

1 Compositional Generator Equivalence

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3 Property-based testing (PBT) is a powerful technique for software verification that relies on random input
4 generators and “shrinking” processes to find and minimize counterexamples to executable specifications
5 called properties. While optimizing these generators is crucial for testing efficiency, formally justifying
6 such optimizations is currently difficult because existing languages lack a compositional semantics that is
7 coarse-grained enough for high-level reasoning.

8 In this paper, we first provide a formal account of the syntax and semantics of Hedgehog, a popular PBT
9 framework. We demonstrate that Hedgehog’s distribution semantics — which models how users typically
10 reason about generators — is non-compositional. Furthermore, we prove that any sound and complete
11 compositional semantics for Hedgehog must necessarily be equivalent to its sampling semantics, which is too
12 fine-grained to justify common program optimizations.

13 To resolve this dilemma, we introduce Hedgehog \rightarrow , a restricted version of the language based on the
14 arrow calculus, and prove that Hedgehog \rightarrow possesses a compositional distribution semantics. We evaluate
15 Hedgehog \rightarrow through a Haskell implementation and show that it remains expressive enough to capture
16 generators of practical interest, while providing the formal foundation needed for compositional generator
17 equivalence proofs.

18 CCS Concepts: • **Theory of computation → Probabilistic computation; Denotational semantics;**
19 **Program reasoning.**

20 Additional Key Words and Phrases: Property-Based Testing, Denotational Semantics, Probabilistic Programming,
21 Program Equivalence

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25 1 Introduction

26 *Property-based testing* (PBT) is a powerful tool for identifying software bugs. Users provide an
27 executable specification — or *property* — to a *PBT framework*, which automatically checks the
28 specification against a *system under test* (SUT) over a wide range of randomly generated inputs (or
29 *test cases*). If the framework finds a *counterexample* — a test case that causes the SUT to violate the
30 specification — then the framework computes and reports a minimal counterexample.

31 A property consists of three components: (1) *generators*, which compute random test cases, (2) an
32 *oracle*, which decides if a test case is a counterexample, and (3) *shrinkers*, which compute a set of “smaller”
33 test cases from an existing test case. A property’s components are integral to the
34 operation of a PBT framework, which consists of two stages: testing and shrinking. The *testing stage*
35 is responsible for identifying a counterexample, and operates using the generators and the
36 oracle of the property. The *shrinking stage* performs counterexample generation and minimization,
37 and operates using the shrinkers and the oracle.

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```

50   coin :: Gen Bool
51   coin = do
52     x ← bool_
53     y ← bool_
54     return (x == y)
55   coin' :: Gen Bool
56   coin' = do return ()
57   coin
      coin
10  discrim :: Gen Bool → Gen Bool
11  discrim m = do
12    shrink
13    (\b → if b
14      then [False]
15      else [])
16    (return True)
17
18  if x then coin else m

```

Fig. 1. Example generators and distinguishing context.

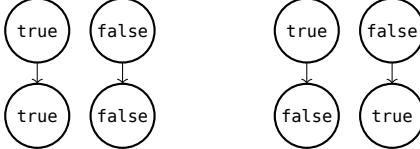
The testing stage proceeds by constructing a random test case using the generators and then checking if the test case is a counterexample using the oracle. If the test case is not a counterexample, the testing process restarts with a different test case; otherwise, the counterexample is passed along to the shrinking stage. In lieu of a counterexample, the testing stage can be terminated (1) after a user-specified number of test cases have been generated, (2) after a user-specified timeout, or (3) manually.

The shrinking stage is essential for the usability of property-based testing. Without it, counterexamples can be arbitrarily large, which complicates debugging. Shrinking operates as follows: (1) starting from the previously discovered counterexample, it computes a set of “smaller” test cases, called *shrinks*, and then (2) the oracle determines whether any of the shrinks are counterexamples. If so, the shrinking process restarts using the smaller counterexample; otherwise, the current counterexample is deemed minimal and reported to the user. Like the testing stage, the shrinking stage can be terminated (1) after a user-specified number of shrinks have been generated, (2) after a user-specified timeout, or (3) manually.

