) \]

We conclude that there is an approximately 1.6% chance of a burglary when John calls.

## 4 Semantics

The terms of COMET are intended to represent probabilistic programs. We show how to give semantics to our system using discrete probability distributions.

### 4.1 Discrete Probabilistic Computation

We give an interpretation that assigns, to each term, a discrete probability distribution over its output type.

▶ **Definition 3.** Let \( A \) be a set.
- The *support* of a function \( \phi : A \to [0, 1] \) is \( \text{supp} \phi = \{a \in A : \phi(a) \neq 0\} \).
- A (discrete) *probability distribution* over \( A \) is a function \( \phi : A \to [0, 1] \) with finite support such that \( \sum_{a \in A} \phi(a) = 1 \).
- Let \( \mathcal{D}A \) be the set of all probability distributions on \( A \).

We shall interpret every type \( A \) as a set \([A]\). Assume we are given a set \([C]\) for each type constant \( C \). Define a set \([A]\) for each type \( A \) thus:

\[ [0] = \emptyset \quad [1] = \{\ast\} \quad [A + B] = [A] \sqcup [B] \quad [A \otimes B] = [A] \times [B] \]

where \( A \sqcup B = \{\kappa_1(a) : a \in A\} \cup \{\kappa_2(b) : b \in B\} \). We extend this to contexts by defining \([x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n] = [A_1] \times \cdots \times [A_n] \).

Now, to every term \( \Gamma \vdash t : B \), where \( \Gamma \equiv x_1 : A_1, \ldots, x_n : A_n \), we assign a function \([t] : [\Gamma] = [A_1] \times \cdots \times [A_n] \to \mathcal{D} [B] \). The value \([t](g_1, \ldots, g_n)(b) \in [0, 1] \) will be written...
Recall that we define support for all $g$ as

$$P(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a = g_i \\ 0 & \text{if } a \neq g_i \end{cases}$$

$$P(*) = 1$$

$$P((s \otimes t)(\vec{g}, \vec{d}) = (a, b)) = P(s(\vec{g}) = a)P(t(\vec{d}) = b)$$

$$P((\text{let } x \otimes y = s \text{ in } t)(\vec{g}, \vec{d}) = c) = \sum_a \sum_b P(s(\vec{g}) = (a, b))P(t(\vec{d}, a, b) = c)$$

$$P((\text{let } x \otimes y = s \text{ in } t)(\vec{g}, \vec{d}) = a) = 0$$

$$P(\text{inr}(t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) = P(t(\vec{g}) = a)$$

$$P(\text{inr}(t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(b)) = 0$$

$$P(\text{inl}(t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) = 0$$

$$P(\text{inl}(t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(b)) = P(t(\vec{g}) = b)$$

$$((\text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inr}(x) \mapsto s \mid \text{inl}(y) \mapsto t)(\vec{g}, \vec{d}) = c)$$

$$= \sum_a P(r(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a))P(s(\vec{d}, a) = c) + \sum_b P(r(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(b))P(t(\vec{d}, b) = c)$$

$$P(\text{inr}(s, t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) = P(s(\vec{g}) = a)P(t(a) = \kappa_1(\star))$$

$$P(\text{inr}(s, t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(b)) = 0$$

$$P(\text{inl}(s, t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) = 0$$

$$P(\text{inl}(s, t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(b)) = P(t(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(b))$$

$$P(\text{left}(t)(\vec{g}) = a) = P(t(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a))$$

$$P(\text{inst}_{\text{ext}}(s) (\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) = P(s(\vec{g}) = a)P(t(a) = \kappa_1(\star))$$

$$P(\text{inst}_{\text{ext}}(s) (\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(b)) = 0$$

$$P(\text{norm}(t)(\vec{g}) = a) = P(t(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a))/(1 - P(t(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(\star)))$$

$$P((s \otimes t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) = P(s(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) + P(t(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a))$$

$$P((s \otimes t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(\star)) = P(s(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(\star)) + P(t(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(\star)) - 1$$

Figure 4: Semantics for COMET in $\mathcal{K}(D)$.

as $P(t(g_1, \ldots, g_n) = b)$, and should be thought of as the probability that $b$ will be the output if $g_1, \ldots, g_n$ are the inputs. The clauses are given in Figure 4.

The sums involved here are all well-defined because the function $P(t(\vec{g}) = -)$ has finite support for all $t$, $\vec{g}$.

Example 4 (Assert Maps). This definition gives the following semantics to the assert maps. Recall that we define

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{assert}_{\lambda x p}(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \triangleright_1 (\text{inst}_{\lambda x p}(t)) : A + 1$$

where $\Gamma \vdash t : A$ and $x : A \vdash p : 2$. We therefore have

$$P(\text{assert}_{\lambda x p}(t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_1(a)) = P(t(\vec{g}) = a)P(p(a) = \kappa_1(\star))$$

$$P(\text{assert}_{\lambda x p}(t)(\vec{g}) = \kappa_2(\star)) = \sum_{a \in A} P(t(\vec{g}) = a)P(p(a) = \kappa_2(\star))$$
Theorem 5 (Soundness).
1. If \( \Gamma \vdash t : A \) is derivable, then for all \( \vec{g} \in [\Gamma] \), we have \( P(t(\vec{g}) = -) \) is a probability distribution on \([A]\).
2. If \( \Gamma \vdash s = t : A \), then \( P(s(\vec{g}) = a) = P(t(\vec{g}) = a) \).

Proof. The proof is by induction on derivations. First prove \( P(t[x := s](\vec{g}, \vec{a}) = b) = \sum_{a \in [A]} P(s(\vec{g}) = a)P(t(\vec{d}, a) = b) \) whenever \( t[x := s] \) is well-typed.

As a corollary, we know that COMET is non-degenerate:

Corollary 6. Not every judgement is derivable; in particular, the judgement \( \vdash \top = \bot : 2 \) is not derivable.

4.2 Alternative Semantics

It is also possible to give semantics to COMET using continuous probabilities. We assign a measurable space \([A]\) to every type \(A\). Each term then gives a measurable function \([A_1] \times \cdots \times [A_n] \rightarrow [G][B]\), where \(GX\) is the space of all probability distributions over the measurable space \(X\). (\(G\) here is the Giry monad \([8, 10]\).)

If we remove the constants \(1/n\) from the system, we can give deterministic semantics to the subsystem, in which we assign a set to every type, and a function \([A_1] \times \cdots \times [A_n] \rightarrow [B]\) to every term.

More generally, we can give an interpretation of COMET in any commutative monoidal effectus with normalisation in which there exists a scalar \(s\) such that \(n \cdot s = 1\) for all positive integers \(n\) \([5]\). The three ways of giving semantics to COMET that we have described are three instances of this interpretation.

