# On Higher-Order Probabilistic Computation: <br> Relational Reasoning, Termination, and Bayesian Programming 

## Ugo Dal Lago

(Based on joint work with Michele Alberti, Raphaëlle Crubillé, Charles Grellois, Davide Sangiorgi,...)


IFIP WG 2.2 Annual Meeting, Brno, September 17th

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- Abstractions:
- (Labelled) Markov Chains.


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- Example:

Input: $n>3$, an odd integer to be tested for primality;
Input: $k$, a parameter that determines the accuracy of the test
Output: composite if $n$ is composite, otherwise probably prime
write $n-1$ as $2^{s} \cdot d$ with $d$ odd by factoring powers of 2 from $n-1$
WitnessLoop: repeat $k$ times:
pick a random integer a in the range $[2, n-2]$
$x \leftarrow a^{d} \bmod n$
if $x=1$ or $x=n-1$ then do next WitnessLoop
repeat $s-1$ times:
$x \leftarrow x^{2} \bmod n$
if $x=1$ then return composite
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- Abstractions:
- Randomized algorithms;
- Probabilistic Turing machines.
- Labelled Markov chains.


## Randomized Computation



ALGORITHMICS


## Randomized Computation

## MONOGRAPHS IN COMPUTER SCIENCE

## ABSTRACTION, REFINEMENT AND PROOF FOR PROBABILISTIC SYSTEMS

## Annabelle Mclver

Carroll Morgan


Q Springer

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\begin{array}{ll}
\text { foldr } & :=(a->b->b) \rightarrow b->[a]->b \\
\text { foldr } f \text { acc }[] & =\text { acc } \\
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- Models:
- $\lambda$-calculus

Higher-Order Computation


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## Higher-Order Computation

## STUDIES IN LOGIC

AND
THEFOUNDATIONSOFMATHEMATICS
vOLuME M3
 spitoss

## The Lambila Caleulus

Its Syntax and Semanties
nevised epinow
H.P. BARENDREGT

NOETN- v0LLAND


# Higher-Order Probabilistic Computation 

Does it Make Sense?

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Applications?

[DanosHarmer] [JungTix]

... too many
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## Outline

Part I Relational Reasoning
Part II Bayesian Functional Programming Part III Termination

## Part I

## Relational Reasoning

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- Value Distributions:

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V \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{D}(V) \in \mathbb{R}_{[0,1]} \quad \sum \mathcal{D}=\sum_{V} \mathcal{D}(V) \leq 1 .
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- Value Distributions:

| $C::=[\cdot]$ | $\lambda x . C$ | $C M$ | $M C$ | $C \oplus M$ | $M \oplus C$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

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- Context Equivalence: $M \equiv N$ iff for every context $C$ it holds that $\sum \llbracket C[M] \rrbracket=\sum \llbracket C[N] \rrbracket$.
- Context Distance: $\delta^{C}(M, N)=\sup _{C}\left|\sum \llbracket C[M] \rrbracket-\sum \llbracket C[N] \rrbracket\right|$.

Examples

$$
I \oplus \Omega \quad \text { vs. } \quad I
$$

Examples


Examples


Exam Not Context Equivalent: $C=[\cdot]$.
Context Distance? Consider $C_{n}=(\lambda x . \underbrace{x \ldots x}_{n \text { times }})[\cdot]$.

## $I \oplus \Omega$ <br> s. $\quad I$

Examples

$$
\begin{array}{llc}
I \oplus \Omega & \text { vs. } & I \\
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## Examples

Not Context Equivalent: $C=[\cdot]$.
Context Distance? Cannot Easily Amplify.

$\Omega$

## Examples

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\begin{array}{rll}
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(\lambda x . I) \oplus(\lambda x . \Omega) & \text { vs. } & \lambda x . I \oplus \Omega
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Not Context Equivalent in CBV: $C=(\lambda x \cdot x(x I))[\cdot]$ Apparently Context Equivalent in CBN.

$$
(\lambda x . I) \oplus(\lambda x . \Omega) \quad \text { s. } \quad \lambda x . I \oplus \Omega
$$

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\begin{array}{rll}
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Y_{1} & \text { vs. } & Y_{2}
\end{array}
$$

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## A Labelled Markov Chain for $\Lambda_{\oplus}$

Terms

## A Labelled Markov Chain for $\Lambda_{\oplus}$

Terms
Values

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Terms
Values

$$
M
$$

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Terms
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Terms
Values

$$
\lambda x . N
$$

## A Labelled Markov Chain for $\Lambda_{\oplus}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Terms } \\
& \\
& N\{W / x\} \rightleftarrows \\
& \longleftrightarrow \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