Generators are specified using an embedded domain-specific language (eDSL) provided by the PBT framework. These eDSLs are essentially probabilistic programming languages, and hence users view generators as probability distributions. For example, consider the program given in Figure 1, written using the Hedgehog framework [Stanley 2024] for Haskell. Concretely, the `coin` generator computes two random booleans, `x` and `y` (lines 3 and 4), by invoking a sub-generator `bool_` which performs a fair coin flip. The `coin` generator then checks whether `x` and `y` are equal (line 5). Abstractly, `coin` represents a probability distribution that assigns 0.5 to both `True` and `False`.

Shrinkers are also specified using an eDSL provided by the PBT framework. The QuickCheck [Claessen and Hughes 2000] framework which popularized PBT employs *manual shrinking*, where shrinkers and generators are specified separately. Shrinkers are surprisingly difficult to write manually, thus subsequent work such as Hedgehog [Stanley 2024] employs *generator-based shrinking*, where shrinkers are derived from annotated generator specifications. Under generator-based shrinking, generators represent distributions of labelled trees, where labels lower in the tree are considered “smaller”. While most languages with generator-based shrinking allow users to influence shrinker behaviour [de Vries 2023; Stanley 2024], others — such as Hypothesis [Maciver and Hatfield-Dodds 2019] — rely solely upon built-in heuristics. This lack of *user-controlled shrinking* saves users from having to think about how to shrink test cases, but inhibits correct and efficient shrinking since the correct notion of “smaller” test case is application-dependent. Furthermore, the heuristics used by these frameworks are unpredictable and can change when the framework is updated [de Vries 2023]. Thus, this work focuses on user-controlled generator-based shrinking.

Efficient generators and shrinkers are essential for the effectiveness of property-based testing. When timeouts are used, slow generators reduce the likelihood that the testing stage discovers a counterexample, and slow shrinkers reduce the likelihood that the shrinking stage completely minimizes counterexamples. Thus it is important that generators and shrinkers are optimized, either by hand or (preferably) automatically.

Fig. 2. Trees produced by `discrim` (see Figure 1).

By *optimization*, we mean replacing an existing (slow) program with a (faster) *semantically equivalent* one. Thus, in order to perform optimizations, we must formally justify their validity via a semantic equivalence proof. Semantic equivalence in languages with generator-based shrinking is surprisingly subtle. For example, consider the generator `coin'` (Figure 1, line 7). Intuitively, the statement `return ()` is a “no-op”, and so it can ostensibly be removed. However, removing the statement is unsound, as `coin` and `coin'` produce observably different behaviour in combination with the function `discrim` (line 10): `discrim coin` produces the trees given in Figure 2a, while `discrim coin'` produces the trees given in both Figure 2a and Figure 2b. We explain the reason for this in Example 3.11.

Unfortunately, equivalence proofs are currently infeasible as there is currently no way to formally and effectively reason about the behaviour of generators in languages with user-controlled generator-based shrinking. Existing possibilities include:

(1) *Utilize existing probabilistic calculi.* Since generator specification languages are effectively probabilistic programming languages, we can use existing probabilistic calculi to reason about generator behaviour. However, existing probabilistic calculi [Culpepper and Cobb 2017; Dal Lago et al. 2020; Faggian and Rocca 2019] do not model shrinking behaviour.

(2) *Adapt existing calculi for probabilistic non-determinism.* Shrinking can be viewed as a form of non-determinism, which suggests that we can adapt existing calculi which model combinations of probabilistic and non-deterministic effects for our purposes. However, languages which feature generator-based shrinking violate common equational properties – the *monad laws* [Moggi 1991] – which are present in these calculi and also intuitively expected by users. For example, the monad laws imply that the generators `coin` and `coin'` (Figure 1) are equivalent, which is not the case.