4.3 Note on Affine Type Theory

The diagonals or copiers in \(KL(D)\) are not natural. It is easy to see that the only arrow \(\delta_A : A \rightarrow A \otimes A\) that satisfies

\[
\pi_1 \circ \delta_A = \pi_2 \circ \delta_A = id_A
\]

is given by \(\delta_A(a) = 1|(a, a)\); that is, \(\delta_A(a)\) gives probability 1 to \((a, a)\), and probability 0 to all other pairs.

However, this family of arrows \(\delta_A\) is not natural in \(A\). Let \(f : A \rightarrow B\) be any morphism in \(KL(D)\).

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
A & \xrightarrow{\delta} & A \otimes A \\
\downarrow f & & \downarrow f \otimes f \\
B & \xrightarrow{\delta} & B \otimes B
\end{array}
\]

We have

\[
((f \otimes f) \circ \delta_A)(a)(b, b') = f(a)(b) \cdot f(a)(b')
\]

\[
(\delta_B \circ f)(a)(b, b') = \begin{cases} f(a)(b) & \text{if } b = b' \\ 0 & \text{if } b \neq b' \end{cases}
\]

There is therefore no way to give semantics to a type theory with contraction in \(KL(D)\) in such a way that the following substitution property holds, which was needed for the proof of the Soundness Theorem.
We presented an overview of the system in Section 2, and gave the intuitive meaning of the
Lemma 8. 1.
property shall hold.)

normalisation to states, we allow an arbitrary context in the conclusion so that the Weakening
The proof in each case is by induction on derivations. Each case is straightforward.

Proof.
Lemma 7.

The following lemma shows that substituting within our binding operations works as desired.
Lemma 8. 1. If \( \Gamma \vdash r : A \otimes B \); \( \Delta, x : A, y : B \vdash s : C \); and \( \Theta, z : C \vdash t : D \) then
\( \Gamma, \Delta, \Theta, t[z := \text{let } x \otimes y = r \text{ in } s] : \text{let } x \otimes y = r \text{ in } t[z := s] : D \).
2. If \( \Gamma \vdash r : A + B \); \( \Delta, x : A \vdash s : C \); \( \Delta, y : B \vdash s' : C \); and \( \Theta, z : C \vdash t : D \) then
\( \Gamma, \Delta, \Theta \vdash t[z := \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \rightarrow s | \text{inr } (y) \rightarrow s'] \).

Proof. For part 1, we us the following ‘trick’ to simulate local definition (see [1]):
\[ t[z := \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \rightarrow s | \text{inr } (y) \rightarrow s'] \]
\[ = \text{let } z \otimes _= \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \rightarrow s | \text{inr } (y) \rightarrow s' \otimes _* \text{ in } t \] \hspace{1cm} (\beta \otimes)\]
\[ = \text{let } z \otimes _= \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \rightarrow s \otimes _* | \text{inr } (y) \rightarrow s' \otimes _* \text{ in } t \] \hspace{1cm} (case-\otimes)\]
\[ = \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \rightarrow \text{let } z \otimes _= s \otimes _* \text{ in } t | \text{inr } (y) \rightarrow \text{let } z \otimes _= s' \otimes _* \text{ in } t \] \hspace{1cm} (let-case)\]
\[ = \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \rightarrow t[z := s] | \text{inr } (y) \rightarrow t[z := s'] \] \hspace{1cm} (\beta \otimes)\]
Part 2 is proven similarly using (let-\otimes) and (let-let).
We generalise the construction where \( \Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{let } \_ \text{ in } \_ = s \) in \( t \equiv t : C \).

Proof. These are both the special case where \( z \) does not occur free in \( t \).

$\triangleright$

\section{Coproducts}

We generalise the \( \text{inl}() \) and \( \text{inr}() \) constructions as follows. Define the predicate \( \text{in}_i?() \) on \( n \cdot A \), which tests whether a term comes from the \( i \)th component, as follows.

\[
in_i? (t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case}_j^n t \text{ of } \text{in}_j^n(\_) \mapsto \begin{cases} \top & \text{if } i = j \\ \bot & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}
\]

\section{The right() Construction}

$\triangleright$ \textbf{Lemma 10.} The \( \text{right}() \) construction satisfies analogous rules to the \( \text{left}() \) constructor:

1. If \( t : A + B \) and \( \text{inr}? (t) = \top : 2 \) then \( \text{right}(t) : B \).
2. If \( t = t' : A + B \) and \( \text{inr}? (t) = \top \) then \( \text{right}(t) = \text{right}(t') : B \).
3. If \( t : A + B \) and \( \text{in?}(t) = \top \) then \( t = \text{inr}(\text{right}(t)) : A + B \).
4. If \( t : B \) then \( t = \text{right}(\text{inr}(t)) \).

Proof. We prove parts 1 and 3 here. Suppose \( \text{inr}? (t) = \top \). Then we have

\[
\text{in?} (\text{swap}(t)) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{in?} (\text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{inr}(x) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y)) \\
= \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \top \text{ if } \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \bot \text{ (case-case) (\( \beta+1 \), \( \beta+2 \))}
\]

Therefore, \( \text{right}(t) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{left}(\text{swap}(t)) \) is well-typed with type \( B \), and

\[
\text{inr}(\text{right}(t)) = \text{swap } (\text{inl}(\text{right}(t))) \overset{(\beta+1)}{=} \text{swap } (\text{inl}(\text{left}(\text{swap}(t)))) \\
= \text{swap } (\text{swap}(t)) \overset{(\beta\text{left})}{=} \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{swap } (\text{inr}(x)) \mid \\
\text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{swap } (\text{inl}(y)) \text{ (case-case) (\( \beta\text{-eq} \), \( \beta+1 \), \( \beta+2 \))}
\]

$\triangleright$

\section{The swap() Operation}

$\triangleright$ \textbf{Lemma 11.}

1. Let \( \Gamma \vdash t : A + B \). Then

\[
\Gamma \vdash \triangleright_1 (\text{swap}(t)) = \triangleright_2(t) : B + 1 \\
\Gamma \vdash \triangleright_2 (\text{swap}(t)) = \triangleright_1(t) : A + 1
\]
2. Let $\Gamma \vdash t : A + A$. Then $\Gamma \vdash \nabla (\text{swap}(t)) = \nabla (t) : A$.

Proof. We prove the first of these here. We have

\[\nabla_1 (\text{swap}(t)) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case (case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{inr}(x) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y)) \text{ of} \]

\[\text{inl}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y) \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{inr}) = \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto (\text{case } \text{inr}(x) \mapsto \text{inl}(y) \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{inr})) \mid \]

\[\text{inr}(y) \mapsto (\text{case } \text{inl}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y) \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{inr})) \]

\[= \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{inr}) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y) \]

\[= \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{inr}) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y) \]

\[\overset{\text{def}}{=} \nabla_2 (t)\]

5.4 Kernels

\[\textbf{Lemma 12.}\]

1. Let $\Gamma \vdash t : A + 1$. Then $\Gamma \vdash t \downarrow = \bot$ if and only if $\Gamma \vdash t = \text{fail} : A + 1$.