## Probabilistic Applicative Bisimulation

$\lambda x . M \mathcal{R} \quad \lambda x . N$

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$$
M \mathcal{R} N
$$

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## Applicative Bisimilarity vs. Context Equivalence

- Bisimilarity: the union $\sim$ of all bisimulation relations.
- Is it that $\sim$ is included in $\equiv$ ? How to prove it?
- Natural strategy: is $\sim$ a congruence?
- If this is the case:

$$
\begin{aligned}
M \sim N & \Longrightarrow C[M] \sim C[N] \Longrightarrow \sum \llbracket C[M] \rrbracket=\sum \llbracket C[N] \rrbracket \\
& \Longrightarrow M \equiv N
\end{aligned}
$$

- This is a necessary sanity check anyway.
- The naïve proof by induction fails, due to application: from $M \sim N$, one cannot directly conclude that $L M \sim L N$.


## Howe's Technique

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## Our Neighborhood

- $\Lambda$, where we observe convergence

|  | $\sim \subseteq \equiv$ | $\equiv \subseteq \sim$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $C B N$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| $C B V$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |

[Abramsky 1990, Howe1993]

- $\Lambda_{\oplus}$ with nondeterministic semantics, where we observe convergence, in its may or must flavors.

|  | $\sim \subseteq \equiv$ | $\equiv \subseteq \sim$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $C B N$ | $\checkmark$ | $\times$ |
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[Ong1993, Lassen1998]

## The Probabilistic Case

- $\Lambda_{\oplus}$ with probabilistic semantics.

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- Counterexample for $\mathrm{CBN}:(\lambda x . I) \oplus(\lambda x . \Omega) \nsim \lambda x . I \oplus \Omega$
- Where these discrepancies come from?


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- Where these discrepancies come from?
- From testing!
- Bisimulation can be characterized by testing equivalence as follows:

| Calculus | Testing |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\Lambda$ | $T::=\omega \mid a \cdot T$ |  |  |
| $P \Lambda_{\oplus}$ | $T::=\omega\|a \cdot T\|\langle T, T\rangle$ |  |  |
| $N \Lambda_{\oplus}$ | $T::=\omega\|a \cdot T\| \wedge_{i \in I} T_{i} \mid \ldots$ |  |  |

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- $\Lambda_{\oplus}$ with probabilistic semantics.

|  | $\precsim \subseteq \leq$ | $\leq \subseteq \precsim$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
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- Full abstraction can be recovered if endowing $\Lambda_{\oplus}$ with parallel disjunction [CDLSV2015].

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$$
\text { Cor } \begin{array}{llllll}
\overline{\Gamma, x \vdash x} & \frac{x, \Gamma \vdash M}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x \cdot M} & \frac{\Gamma \vdash M}{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash M N} & \frac{\Gamma \vdash M}{\Gamma \vdash M \oplus N} \\
\hline
\end{array}
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- Trace Distance $\delta^{t}$.
- The maximum distance induced by traces, i.e., sequences of actions: $\delta^{t}(M, N)=\sup _{\mathrm{T}}|\operatorname{Pr}(M, \mathrm{~T})-\operatorname{Pr}(N, \mathrm{~T})|$.


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- Soundness and Completeness Results:

| $\delta^{b} \leq \delta^{c}$ | $\delta^{c} \leq \delta^{b}$ | $\delta^{t} \leq \delta^{c}$ | $\delta^{c} \leq \delta^{t}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\checkmark$ | $\times$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |

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- Example: $\delta^{t}(I, I \oplus \Omega)=\delta^{t}(I \oplus \Omega, \Omega)=\frac{1}{2}$.


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- A Tuple LMC.
- Preterms:

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- Terms: any preterm $M$ such that $\Gamma \vdash M$.
- States: sequences of terms, rather than terms.
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| $\delta^{t} \leq 0$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| distance look lik |  |
| $\checkmark$ |  |
|  | $\checkmark$ |

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## Part II

## Bayesian Functional Programming






1. normalize(
2. let $x=\operatorname{sample}\left(\operatorname{bern}\left(\frac{5}{7}\right)\right)$ in
3. let $r=$ if $x$ then 10 else 3 in
4. observe 4 from poisson $(r)$;
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## Bayesian Functional Programming