(3) *Implementation-level reasoning.* We can reason about languages directly in terms of their implementation (or *sampling semantics*). Existing languages such as Hedgehog [Stanley 2024] represent a generator as a *random variable*, i.e., a deterministic function on some *sample space*. However, sampling semantics is too *fine-grained*, not preserved even by simple changes. For example, `coin` and `coin'` (Figure 1) are not semantically equivalent under Hedgehog’s sampling semantics because they interpret their samples differently. In contrast, an appropriate *coarse-grained* semantics should allow `coin` and `coin'` to be identified, at least in some contexts.

(4) *Distribution-level reasoning.* The effectiveness of property-based testing depends on the distribution of a generator, not the specifics of how samples are turned into test cases. Since Hedgehog has a sampling semantics in terms of random variables, one can derive an appropriate *distribution semantics*. However, this distribution semantics is not *compositional*: the distribution of a generator is not uniquely determined by the distributions of its components. For example, we cannot determine the distribution of `discrim m` (Figure 1) simply by knowing the distribution of `m`: `coin` and `coin'` have the same distribution, but `discrim coin` and `discrim coin'` do not. A compositional semantics is important for reasoning about the behaviour of larger programs.

Contributions. In this paper, we address the problem of formally reasoning about generator behaviour in languages with user-controlled generator-based shrinking, for the purpose of justifying

optimizations. We focus on Hedgehog [Stanley 2024], although our results are easily transferred to other languages. We show Hedgehog's **only** compositional semantics is its sampling semantics; Hedgehog generators can (at best) be interpreted as deterministic programs with no opportunity to optimize or reason about their probabilistic behaviour. In light of this result, we define a restricted version of Hedgehog based on the arrow calculus [Lindley et al. 2010] called Hedgehog \rightarrow , and prove that its distribution semantics is compositional and validates many common optimizations. We evaluate the expressiveness of Hedgehog \rightarrow relative to Hedgehog in practice and demonstrate Hedgehog \rightarrow 's utility for equivalence proofs on a set of examples. Specifically, (1) we give a formal account of the Hedgehog language's syntax and its sampling semantics, where generators represent random variables on an appropriate sample space, (2) we also define Hedgehog's distribution semantics, where generators represent probability distributions, and show that it is not compositional, (3) Hedgehog's distribution semantics induces an *observational equivalence* relation, and we show that the only compositional semantics that is sound and complete with respect to observational equivalence is the sampling semantics, (4) we define Hedgehog \rightarrow , a version of Hedgehog based on the arrow calculus [Lindley et al. 2010], and show that the distribution semantics for this version of Hedgehog is compositional, and (5) we evaluate the expressiveness of Hedgehog \rightarrow , its effect on program size, and its utility for program optimization.

Organization. In Section 2, we review background material. In Section 3, we present our formalization and analysis of the Hedgehog language. In Section 4, we present Hedgehog \rightarrow . In Section 5, we evaluate the practical utility of Hedgehog \rightarrow . In Section 6, we describe and compare related work. In Section 7, we conclude and discuss future work.

2 Background

In this section, we fix some basic notation (Section 2.1) and then review the requisite probability theory (Section 2.2). We work within the framework of quasi-Borel spaces [Heunen et al. 2017], which allows reasoning about probabilistic behaviour of programs with higher-order functions.

2.1 Notation

Sets. The set of *natural numbers* is denoted by \mathbb{N} and the set of *extended non-negative real numbers* is denoted by $\bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$. The *union* of two sets A and B is denoted by $A \cup B$, the *intersection* is denoted by $A \cap B$, the *empty set* is denoted by \emptyset , and the *powerset* of A is denoted by $\mathcal{P}A$. The *sample space* \mathbb{S} is defined as the interval $[0, 1) \subseteq \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$.

Products. The *(cartesian) product* of a family of sets $(A_i)_{i \in I}$ is defined as $\prod_{i \in I} A_i = \{ (a_i)_{i \in I} \mid \forall i \in I, a_i \in A_i \}$. We define the *n-ary product* as $A_1 \times \dots \times A_n = \prod_{i=1}^n A_i$, and write (a_1, \dots, a_n) in place of $(a_i)_{i=1}^n$. The *nullary product* is denoted by 1 , and its unique element is denoted by $()$. The *joining* of two families $a = (a_i)_{i \in I}$ and $b = (b_j)_{j \in J}$ such that $I \cap J = \emptyset$ is denoted by a, b .