2. Let $\Gamma \vdash s : A + 1$ and $\Delta, x : A \vdash t : B + 1$. Then $\Gamma, \Delta \vdash (\text{do } x \leftarrow s; t) \downarrow = \text{do } x \leftarrow s; t \downarrow : 2$.

Proof.

1. We have

\[\text{fail} \downarrow \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case } \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \top \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \bot \]

\[= \bot \quad \overset{(\beta+1)}{=} \]

For the converse, if $t \downarrow = \bot$ then

\[t \uparrow \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \bot \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \top \]

\[= \text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \top \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \bot \overset{(\text{case-eq}, (\beta+1), (\beta+2))}{=} \]

\[= (\text{case } t \text{ of } \text{inl}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \top \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \bot) \overset{(\text{Lemma 2})}{=} \]

\[\overset{\text{def}}{=} t \downarrow \]

\[= \bot \overset{(\text{case-eq})}{=} \top \overset{(\beta+2)}{=} \]

and so

\[t = \text{inr}(\text{right}(t)) \overset{(\text{Lemma 10.3})}{=} \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \overset{(\eta 1)}{=} \]

2. (case $s$ of $\text{inl}(x) \mapsto t \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \text{fail} \downarrow$

\[= \text{case } s \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto t \downarrow \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \text{fail} \downarrow \overset{(\text{Lemma 2})}{=} \]

\[= \text{case } s \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto t \downarrow \mid \text{inr}(\text{inl}) \mapsto \bot \overset{(\beta+1)}{=} \]

5.5 Ordering on Partial Maps and the Partial Sum

Note that, from the rules $(\odot)$ and $(\odot\text{-def})$, we have $\Gamma \vdash s \odot t : A + 1$ if and only if there exists $\Gamma \vdash b : (A + A) + 1$ such that

\[\Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \nabla_1 (x) = s : A + 1, \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \nabla_2 (x) = t : A + 1,\]
in which case \( \Gamma \vdash s \otimes t = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla(x) : A + 1 \). We say that such a term \( b \) is a bound for \( s \otimes t \). By the rule (JM) (see Appendix A.12), this bound is unique if it exists.

The set of partial maps \( A \rightarrow B + 1 \) between any two types \( A \) and \( B \) form a partial commutative monoid (PCM) with least element \( \text{fail} \), as shown by the following results.

\[\text{Lemma 13.}\]
1. If \( \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \) then \( \Gamma \vdash t \otimes \text{fail} = t : A + 1 \).
2. (Commutativity) If \( \Gamma \vdash s \otimes t : A + 1 \) then \( \Gamma \vdash t \otimes s : A + 1 \) and \( \Gamma \vdash s \otimes t = t \otimes s : A + 1 \).
3. (Associativity) \( \Gamma \vdash (r \otimes s) \otimes t : A + 1 \) if and only if \( \Gamma \vdash r \otimes (s \otimes t) : A + 1 \), in which case \( \Gamma \vdash r \otimes (s \otimes t) = (r \otimes s) \otimes t : A + 1 \).

**Proof.** We prove part 2 here. Let \( b \) be a bound for \( s \otimes t \). We shall prove that \( \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla x \) is a bound for \( t \otimes s \). We have

\[
\begin{align*}
do y & \leftarrow \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla x ; \triangleright_1(y) \\
& = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{do } y \leftarrow \text{return } \nabla x ; \triangleright_1(y) & \text{(do-do)} \\
& = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \triangleright_1(\text{return } \nabla x) & \text{(do-return)} \\
& = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \triangleright_2(x) & \text{(Lemma 11.1)} \\
& = t & \text{(by hypothesis)}
\end{align*}
\]

Similarly, \( \text{do } y \leftarrow \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla b ; \triangleright_2(y) = s \).

Now, we have

\[
\begin{align*}
t \otimes s &= \text{do } y \leftarrow (\text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla x) ; \text{return } \nabla(y) & \text{((\otimes-def)} \\
& = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{do } y \leftarrow \text{return } \nabla x ; \text{return } \nabla(y) & \text{(do-do)} \\
& = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla(\text{return } \nabla x) & \text{(do-return)} \\
& = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla x & \text{(Lemma 11.2)} \\
& = s \otimes t & \text{((\otimes-def)}
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{Lemma 14. Let } \Gamma \vdash r : A + 1 \text{ and } \Gamma \vdash s : A + 1. \text{ Then } \Gamma \vdash r \leq s : A + 1 \text{ if and only if there exists } t \text{ such that } \Gamma \vdash r \otimes t = s : A + 1.\]

**Proof.** Suppose \( r \leq s \). If \( b \) is such that \( \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \triangleright_1(x) = r \) and \( \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla x = s \) then take \( t = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \triangleright_2(x) \). We have \( r \otimes t = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla x \) by \(((\otimes-def)\) and so \( r \otimes t = s \).

Conversely, if \( r \otimes t = s \), then inverting the derivation of \( \Gamma \vdash r \otimes t : A + 1 \) we have that there exists \( b \) such that \( r = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \triangleright_1(x) \), \( t = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \triangleright_2(x) \) and \( s = r \otimes t = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla(x) \). Therefore, \( r \leq s \) by (order).

In this case, the bound for \( r \otimes t \) will also be called a bound for \( r \leq s \).

\[\text{Lemma 15.}\]
1. If \( \Gamma \vdash s \otimes t : A + 1 \) then \( \Gamma \vdash s \leq s \otimes t : A + 1 \) and \( \Gamma \vdash t \leq s \otimes t : A + 1 \).
2. If \( \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \) then \( \Gamma \vdash t \leq t : A + 1 \).
3. If \( \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \) then \( \Gamma \vdash \text{fail} \leq t : A + 1 \).
4. If \( \Gamma \vdash r \leq s : A + 1 \) and \( \Gamma \vdash s \leq t : A + 1 \) then \( \Gamma \vdash r \leq t : A + 1 \).
5. If \( \Gamma \vdash r \leq s : A + 1 \) and \( \Gamma \vdash s \otimes t : A + 1 \) then \( \Gamma \vdash r \otimes t \leq s \otimes t : A + 1 \).
Proof. Parts 1–4 follow by applying Lemma 14 to the appropriate part of Lemma 13. For part 5, let \( r \otimes x = s \). Then \( r \otimes x \otimes t = s \otimes t \) and so \( r \otimes t \leq s \otimes t \). \[\Box\]