## Bayesian Functional Programming

| - 0 - ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | $\equiv$ hakaru-dev.github.io ¢ ¢ 回 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Hakaru Introduction v |  |
| Quick Start: A Mixture Model Example <br> Modeling a Bernoulli Experiment <br> Creating a Mixture Model <br> Conditioning a Hakaru Program | Quick Start: A Mixture Model Example <br> Let's start with a simple model of a coin toss experiment so that you can become familiar with some of Hakaru's data types and functionality. We will assume that a single coin flip can be represented using a Bernoulli distribution. After we have created the Bernoulli model, we will use it to create a mixture model and condition the model to estimate what the original coin toss experiment looked like based on the resulting mixture model samples. <br> Modeling a Bernoulli Experiment <br> We will use the categorical Hakaru Random Primitive to write a Bernoulli distribution ${ }^{1}$ for our model. The categorical primitive requires an array representing the probability of achieving each category in the experiement. Let's start with a fair experiment and state that each side of the coin has an equal chance of being picked. The result of the coin toss is stored in the variable b using Hakaru's notation for bind: $\mathrm{b}<\sim \text { categorical([0.5, 0.5]) }$ <br> For data type simplicity, we will map Heads to true and Tails to false. By putting the values of true and false into an array, we can use the value in $b$ to select which of them to return as the result of the coin toss: return [true, false] [b] <br> A characteristic of the Bernoulli distribution is that it assumes that only one experiment is enndurted To collest samnles we need to run this exneriment multinle times Tn aid in this task |

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## Bayesian Programming: Semantics

- Giving semantics to programming languages like Anglican or Hakaru is nontrivial:
- Real numbers;
- Sampling from continuous distributions;
- Conditioning.


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\frac{M \Downarrow \mathscr{K} \frac{\left\{P[N / x] \Downarrow \mathscr{E}_{P}\right\}_{\lambda x . P \in \mathrm{~S} \mathscr{K}}}{M N \Downarrow \sum_{\lambda x \cdot P \in \mathrm{~S} \mathscr{K}} \mathscr{K}(\lambda x . P) \cdot \mathscr{E}_{P}}}{\text { 位 }}
$$

we go to

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- Te - We must ensure that $\Downarrow$ ucture of a
- From



## Part III

## Termination

## The Landscape: Type Theory

## Simple Types <br> $\tau::=\iota \quad \tau \rightarrow \tau$

## The Landscape: Type Theory

## Simple Types



- Sound for termination, in absence of recursion.
- Poor expressive power.
- Intuitionistic Logic.


## The Landscape: Type Theory

Simple Types
$\tau::=\iota \quad \tau \rightarrow \tau$


Polymorphic
Types
$\tau::=\cdots|\alpha| \forall \alpha . \tau$

## The Landscape: Type Theory

- Second-order Logic.
- Very expressive, extensionally.
- Still poor, intensionally.

Polymorphic
Types

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## The Landscape: Type Theory



## The Landscape: Type Theory



## The Landscape: Type Theory



## The Landscape: Type Theory



## The Landscape: Recursion Theory

## Determinism

$$
M \bar{s} \rightarrow{ }^{*} N_{s}
$$

## The Landscape: Recursion Theory

## Determinism

$M \bar{s} \rightarrow{ }^{*} N_{s}$
$\llbracket M \bar{s} \rrbracket=\mathcal{D}_{s}$

## The Landscape: Recursion Theory

## $\sum \mathcal{D}_{s}$ can be smaller than 1.

## Determinism

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## The Landscape: Recursion Theory

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Termination $\quad \exists N_{s} \in N F$

## The Landscape: Recursion Theory



## Probabilism

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## The Landscape: Recursion Theory



## Probabilism

$\llbracket M \bar{s} \rrbracket=\mathcal{D}_{s}$
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Uniform Termination

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- But us less as a programming language.
- For every type $\tau$, define a set of reducible terms $\operatorname{Red}_{\tau}$.
- Prove that all reducible terms are normalizing. . .
- ... and that all typable terms are reducible.


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## Deterministic Sized Types, Technically

- Types.

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\xi::=a|\omega| \xi+1 ; \quad \tau::=\iota[\xi] \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau
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\begin{aligned}
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& \text { Index Terms } \\
&
\end{aligned}
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- Typing Fixpoints.
- Reducibility sets are of the form $\operatorname{Red} \theta_{\tau}^{\theta}$.
- $\theta$ is an environment for index variables.
- Proof of reducibility for fix $x . M$ is rather delicate.
- Termination.
- Proved by Reducibility.
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- Quite Powerful.
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- Termination.
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- ... but of an indexed form.
- Type Inference.
- It is indeed decidable.
- But nontrivial.