Functions. The set of *functions* from set A to set B is denoted by $A \rightarrow B$. Function application is denoted using juxtaposition ($f x$). The notation $(a \mapsto \dots)$ denotes an *(anonymous) function* with parameter a . Functions can be denoted using *blanks*, e.g., $(1 + -) = (n \mapsto 1 + n)$. The *identity function* on A is denoted by id_A and the *composition* of two functions $f : B \rightarrow C$ and $g : A \rightarrow B$ is denoted by $f \circ g$. We omit the subscripts on id when it can be inferred from the context.

Coproducts. The *coproduct* (or *disjoint sum*) of a family of sets $(A_i)_{i \in I}$ is defined as $\sum_{i \in I} A_i = \{ \iota_i x \mid x \in A_i \}$. We define the *n-ary coproduct* as $A_1 + \dots + A_n = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i$. Given a family of functions $f : \prod_{i \in I} (A_i \rightarrow B)$, we define the function $[f_i]_{i \in I} : \sum_{i \in I} A_i \rightarrow B$ to satisfy $[f_i]_{i \in I} (\iota_j x) = f_j x$ for all $j \in I$. The *nullary coproduct* is denoted by $0 (= \emptyset)$, and is equipped with a (unique) function

197 198 $(\times) : (A \rightarrow B) \times (A' \rightarrow B') \rightarrow A \times A' \rightarrow B \times B'$ 199 $(f \times g)(x, y) = (fx, gy)$	distrib : $A \times (B + C) \rightarrow (A \times B) + (A \times C)$ distrib $(x, \iota_1 y) = \iota_1(x, y)$ distrib $(x, \iota_2 y) = \iota_2(x, y)$
201 202 $\text{curry}_{A,B,C} : (A \times B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C)$ 203 $\text{curry}_{A,B,C} f a b = f(a, b)$	$[-]_A : \mathbb{B} \rightarrow A$ $[\text{true}]_A = 1$ $[\text{false}]_A = 0$

Fig. 3. Miscellaneous Functions

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{F}_{\mathbb{B}} = \mathbb{B} & \mathcal{F}_{\mathbb{N}} = \mathbb{N} \\ \mathcal{F}_{\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}} = \text{Borel } \{(r, r') \mid r < r' \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}\} & \mathcal{F}_{\mathbb{S}} = \text{Borel } \{(r, r') \mid r < r' \in \mathbb{S}\} \end{array}$$

Fig. 4. Common σ -Algebras.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Elem } \mathbb{B} = (\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow_{\mathbf{M}} \mathbb{B}) & \text{Elem } \mathbb{N} = (\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow_{\mathbf{M}} \mathbb{N}) \\ \text{Elem } \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} = (\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow_{\mathbf{M}} \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}) & \text{Elem } \mathbb{S} = (\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow_{\mathbf{M}} \mathbb{S}) \\ \text{Elem } \prod_{i \in I} A_i = \prod_{i \in I} \text{Elem } A_i & \text{Elem } (A \rightarrow_{\mathbf{Q}} B) = \{\text{curry } f \mid f : \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \times A \rightarrow_{\mathbf{Q}} B\} \\ \text{Elem } \sum_{i \in I} A_i = \left\{ (r \mapsto \iota_{(e(ir))}(\alpha_{(ir)} r)) \mid i : \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow_{\mathbf{Q}} \mathbb{N}, e : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow I, \alpha_i \in \text{Elem } A_{(ei)} \right\} & \end{array}$$

Fig. 5. Common Sets of Random Variables.

$(!_A) : \mathbf{0} \rightarrow A$ for all sets A . We omit the subscript on $(!)$ when it can be inferred from the context. The set of booleans is defined as $\mathbb{B} = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{1}$, where $\text{true} = \iota_1()$ and $\text{false} = \iota_2()$.

Miscellaneous. We implicitly treat proposition as booleans. We define common miscellaneous functions in Figure 3. We omit subscripts on these functions when they can be inferred from the context.