On the predicates, we have the following structure, which shows that they form an effect algebra. (In fact, they have more structure: they form an effect module over the scalars, as we will prove in Proposition 20.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposition 16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If ( \Gamma \vdash p : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash p \otimes p^\perp = \top : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If ( \Gamma \vdash p \otimes q = \top : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash q = p^\perp : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>(Zero-One Law)</strong> If ( \Gamma \vdash p \otimes \top : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash p = \bot : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ( \Gamma \vdash p \otimes q : 2 ) if and only if ( \Gamma \vdash p \leq q^\perp : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Suppose ( \Gamma \vdash r : A + B ) and ( \Delta, x : A \vdash s \otimes t : C + 1 ) and ( \Delta, y : B \vdash s' \otimes t' : C + 1 ). Then ( \Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{case } r \text{ of inl } (x) \mapsto s \otimes t \mid \text{inr } (y) \mapsto s' \otimes t' : C + 1 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If ( \Gamma \vdash r : A + 1 ) and ( \Delta, x : A \vdash s \otimes t : B + 1 ) then ( \Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow r; s \otimes t = (\text{do } x \leftarrow r; s) \otimes (\text{do } x \leftarrow r; t) : B + 1 ).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proof. We prove part 2 here. Let \( b \) be a bound for \( p \otimes q \). We have

\[
\begin{align*}
\top &= p \otimes q \quad \text{(by hypothesis)} \\
&= \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla (x) \quad \text{(}\otimes\text{-def)} \\
&= \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \top \quad \text{(}\eta\text{1)} \\
&\overset{\text{def}}{=} b^\perp \\
\therefore b &= \text{return left } (b) \quad \text{(}\beta\text{left)} \\
\therefore p &= \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \triangleright_1 (x) \quad \text{(by hypothesis)} \\
&= \triangleright_1 (\text{left } (b)) \quad \text{(do-return)} \\
q &= \triangleright_2 (\text{left } (b)) \quad \text{(similarly)} \\
&= \triangleright_1 (\text{left } (b))^\perp \quad \text{(}\beta+1\text{), } (\beta+2\text{), (case-case)} \\
&= p^\perp
\end{align*}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corollary 17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>(Cancellation)</strong> If ( \Gamma \vdash p \otimes q = p \otimes r : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash q = r : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>(Positivity)</strong> If ( \Gamma \vdash p \otimes q = \bot : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash p = \bot : 2 ) and ( \Gamma \vdash q = \bot : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If ( \Gamma \vdash p : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash p \leq \top : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. If ( \Gamma \vdash p \leq q : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash q^\perp \leq p^\perp : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. If ( \Gamma \vdash p \leq q : 2 ) and ( \Gamma \vdash q \leq p : 2 ) then ( \Gamma \vdash p = q : 2 ).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proof. We prove part 1 here. We have

\[
\begin{align*}
p \otimes r \otimes (p \otimes q)^\perp &= p \otimes q \otimes (p \otimes q)^\perp \quad \text{(by hypothesis)} \\
&= \top \quad \text{(Proposition 16.1)} \\
\therefore q &= r = (p \otimes (p \otimes q)^\perp)^\perp \quad \text{(Proposition 16.2)}
\end{align*}
\]

\[\Box\]
5.6 Assert Maps

Recall that, for \(x : A \vdash p : 2\) and \(\Gamma \vdash t : A\), we define \(\Gamma \vdash \text{assert}_{\lambda x p}(t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Delta_1(\text{instr}_{\lambda x p}(t)) : A + 1\).

We now give rules for calculating \(\text{instr}_{\lambda x p}\) and \(\text{assert}_{\lambda x p}\) directed by the type.

\[\text{Lemma 18} ((\text{assert-scalar}). \text{ If } s : 2 \text{ then }\]
\[\vdash \text{assert}_{\lambda s}(s) = \text{instr}_{\lambda s}(s) = s : 2\]

\[\text{Proof.} \text{ We have } \nabla(s) = * \text{ by } (\eta 1) \text{ and } s_{\downarrow} = s \text{ by } (\eta +)\text{. The result follows by } (\eta \text{instr})\text{.} \]

\[\text{Lemma 19. The rules } (\text{instr+}) \text{ and } (\text{assert+}) \text{ are admissible (see Section 2.7.3).}\]

\[\text{Proof.} \text{ We shall prove the case } n = 2 \text{ of } (\text{instr+}) \text{ here. Let } x : A + B \vdash p : 2.\]

For \(x : A + B\), let us write \(f(x) : (A + B) + (A + B)\) for

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{case } x \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) & \mapsto \text{case instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inl}(a)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \mapsto \text{inl}(\text{inl}(t)) | \\
& \text{inr}(t) \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{inl}(t)) | \\
\text{inr}(y) & \mapsto \text{case instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inr}(b)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \mapsto \text{inl}(\text{inr}(t)) | \\
& \text{inr}(t) \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{inr}(t))
\end{align*}
\]

We shall prove \(f(x) = \text{instr}_{\lambda x p}(x)\).

We have

\[
\nabla(f(x)) = \text{case } x \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \mapsto \text{case instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inl}(a)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \mapsto \nabla(\text{inl}(\text{inl}(t))) | \\
& \text{inr}(t) \mapsto \nabla(\text{inr}(\text{inl}(t))) | \\
\text{inr}(y) & \mapsto \text{case instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inr}(b)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \mapsto \nabla(\text{inr}(\text{inl}(t))) | \\
& \text{inr}(t) \mapsto \nabla(\text{inr}(\text{inr}(t)))
\]

\[(\text{case-case})\]

\[
= \text{case } x \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(\text{case instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inl}(a)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \mapsto t | \\
& \text{inr}(t) \mapsto t | \\
\text{inr}(y) & \mapsto \text{inr}(\text{case instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inr}(b)]}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \mapsto t | \\
& \text{inr}(t) \mapsto t)
\]

\[(\text{Lemma 2})\]

\[
\overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case } x \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(\nabla(\text{instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inl}(a)]}(y))) | \\
\text{inr}(y) & \mapsto \text{inr}(\nabla(\text{instr}_{\lambda x p[x := \text{inr}(b)]}(y)))
\]

\[(\nabla\text{-instr})\]

\[
= \text{case } x \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \mapsto \text{inl}(y) | \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inr}(y)
\]

\[(\eta +)\]
We do not have conjunction or disjunction in our language for predicates over the same type, as this would involve duplicating variables. However, we do have the following

\[
\text{let } x = \text{case } \text{inl}(y) \Rightarrow \text{case } \text{instr}_{\lambda p::=\text{inl}(a)}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \Rightarrow \text{inl}(\text{inl}(t)) \\
\text{inr}(y) \Rightarrow \text{case } \text{instr}_{\lambda p::=\text{inr}(b)}(y) \text{ of } \text{inl}(t) \Rightarrow \text{inl}(\text{inr}(t)) \\
\text{inr}(t) \Rightarrow \text{inl}(\text{inr}(t))
\]

(Lemma 2)

\[
\text{def case } x \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \Rightarrow \text{inl}(\text{inr}(y)) \text{ | } \text{inr}(y) \Rightarrow \text{inl}(\text{inr}(y))
\]

= case \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \Rightarrow p(x := \text{inl}(y)) \text{ | } \text{inr}(y) \Rightarrow p(x := \text{inr}(y))

(instr-test)

= p[x := \text{case } x \text{ of } \text{inl}(y) \Rightarrow \text{inl}(y) \text{ | } \text{inr}(y) \Rightarrow \text{inr}(y)]

(Lemma 2)

= p

(\eta+)

Hence \( f(x) = \text{instr}_{\lambda x}(x) \) by (\eta\text{instr}) .