## Probabilistic Termination

- Examples:
fix $f . \lambda x$.if $x>0$ then if FairCoin then $f(x-1)$ else $f(x+1)$;
fix $f . \lambda x$.if $x>0$ then if BiasedCoin then $f(x-1)$ else $f(x+1)$;
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- Non-Examples:

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& \text { fix } f . \lambda x \text {.if FairCoin then } f(x-1) \text { else }(f(x+1) ; f(x+1)) \text {; } \\
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Unbiased Random Walk, with two upward calls.

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$$

- Probabilistic termination is thus:
- Sensitive to the actual distribution from which we sample.
- Sensitive to how many recursive calls we perform.


## One-Counter Blind Markov Chains

- They are automata of the form $(Q, \delta)$ where
- $Q$ is a finite set of states.
- $\delta: Q \rightarrow \operatorname{Dist}(Q \times\{-1,0,1\})$.
- They are a very special form of One-Counter Markov Decision Processeses [BBEK2011].
- The model is fully probabilistic, there is no nondeterminism.
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- They are a very special form of One-Counter Markov Decision Processeses [BBEK2011].
- The model is fully probabilistic, there is no nondeterminism.
- The counter value is ignored.
- The probability of reaching a configuration where the counter is 0 can be approximated arbitrarily well in polynomial time.


## Probabilistic Sized Types [DLGrellois2017]

- Basic Idea: craft a sized-type system in such a way as to mimick the recursive structure by a OCBMC.


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Every higher-order variable occurs at most once.

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&
\end{array} \\
& \text { This is sufficient for typing: } \\
& \text { - Unbiased random walks; } \\
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- Typing Probabilistic Choice

$$
\frac{\Gamma|\Delta \vdash M: \tau \quad \Gamma| \Omega \vdash N: \rho}{\Gamma \left\lvert\, \frac{1}{2} \Delta+\frac{1}{2} \Omega \vdash M \oplus N\right.: \frac{1}{2} \tau+\frac{1}{2} \rho}
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- By a quantitative nontrivial refinement of reducibility.


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- Tvping Fixpoints.
- Reducibility sets are now on the form $\operatorname{Red}_{\tau}^{\theta, p}$
- $p$ stands for the probability of being reducible.
- Reducibility sets are continuous:

$$
\operatorname{Red}_{\tau}^{\theta, p}=\bigcup_{q<p} \operatorname{Red}_{\tau}^{\theta, q}
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## Deterministic Intersection Types

- Question: what are simple types missing as a way to precisely capture termination?


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- Typing Rules: Examples

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- Termination
- Again by reducibility.
- Completeness
- By subject expansion, the dual of subject reduction.


## Oracle Intersection Types [BreuvartDL2017]

- Probabilistic choice can be seen as a form of read operation:

$$
M \oplus N=\text { if BitInput then } M \text { else } N
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$$

## Oracle Intersection Types [BreuvartDL2017]

- Probabilistic choice can be seen as a form of read operation:

$$
M \oplus N=\text { if BitInput then } M \text { else } N
$$

- Types

$$
\tau::=\star \mid A \rightarrow s \cdot B \quad A::=\left\{\tau_{1}, \ldots, \tau_{n}\right\} \quad s \in\{0,1\}^{*}
$$

- Typing Rules: Examples

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash M: s \cdot A}{\Gamma \vdash M \oplus N: 0 s \cdot A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M: r \cdot\{A \rightarrow s \cdot B\} \quad \Gamma \vdash N: q \cdot A}{\Gamma \vdash M N:(r q s) \cdot B}
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- Termination and Completeness
- Formulated in a rather unusual way.
- Proved as usual, but relative to a single probabilistic branch


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\begin{aligned}
& \tau::=\star \mid A \rightarrow s \cdot B \quad A::=\left\{\tau_{1}, \ldots, \tau_{n}\right\} \quad s \in\{0,1\}^{*} \\
& \mathbb{P}(M \downarrow)=\sum_{\vdash M: s \cdot \star} 2^{|s|} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash M: s \cdot A}{\Gamma \vdash M \oplus N: 0 s \cdot A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M}{\frac{r \cdot\{A \rightarrow s \cdot B\} \quad \Gamma \vdash N: q \cdot A}{\Gamma \vdash M N:(r q s) \cdot B}}
\end{aligned}
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This is unavoidable, due to recursion theory. $\mid \vdash N: q \cdot A$

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## Intersection Types and Computations



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## Intersection Types and Computations

Monadic Intersection Types [BDL2017]

- They are a combination of oracle and sized types.
- Intersections are needed for preciseness.
- Distributions of types allow to analyse more than one probabilistic branch in the same type derivation.


These Slides, and More...

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#  

Questions?