2.2 Probability Theory

Measure Theory. A set A is a *measurable space* if it is equipped with a designated set $\mathcal{F}_A \subseteq \mathcal{P}A$ (called a σ -algebra) such that $\text{Borel } \mathcal{F}_A \subseteq \mathcal{F}_A$, where $\text{Borel } X$ is the closure of X under complements and countable unions. We define several (but not all) instances of \mathcal{F} in Figure 4. The class of measurable spaces is denoted by **Meas**. A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ for $A, B \in \mathbf{Meas}$ is *measurable* if $f^{-1}X \in \mathcal{F}_A$ for all $X \in \mathcal{F}_B$. The set of measurable functions from A to B is denoted by $A \rightarrow_{\mathbf{M}} B$.

Quasi Borel Spaces. A set A is a *quasi-Borel space* if there is a designated set $\text{Elem } A \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow A)$ of *random variables* such that

- (1) $\text{Elem } A$ contains all constant functions,
- (2) $\text{Elem } A$ is closed under precomposition with all measurable $f : \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$, and
- (3) $\text{Elem } A$ is closed under countable case analysis, i.e., $(r \mapsto f(ir)r) \in \text{Elem } A$ for all $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Elem } A$ and $i : \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow_{\mathbf{M}} \mathbb{N}$.

We define several (but not all) instances of Elem in Figure 5. The class of quasi-Borel spaces is denoted by **Qbs**. A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ on $A, B \in \mathbf{Qbs}$ is *quasi-measurable* if $\alpha \in \text{Elem } A$ implies $(f \circ \alpha) \in \text{Elem } B$. The set of quasi-measurable functions from A to B is denoted by $A \rightarrow_{\mathbf{Q}} B$. A function $f : A \times \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow_{\mathbf{Q}} B$ is called a *random function*.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
246 \quad f \circ \text{arr id} = f & (f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h) \\
247 \quad \text{arr}(f \circ g) = \text{arr } f \circ \text{arr } g & \text{first } (\text{arr } f) = \text{arr } (f \times \text{id}) \\
248 \quad \text{first } (f \circ g) = \text{first } f \circ \text{first } g & \text{arr } (\text{id} \times g) \circ \text{first } f = \text{first } f \circ \text{arr } (\text{id} \times g) \\
249 \quad \text{arr } (-_1) \circ \text{first } f = f \circ \text{arr } (-_1) & \text{arr assoc } \circ \text{first } (\text{first } f) = \text{first } f \circ \text{arr assoc} \\
250 \\
251
\end{array}$$

Fig. 6. Arrow Properties.

254 *Functors, Monads, and Arrows.* A *functor* is a mapping $F : \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ equipped with a designated
255 function $\text{map}_F : (A \rightarrow_Q B) \rightarrow_Q (FA \rightarrow_Q FB)$ such that

- 256 (1) $\text{map}_F \text{id}_A = \text{id}_{FA}$ and
- 257 (2) $\text{map}_F(f \circ g) = \text{map}_F f \circ \text{map}_F g$ for all $f : B \rightarrow_Q C$ and $g : A \rightarrow_Q B$.

258 A (strong) *pre-monad* is a mapping $F : \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ equipped with designated operations

$$260 \quad \text{unit}_F : A \rightarrow_Q FA \qquad \text{bind}_F : (A \rightarrow_Q FB) \rightarrow_Q (FA \rightarrow_Q FB).$$

262 A *monad* is a pre-monad F such that, for all $f : B \rightarrow_Q C$ and $g : A \rightarrow_Q B$,

$$263 \quad \text{bind}_F \text{unit}_F = \text{id} \qquad \text{bind}_F f \circ \text{unit}_F = f \qquad \text{bind}_F f \circ \text{bind}_F g = \text{bind}_F (\text{bind}_F f \circ g)$$

265 Every monad F is also a functor by defining $\text{map}_F f = \text{bind}_F(\text{unit}_F \circ f)$ for functions $f : A \rightarrow_Q B$.