The rules (\text{instr} m) and (\text{assert} m) follow easily.

5.7 Sequential Conjunction

We do not have conjunction or disjunction in our language for predicates over the same type, as this would involve duplicating variables. However, we do have the following \textit{sequential conjunction}. (This was called the ‘and-then’ test operator in Section 9 in [9].)

Let \( x : A \vdash p, q : 2 \). We define the \textit{sequential conjunction} \( p \& q \) by

\[
x : A \vdash p \& q \text{ def } = \text{do } x \leftarrow \text{assert}_{\lambda x}(x); q : 2
\]

**Proposition 20.** Let \( x : A \vdash p, q : 2 \).

1. \( \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p\&q)}(x) = \text{case } \text{instr}_{\lambda x}(x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \Rightarrow \text{instr}_{\lambda x}(x) \text{ | } \text{inr}(y) \Rightarrow \text{inr}(y) \)
2. \( \text{assert}_{\lambda x(p\&q)}(x) = \text{do } x \leftarrow \text{assert}_{\lambda x}(x); \text{assert}_{\lambda x}(x) \)
3. (\textbf{Commutativity}) \( p \& q = q \& p \).
4. \( (p \& q) \& r = (p \& r) \& (q \& r) \) and \( p \& (q \& r) = (p \& q) \& (p \& r) \).
5. \( p \& \perp = \perp \& q = \perp \).
6. \( p \& T = p \text{ and } T \& q = q \).
7. \( p \& (q \& r) = (p \& q) \& r \).
8. If \( x \) does not occur free in \( q \), then \( p \& q = \text{case } p \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_ \Rightarrow q \text{ | } \text{inr}(\_ \Rightarrow \perp).} \)

**Proof.** We shall prove the first three parts here.
1. \( \text{inl?} (\text{case instr} \lambda x q (x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{instr} \lambda x q (x) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inr}(y)) \)  

\[ = \text{case instr} \lambda x q (x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{inl?} (\text{instr} \lambda x q (x)) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inl?} (\text{inr}(y)) \]  

\[ = \text{case instr} \lambda x q (x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto q \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \bot \]  

\[ \text{(case-case)} \frac{\text{(instr-test), } (\beta+2)}{\text{def} \text{ do } x \leftarrow \text{assert} \lambda x q (x) ; q} \]

\[ \text{def} = p \& q \]

\[ \nabla (\text{case instr} \lambda x q (x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \text{instr} \lambda x q (x) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \text{inr}(y)) \]

\[ = \text{case instr} \lambda x q (x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto \nabla (\text{instr} \lambda x q (x)) \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto \nabla (\text{inr}(y)) \]  

\[ = \text{case instr} \lambda x q (x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(x) \mapsto x \mid \text{inr}(y) \mapsto y \]  

\[ \text{(\nabla-instr), } (\beta+2) \frac{\text{(\nabla-instr)}}{\text{def} = \nabla (\text{instr} \lambda x q (x))} \]

\[ \text{def} = x \]  

\[ \text{so the result follows by } (\eta \text{inset}) . \]

2. This follows immediately from the previous part.

3. This follows from the previous part and the rule (comm) (Appendix A.12).

These results show that the scalars form an effect monoid, and the predicates on any type form an effect module over that effect monoid (see [9]).

### 5.8 n-tests

Recall that an n-test on a type \( A \) is an n-tuple \((p_1, \ldots, p_n)\) such that \( x : A \vdash p_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus p_n = \top : 2 \).

The following lemma shows that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the n-tests on \( A \), and the maps \( A \to n \).

> **Lemma 21.** For every n-test \((p_1, \ldots, p_n)\) on \( A \), there exists a term \( x : A \vdash t(x) : n \), unique up to equality, such that \( x : A \vdash p_i(x) = \triangleright_i(t(x)) : 2 \).

**Proof.** The proof is by induction on \( n \). The case \( n = 1 \) is trivial.

Suppose the result is true for \( n \). Take an \( n + 1 \)-test \((p_1, \ldots, p_{n+1})\). Then \((p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n \oplus p_{n+1})\) is an n-test. By the induction hypothesis, there exists \( t : n \) such that \( \triangleright_i(t) = p_i \) for \( i < n \) and \( \triangleright_n(t) = p_n \oplus p_{n+1} \). Let \( b : 3 \) be the bound for \( p_n \oplus p_{n+1} \). Reading \( t \) and \( b \) as partial functions in \( n - 1 + 1 = 2 + 1 \), we have that \( t \uparrow b \downarrow = p_n \oplus p_{n+1} \). Hence \( \triangleright_b(t) : 2 + n - 1 \) exists. Reading it as a term of type \( n + 1 \), we have that

\[
\triangleright_{b+1}^{n+1}(b, t) = \triangleright_{b+1}^{n-1}(b, t) \]  

\[ = \triangleright_{b+1}^{n}(b) \]  

\[ = p_n \]  

\[ (b \text{ is a bound for } p_n \oplus p_{n+1}) \]

\[
\triangleright_{b+1}^{n+2}(b, t) = \triangleright_{b+1}^{n-1}(b, t) \]  

\[ = \triangleright_{b+1}^{n}(b) \]  

\[ = p_{n+1} \]  

\[ (b \text{ is a bound for } p_n \oplus p_{n+1}) \]
Lemma 23.

\[
\text{for all } i, j, n, i < n: \\
\mathcal{P}_{i+2}^{n+1}(e_i t_s) = \mathcal{P}_{i}^{n-1}(\mathcal{P}_{i+2}^{2n-1}(e_i t_s)) \\
= \mathcal{P}_{i}^{n+1}(t) \\
= p_i \\
\]  

(induction hypothesis)

From this it is easy to construct the term of type \(n + 1\) required. ▷

We write \(\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(s)\) for \(\text{instr}_t(s)\), where \(t\) is the term such that \(\mathcal{P}_i(t) = p_i\) for each \(i\).

Lemma 22. \(\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x)\) is the unique term such that \(\text{in}_i? (\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x)) = p_i\) for all \(i\) and \(\nabla(\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x)) = x\).

Lemma 23.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x) &= \text{case}_{j=1}^n \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x) \text{ of } \text{in}_j^n(x) \\
&\quad \mapsto \begin{cases} 
\text{inl}(x) & \text{if } i = j \\
\text{inr}(x) & \text{if } i \neq j 
\end{cases} \\
\text{assert}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x) &= \text{case}_{j=1}^n \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x) \text{ of } \text{in}_j^n(x) \\
&\quad \mapsto \begin{cases} 
\text{return } x & \text{if } i = j \\
\text{fail} & \text{if } i \neq j 
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

Proof. Let \(t\) be the right-hand side of the first formula. Then

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{inl}(t) &= \text{in}_i? (\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x)) \\
&= p_i \quad \text{(case-case), } \beta_1, \beta_2 \\
\nabla(t) &= \text{case}_{j=1}^n \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x) \text{ of } \text{in}_j^n(x) \\
&\quad \mapsto x \quad \text{(case-case), } \beta_1, \beta_2 \\
\end{align*}
\]

The second formula follows easily from the first. ▷

We can now define the program that divides into \(n\) branches depending on the outcome of an \(n\)-test:

Definition 24. Given \(x : A \vdash p_1(x) \otimes \cdots \otimes p_n(x) = \top : 2\), define

\[
x : A \vdash \text{measure } p_1(x) \rightarrow t_1(x) | \cdots | p_n(x) \rightarrow t_n(x) \\
\text{def} \quad \text{case } \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_1, \ldots, p_n)}(x) \text{ of } \text{in}_1^n(x) \rightarrow t_1(x) | \cdots | \text{in}_n^n(x) \rightarrow t_n(x)
\]

Lemma 25. The measure construction satisfies the following laws.

1. (measure \( \top \rightarrow t \) = \( t \))
2. (measure \( p_1 \rightarrow t_1 | \cdots | p_n \rightarrow t_n | \bot \rightarrow t_{n+1} \) = (measure \( p_1 \rightarrow t_1 | \cdots | p_n \rightarrow t_n \))
3. (measure, \( p_i \rightarrow \text{measure, } q_{ij} \rightarrow t_{ij} \) = (measure, \( p_i \& q_{ij} \rightarrow t_{ij} \))
4. For any permutation \( \pi \) of \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \), measure, \( p_i \rightarrow t_i = \text{measure, } p_{\pi(i)} \rightarrow t_{\pi(i)} \).
5. If \( t_n = t_{n+1} \) then

\[
\text{measure}_{i=1}^{n+1} p_i \rightarrow t_i = \text{measure, } p_1 \rightarrow t_1 | \cdots | p_{n-1} \rightarrow t_{n-1} | p_n \& p_{n+1} \rightarrow t_n.
\]

Proof. We shall prove part 3. The proof for the other parts follows the same pattern.

Let us write \(\text{in}_{i,j}()\) (\(1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n_i\)) for the constructors of \((n_1 + \cdots + n_m) \cdot A\), and \(\text{in}_{i,j}?()\) for the corresponding predicates.
We shall first prove
\[
\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p,
q_{i,j}),i,j}(x) \\
= \text{case}_{\lambda i,j}^{n_i} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) \mapsto \text{case}_{\lambda j,j}^{n_j} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(q_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_j}(x) \mapsto \text{in}_{i,j}^{n_i,j}(x) \ . \tag{1}
\]

Let \( R \) denote the right-hand side of (1). We have
\[
\text{in}_{i,j}^{n_i,j}(R) = \text{case}_{\lambda i,j}^{n_i} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) \mapsto \\
= \text{case}_{\lambda j,j}^{n_j} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(q_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_j}(x) \mapsto \begin{cases} \\
\top & \text{if } i = i' \text{ and } j = j' \\
\bot & \text{otherwise} \\
\end{cases} \text{ (case-case), } (\beta +_1), (\beta +_2) \\
= \text{case}_{\lambda i,j}^{n_i} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) \mapsto \begin{cases} \\
q_{ij} & \text{if } i = i' \\
\bot & \text{if } i \neq i' \\
\end{cases} \text{ (instr-test) (Lemma 2)} \\
= \text{do } x \leftarrow \text{case}_{\lambda i,j}^{n_i} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) \mapsto \begin{cases} \\
\text{return } x & \text{if } i = i' \\
\text{fail} & \text{if } i \neq i' : q_{ij} \\
\end{cases} \text{ (case-case), } (\beta +_1), (\beta +_2) \\
= \text{do } x \leftarrow \text{assert}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) ; q_{ij} \text{ (by Lemma 23)} \\
\text{def } = p_i \& q_{ij} \\
\text{\nabla}(R) = \text{case}_{\lambda i,j}^{n_i} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) \mapsto \nabla(\text{instr}_{\lambda x(q_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_j}(x)) \text{ (case-case) (Lemma 23)} \\
= \text{case}_{\lambda i,j}^{n_i} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) \mapsto x \text{ (V-inetr) (Lemma 23)} \\
\text{def } = \nabla(\text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x)) = x
\]

Equation (1) follows by (\eta instr).

Now, we have
\[
\text{measure}_{i,j}(p_i \& q_{ij}) \mapsto t_{ij} \\
\text{def } = \text{case}_{i,j} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i},q_{i,j}),i,j}(x) \mapsto \text{measure}_{i,j}(t_{ij}) \\
= \text{case}_{i,j} R \text{ of } \text{in}_{i,j}(x) \mapsto \text{measure}_{i,j}(t_{ij}) \text{ by (1)} \\
= \text{case}_{i,j} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(p_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_i}(x) \mapsto \text{case}_{i,j} \text{instr}_{\lambda x(q_{i,j}),i,j}^{n_j}(x) \mapsto \text{measure}_{i,j}(t_{ij}) \text{ (case-case), } (\beta +_1), (\beta +_2) \\
\text{def } = \text{measure}_{i,j}(p_i \mapsto \text{measure}_{i,j}(q_{ij} \mapsto t_{ij})
\]

Let \( x : A \vdash p : 2 \) and \( \Gamma, x : A \vdash s, t : B \). We define \( \Gamma, x : A \vdash p \text{ if } p \text{ then } s \text{ else } t \text{ def } = \text{measure } p \mapsto s \mid p \mapsto t : B \).

\( \blacktriangleright \) Lemma 26.
1. If \( x : A \vdash p_1 \& \cdots \& p_n = \top : 2 \) and \( x : A \vdash q_1, \ldots, q_n : 2 \), then
\[
(\text{measure } p_1 \mapsto q_1 \mid \cdots \mid p_n \mapsto q_n) = (p_1 \& q_1) \& \cdots \& (p_n \& q_n) .
\]
2. Let \( x : A \vdash p : 2 \) and \( \Gamma \vdash q, r : B \) where \( x \notin \Gamma \). Then
\[
\Gamma, x : A \vdash \text{if } p \text{ then } q \text{ else } r = \text{case } p \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_\_\_\_\_) \mapsto q \mid \text{inr}(\_\_\_\_\_) \mapsto r : B .
\]
3. Let \( x : A \vdash p : 2 \). Then \( x : A \vdash \text{if } p \text{ then } \bot \text{ else } \bot = p : 2 \).