266 A *pre-arrow* is a mapping $F : \mathbf{Qbs} \times \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ equipped with designated operations

$$\begin{array}{ll}
268 \quad \text{arr}_F : (A \rightarrow_Q B) \rightarrow_Q F(A, B) & \text{first}_F : F(A, B) \rightarrow_Q F(A \times C, B \times C) \\
269 \quad (\circ_F) : F(B, C) \times F(A, B) \rightarrow_Q F(A, C) & \text{left}_F : F(A, B) \rightarrow_Q F(A + C, B + C).
\end{array}$$

271 An *arrow* is a pre-arrow F which satisfies the properties in Figure 6. We omit the subscripts on
272 map, unit, bind, arr, \circ , first, and left when they can be inferred from the context.

273 *Measures and Distributions.* Heunen et al. [2017] construct a *distribution monad* (or *measure*
274 *monad*) $\text{Dist} : \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ equipped with an *integration* operator $(\int - \text{d}-) : (A \rightarrow_M \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}) \times$
275 $\text{Dist } A \rightarrow_M \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$ for all $A \in \mathbf{Qbs}$. We write $\int_x y \text{d}\mu$ in place of $\int(x \mapsto y) \text{d}\mu$ when $\mu \in \text{Dist } A$. The
276 integration operator satisfies the properties given in Figure 7 for all $f, f_1, f_2 : A \rightarrow_Q \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$, $x \in A$,
277 $c \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$, $\mu \in \text{Dist } A$, $v \in \text{Dist } B$, $g : B \rightarrow_Q A$, and $k_1 \leq k_2 \leq \dots : A \rightarrow_Q \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$ where k_i are ordered
278 point-wise and converge to a function $k : A \rightarrow_Q \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$. Given $f : A \rightarrow_Q B$, $c \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$, and $\mu \in \text{Dist } A$,
279 the distributions map $f \mu \in \text{Dist } B$ (called the *push-forward* of f on μ) and $c \cdot \mu \in \text{Dist } A$ satisfy the
280 properties

$$283 \quad \int g \text{d}(\text{map } f \mu) = \int g \circ f \text{d}\mu \qquad \int h \text{d}(c \cdot \mu) = c \cdot \int h \text{d}\mu$$

286 for all $g : B \rightarrow_Q \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$ and $h : A \rightarrow_Q \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$.

287 The *uniform distribution* on samples $\lambda \in \text{Dist } \mathbb{S}$ is the (unique) distribution satisfying $\int_\sigma [\sigma_1 \leq$
288 $\sigma \leq \sigma_2] \text{d}\lambda = \sigma_2 - \sigma_1$ for all $\sigma_1 \leq \sigma_2 \in \mathbb{S}$. There exists two functions $\pi_l, \pi_r : \mathbb{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}$ such that

$$290 \quad \int_\sigma f(\pi_l \sigma, \pi_r \sigma) \text{d}\lambda = \int_{\sigma_1}^{\sigma_2} f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2) \text{d}\lambda \text{d}\lambda$$

293 for all $f : \mathbb{S} \times \mathbb{S} \rightarrow_Q \bar{\mathbb{R}}_{\geq 0}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 295 \quad & \int f \, d(\text{unit } x) = f x \\
 296 \quad & \int f \, d(\text{bind } g v) = \int_x \int f \, d(g x) \, dv \\
 297 \\
 298 \quad & \int_x c \cdot f x \, d\mu = c \cdot \int f \, d\mu \\
 299 \quad & \int_x f_1 x + f_2 x \, d\mu = \int f_1 \, d\mu + \int f_2 \, d\mu \\
 300 \\
 301 \quad & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int k_n \, d\mu = \int k \, d\mu \\
 302 \\
 303 \\
 304 \\
 305
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 7. Integral Properties.