Proof. We prove part 2 here. We have

\[
\text{measure } p \mapsto q \mid p \mapsto r \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{case instr}_{\text{lexp}}(x) \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_ \mapsto q \mid \text{inr}(\_ \mapsto r ) = \text{case inl? } (\text{instr}_{\text{lexp}}(x)) \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_ \mapsto q \mid \text{inr}(\_ \mapsto r )}
\]

\[(\text{case-case}), (\beta + 1), (\beta + 2) = \text{case } p \text{ of } \text{inl}(\_ \mapsto q \mid \text{inr}(\_ \mapsto r )}
\]

\[
\text{(instr-test)}
\]

5.9 Scalars

From the rules given in Figure 2, the usual algebra of the rational interval from 0 to 1 follows.

\[\blacktriangleright \text{Lemma 27. } \text{If } p/q = m/n \text{ as rational numbers, then } \vdash p \cdot (1/q) = m \cdot (1/n) : 2. \]

Proof. We first prove that \( \vdash a \cdot (1/ab) = 1/b : 2 \) for all \( a, b \). This holds because \( ab \cdot (1/ab) = \top \) by \( (n \cdot 1/n) \), hence \( a \cdot (1/ab) = 1/b \) by \( \text{divide} \).

Hence we have \( p \cdot (1/q) = mn \cdot (1/nq) = qn \cdot (1/nq) = m \cdot (1/n) \).

Recall that within COMET, we are writing \( m/n \) for the term \( m \cdot (1/n) \). Similar reasoning leads us to

\[\blacktriangleright \text{Lemma 28. } \text{Let } q \text{ and } r \text{ be rational numbers in } [0, 1]. \]

1. If \( q \leq r \text{ in the usual ordering, then } \vdash q \leq r : 2 \).
2. \( \vdash q \oplus r : 2 \) iff \( q + r \leq 1 \), in which case \( \vdash q \oplus r = q + r : 2 \).
3. \( \vdash q \& r = qr : 2 \).

5.10 Normalisation

The following lemma gives us a rule that allows us to calculate the normalised form of a state in many cases, including the examples in Section 3.

\[\blacktriangleright \text{Lemma 29. } \text{Let } \vdash t : A + 1, \vdash p_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes p_n = \top : 2 \text{, and } \vdash q : 2. \text{ Let } s_1, \ldots, s_n : A. \text{ Suppose } \vdash 1/m \leq q : 2. \text{ If }\]

\[
\vdash t = \text{measure } p_1 \& q \mapsto \text{return } s_1 \mid \cdots \mid p_n \& q \mapsto \text{return } s_n \mid q^\perp \mapsto \text{fail} : A + 1, \text{ then } \]

\[
\vdash \text{nmr } (t) = \text{measure } p_1 \mapsto s_1 \mid \cdots \mid p_n \mapsto s_n : A
\]

Proof. Let \( \rho \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{measure}_{i=1}^n p_i \mapsto s_i \). By the rule \( \eta_{\text{nmr}} \), it is sufficient to prove that \( t = \text{do } \_ \leftarrow t; \text{return } \rho \). We have

\[
\text{do } \_ \leftarrow t; \text{return } \rho = \text{measure } p_1 \& q \mapsto \text{return } \rho \mid \cdots \mid p_n \& q \mapsto \text{return } \rho \mid q^\perp \mapsto \text{fail}
\]

\[(\text{case-case}), (\beta + 1), (\beta + 2) = \text{measure } q \mapsto \text{return } \rho \mid q^\perp \mapsto \text{fail}
\]

\[(\text{Lemma 25}) = \text{measure}_{i=1}^n q \& p_i \mapsto \text{return } s_i \mid q^\perp \mapsto \text{fail}
\]

\[(\text{Lemma 25}) = t
\]

\[(\text{Proposition 20})
\]

\[\blacktriangleright \text{Corollary 30. } \text{Let } \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n, \beta \text{ be rational numbers that sum to 1, with } \beta \neq 1. \text{ If }\]

\[
\vdash t = \text{measure } \alpha_1 \mapsto \text{return } s_1 \mid \cdots \mid \alpha_n \mapsto \text{return } s_n \mid \beta \mapsto \text{fail} : A + 1, \text{ then } \]

\[
\vdash \text{nmr } (t) = \text{measure } \alpha_1/(\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n) \mapsto s_1 \mid \cdots \mid \alpha_n/(\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n) \mapsto s_n : A
\]

\]
6 Conclusion

The system COMET allows for the specification of probabilistic programs and reasoning about their properties, both within the same syntax.

There are several avenues for further work and research.

- The type theory that we describe can be interpreted both in discrete and in continuous probabilistic models, that is, both in the Kleisli category $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{D})$ of the distribution monad $\mathcal{D}$ and in the Kleisli category $\mathcal{K}(\mathcal{G})$ of the Giry monad $\mathcal{G}$. On a finite type each distribution is discrete. The discrete semantics were exploited in the current paper in the examples in Section 3. In a follow-up version we intend to elaborate also continuous examples.

- The normalisation and conditioning that we use in this paper can in principle also be used in a quantum context, using the appropriate (non-side-effect free) assert maps that one has there. This will give a form of Bayesian quantum theory, as also explored in [17].

- A further ambitious follow-up project is to develop tool support for COMET, so that the computations that we carry out here by hand can be automated. This will provide a formal language for Bayesian inference.

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References


A Type Theory for Probabilistic and Bayesian Reasoning


\textbf{A} \textbf{Formal Presentation of COMET}

The full syntax of COMET is given by the grammar:

\begin{align*}
\text{Type } & A, B ::= C | 0 | 1 | A + B | A \otimes B \\
\text{Term } & r, s, t ::= x | \ast | s \otimes t | \text{let } x \otimes y = s \text { in } t | \text{inl } (t) | \text{inr } (t) | (\text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl } (x) \mapsto \rightarrow s | \text{inr } (y) \mapsto \rightarrow t) | \langle s, t \rangle | 1/n | b_{mn} \\
& \text{nm } (t) | s \otimes t
\end{align*}

We have a constant $1/n$ for every natural number $n \geq 2$, and a constant $b_{mn}$ for all natural numbers $1 \leq m < n$.

The full set of rules of deduction for COMET are given below.

\textbf{A.1 Structural Rules}

\begin{align*}
\text{(exch) } & \frac{\Gamma, x : A, y : B, \Delta \vdash J}{\Gamma, y : B, x : A, \Delta \vdash J} \quad \text{(var) } \frac{x : A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : A} \\
\text{(ref) } & \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A}{\Gamma \vdash t = t : A} \quad \text{(sym) } \frac{\Gamma \vdash s = t : A}{\Gamma \vdash t = s : A} \quad \text{(trans) } \frac{\Gamma \vdash r = s : A \quad \Gamma \vdash s = t : A}{\Gamma \vdash r = t : A}
\end{align*}

\textbf{A.2 The Unit Type}

\begin{align*}
\text{(unit) } & \frac{\Gamma \vdash \ast : 1}{\Gamma \vdash t = \ast : 1} \quad \text{(\eta \ast) } \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : 1}{\Gamma \vdash t = \ast : 1}
\end{align*}

\textbf{A.3 Tensor Product}

\begin{align*}
\text{(\otimes) } & \frac{\Gamma \vdash s : A \quad \Delta \vdash t : B}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash s \otimes t : A \otimes B} \quad \text{(let) } \frac{\Gamma \vdash s : A \otimes B \quad \Delta, x : A, y : B \vdash t : C}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash \text{let } x \otimes y = s \text { in } t : C} \\
\text{(\beta \otimes) } & \frac{\Gamma \vdash r : A \quad \Theta, x : A, y : B \vdash t : C}{\Gamma, \Delta, \Theta \vdash (\text{let } x \otimes y = r \otimes s \text { in } t) = t[x := r, y := s] : C} \\
\text{(\eta \otimes) } & \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A \otimes B}{\Gamma \vdash t = (\text{let } x \otimes y = t \text { in } x \otimes y) : A \otimes B}
\end{align*}
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A.4 Empty Type

\[ \Gamma \vdash t : 0 \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \mathrm{inl} : A \]

A.5 Binary Coproducts

\[ \Gamma \vdash t : A \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \mathrm{inl} : A + B \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash t : B \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \mathrm{inr} : A + B \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash t = t' : A + B \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash \Delta, x : A, y : B \vdash s : C \]

\[ \Theta, z : C, w : D \vdash t : E \]

\[ \Gamma, \Delta, \Theta \vdash \text{let } x \otimes y = r \text{ in (let } z \otimes w = s \text{ in } t) \]

\[ = \text{let } z \otimes w = (\text{let } x \otimes y = r \text{ in } s) \text{ in } t : E \]

\[ \Gamma, \Delta, \Theta \vdash \text{let } x \otimes y = r \text{ in } (s \otimes t) = (\text{let } x \otimes y = r \text{ in } s) \otimes t : D \]
\[\Gamma \vdash r : A + B \quad \Delta, z : A \vdash s : C \otimes D\]
\[\Delta, w : B \vdash s' : C \otimes D \quad \Theta, x : C, y : D \vdash t : E\]
\[\Gamma, \Delta, \Theta \vdash x \otimes y = \text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl}(z) \mapsto s \mid \text{inr}(w) \mapsto s' \text{ in } t =\]
\[\text{case } r \text{ of } \text{inl}(z) \mapsto \text{let } x \otimes y = s \text{ in } t \mid\]
\[\text{inr}(w) \mapsto \text{let } x \otimes y = s' \text{ in } t : E\]

**A.6 Partial Pairing**

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash s : A + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t : B + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash s \downarrow t \vdash 2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(s, t) : A \otimes B}
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash s = s' : A + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t = t' : B + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash s \downarrow t \vdash 2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(s, t) = \text{inr}(s', t') : A \otimes B}
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash s : A + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t : B + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash s \downarrow t \vdash 2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(s, t) = s : A + 1}
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash s : A + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t : B + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash s \downarrow t \vdash 2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr}(s, t) = t : B + 1}
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A + B}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(t) : A}
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t = t' : A + B \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(t) = \text{inl}(t') : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(t) = \text{inl}(t') : A}
\]

**A.7 The left() Construction**

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A + B \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(t) = \top : 2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{left}(t) : A}
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t = t' : A + B \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(t) = \top : 2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{left}(t) = \text{left}(t') : A}
\]

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A + B \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(t) = \top : 2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl}(t) = t : A}
\]

**A.8 Instruments**

\[
\frac{x : A + t : n \quad \Gamma \vdash s : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{instr}_{A,t}(s) : n \cdot A}
\]

\[
\frac{x : A + t : n \quad \Gamma \vdash s : A}{\Gamma \vdash \nabla(\text{instr}_{A,t}(s)) = s : A}
\]

\[
\frac{x : A + t : n \quad \Gamma \vdash s = s' : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{instr}_{A,t}(s) = \text{instr}_{A,t}(s') : n \cdot A}
\]

\[
\frac{x : A + t : n \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{case }_{\text{in}^n}(\text{in}^n(s))}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case } i = t[x := s] : n}
\]

\[
\frac{x : A + t : n \quad \Gamma \vdash s : A}{\Gamma \vdash \text{instr}_{A,t,\text{case }}_{\text{in}^n(\text{in}^n(s))} = r[x := s] : n \cdot A}
\]
A.9 Scalar Constants

For any natural number $n \geq 2$, we have the following rules.

\[
\begin{align*}
(\div) & \quad \Gamma \vdash n \cdot t = \top : 2 \\
(b_{mn}) & \quad \Gamma \vdash b_{mn} : 3 \\
(\succ_{1} - b_{mn}) & \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b_{mn}; \succ_{1}(x) = 1/n : 2 \\
(\succ_{2} - b_{mn}) & \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b_{mn}; \text{return } \nabla(x) = m \cdot 1/n : 2
\end{align*}
\]

These ensure that $1/n$ is the unique scalar whose sum with itself $n$ times is $\top$. The term $b_{mn}$ ensures that the term $(m+1) \cdot 1/n$ is well-typed.

A.10 Normalisation

\[
\begin{align*}
(\text{nrm}) & \quad \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash 1/n \leq t : 2 \\
(\beta_{\text{nrm}}) & \quad \Gamma \vdash t = \text{do } _{-} \leftarrow t; \text{return } \text{nrm}(t) : A + 1 \\
(\eta_{\text{nrm}}) & \quad \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \quad \Gamma \vdash 1/n \leq t : 2 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \rho : A \quad \Gamma \vdash t = \text{do } _{-} \leftarrow t; \text{return } \rho : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \rho = \text{nrm}(t) : A
\end{align*}
\]

A.11 Partial Sum

\[
\begin{align*}
(\otimes) & \quad \Gamma \vdash s : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash b : (A + A) + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \succ_{1}(x) = s : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \succ_{2}(x) = t : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash s \otimes t : A + 1 \\
(\otimes\text{-def}) & \quad \Gamma \vdash s : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash t : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash b : (A + A) + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \succ_{1}(x) = s : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \succ_{2}(x) = t : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash s \otimes t = \text{do } x \leftarrow b; \text{return } \nabla(x) : A + 1
\end{align*}
\]

A.12 Miscellaneous

\[
\begin{align*}
(JM) & \quad \Gamma \vdash s = t : (A + A) + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash s : (A + A) + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash t : (A + A) + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow s; \succ_{1}(x) = \text{do } x \leftarrow t; \succ_{1}(x) : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } x \leftarrow s; \succ_{2}(x) = \text{do } x \leftarrow t; \succ_{2}(x) : A + 1 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash s = t : (A + A) + 1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
(\text{comm}) & \quad x : A \vdash p : 2 \\
& \quad x : A \vdash q : 2 \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash t : A \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{do } y \leftarrow \text{\text{assert}}_{\lambda x p}(t); \text{\text{assert}}_{\lambda x q}(y) = \text{do } y \leftarrow \text{\text{assert}}_{\lambda x q}(t); \text{\text{assert}}_{\lambda x p}(y) : A + 1
\end{align*}
\]