Monad Operations

$$\begin{aligned}
 308 \quad & \text{unit} : A \rightarrow_Q \text{List } A \\
 309 \quad & \text{unit } a = a :: \epsilon \\
 310 \\
 311 \quad & \text{unit} : A \rightarrow_Q \text{Tree } A \\
 312 \quad & \text{unit } a = \text{node}(a, \epsilon) \\
 313 \\
 314 \\
 315 \\
 316 \quad & \text{bind} : (A \rightarrow_Q \text{List } B) \rightarrow_Q \text{List } A \rightarrow_Q \text{List } B \\
 317 \quad & \text{bind } f \epsilon = \epsilon \\
 318 \quad & \text{bind } f (a :: \alpha) = f a ++ \text{bind } f \alpha \\
 319 \quad & \text{bind} : (A \rightarrow_Q \text{Tree } B) \rightarrow_Q \text{Tree } A \rightarrow_Q \text{Tree } B \\
 320 \quad & \text{bind } f (\text{node}(a, \alpha)) = \text{node}(b, bs ++ \text{map}(\text{bind } f) \alpha) \\
 321 \quad & \quad \text{where } \text{node}(b, bs) = f a
 \end{aligned}$$

Auxiliary Definitions

$$\begin{aligned}
 316 \quad & (++) : \text{List } A \times \text{List } A \rightarrow_Q \text{List } A \\
 317 \quad & \epsilon ++ bs = bs \\
 318 \quad & (a :: \alpha) ++ bs = a :: (\alpha ++ bs)
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 8. Lists and Rose Trees.

Lists and Trees. The quasi-Borel spaces of *lists* $\text{List } A$ and *(rose) trees* $\text{Tree } A$ over $A \in \mathbf{Qbs}$ are the smallest sets satisfying

$$323 \quad \text{List } A = \{\epsilon\} \cup \{x :: xs \mid x \in A, xs \in \text{List } A\} \quad \text{Tree } A = \{\text{node}(x, xs) \mid x \in A, xs \in \text{List}(\text{Tree } A)\}.$$

The functions $((x, xs) \mapsto x :: xs)$, $((x, xs) \mapsto \text{node}(x, xs))$, and any functions built using structural recursion with quasi-measurable functions, are themselves quasi-measurable. The mappings $\text{List}, \text{Tree} : \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ form monads with the operations defined in Figure 8.

3 Hedgehog

In this section, we provide a formal account of the Hedgehog [Stanley 2024] language. Our formalization is given in the style of the monadic metalanguage by Moggi [1991]. At a high level, Hedgehog is a probabilistic programming language, where generators are specified using probabilistic operators. In addition to probabilistic behaviour, Hedgehog contains operators for specifying shrinking behaviour.

Generator optimizations require formal justification relative to an appropriate semantics. We formalize two candidate semantics for Hedgehog: (1) a sampling semantics (Definition 3.5), where generators represent random variables, which closely mirrors Hedgehog's actual implementation, and (2) a distribution semantics (Definition 3.10), where generators represent distributions, which more closely model how users actually think about generators. Both of these semantics have significant issues which make them unsuitable for equivalence proofs. The sampling semantics is overly *fine-grained*, i.e., it distinguishes many terms which users expect to be identical (Example 3.6) and invalidates many common program transformations (Theorem 3.8). The distribution semantics

```

344     Bool = 1 + 1           true = inl ()           false = inr ()
345
346 if t1 then t2 else t3 = match t1 with inl x . t2 | inr x . t3   (t1, t2, ..., tn) = (t1, (t2, ..., tn))
347
348     not t1 = if t1 then false else true      t1 = t2 = if t1 then t2 else not t2
349
350     t1 and t2 = if t1 then t2 else false
351
352
353 Fig. 9. Derived Constructs.
354
355
356
357
358
359

```

is not compositional, i.e., the distribution of a term is not uniquely determined by the distributions of its immediate sub-terms ([Proposition 3.12](#)), which complicates reasoning about larger programs. Unfortunately, this state of affairs cannot be fixed by simply finding the “right semantics”: we derive soundness and completeness conditions from the distribution semantics ([Definition 3.14](#)) and show that *every* (sound and complete) compositional semantics is equivalent to the sampling semantics ([Corollary 3.16](#)). This result implies that several common program transformation are unsound, which justifies our need for a restricted version of Hedgehog.

3.1 Syntax

Syntactic elements are written in `teletype` font.

[Definition 3.1 \(Hedgehog Syntax\).](#) The set of Hedgehog *types* Type is generated by

$$\tau ::= 0 \mid 1 \mid \tau + \tau \mid \tau * \tau \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau \mid \text{Gen } \tau$$

and the set of Hedgehog *terms* Term is generated by

$$\begin{aligned} t ::= & x \mid \text{absurd } t \mid () \mid \text{inl } t \mid \text{inr } t \mid \text{match } t \text{ with inl } x . t \mid \text{inr } x . t \mid (t, t) \\ & \mid \text{fst } t \mid \text{snd } t \mid \text{fun } x : \tau . t \mid t t \mid \text{return } t \mid \text{let } x \leftarrow t \text{ in } t \mid \text{flipp } \mid \text{shrink} \end{aligned}$$

where *variables* (e.g., x) are sourced from a countably infinite set of names `Var`, and probabilities (e.g., p) are elements of the real interval $[0, 1]$. We identify terms up to α -equivalence.

The set of types consists of the empty type (0), the singleton type (1), sum types ($\tau + \tau$), product types ($\tau * \tau$), function types ($\tau \rightarrow \tau$), and generator types ($\text{Gen } \tau$). Intuitively, the type $\text{Gen } \tau$ is the type of generators which produce elements of the type τ . The set of terms contains many standard constructs including variables (x), left and right injections (inl , inr), eliminations for values of the empty type ($\text{absurd } t$), case analysis ($\text{match } t \text{ with inl } x . t \mid \text{inr } x . t$), the singleton value ($()$), tuples $((t, t))$, anonymous functions ($\text{fun } x : \tau . t$), function application ($t t$), effect-free computations ($\text{return } t$), and sequential composition ($\text{let } x \leftarrow t \text{ in } t$). We derive some common constructs in [Figure 9](#). In addition to standard constructs, Hedgehog has the following effectful operations:

- (1) The biased *coin flip operation* flipp generates `true` with probability p and `false` with probability $1 - p$.
- (2) The *shrinking operation* shrink may be applied to an n -tuple (t_0, t_1, \dots, t_n) . The operation $\text{shrink } (t_0, t_1, \dots, t_n)$ behaves like t_0 during the testing stage, but attempts each of t_1, \dots, t_n in order during the shrinking stage.

[Example 3.2.](#) We recast our examples from [Section 1](#) in our chosen syntax:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{coin}_1 = & \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } 1/2 \text{ in} \\ & \quad \text{let } y \leftarrow \text{flip } 1/2 \text{ in} \\ & \quad \quad \text{return } x = y \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{aligned} \text{coin}_2 = & \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } 1/2 \text{ in} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \text{return } x \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{}{\Gamma, x : \tau \vdash x : \tau} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } t : \tau_1 + \tau_2} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr } t : \tau_1 + \tau_2} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \theta}{\Gamma \vdash \text{absurd } t : \tau}
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{x_1, x_2 \notin \text{Dom } \Gamma}{\Gamma, x_1 : \tau_1 \vdash t_1 : \tau_3} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_0 : \tau_1 + \tau_2}{\Gamma, x_2 : \tau_2 \vdash t_2 : \tau_3} \\
\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_0 \text{ with inl } x_1 . t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 . t_2 : \tau_3} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (t_1, t_2) : \tau_1 * \tau_2}
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash () : 1} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \tau_1 * \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash t : \tau_1 * \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } t : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{snd } t : \tau_2} \\
\frac{x \notin \text{Dom } \Gamma \quad \Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash t : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x : \tau_1 . t : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{return } t : \text{Gen } \tau}
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{x \notin \text{Dom } \Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Gen } \tau_1 \quad \Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash t_2 : \text{Gen } \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in } t_2 : \text{Gen } \tau_2} \\
\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{shrink} : \tau * \dots * \tau \rightarrow \text{Gen } \tau}
\end{array}$$

Fig. 10. Hedgehog's Typing Rules.

Definition 3.3 (Hedgehog Environments and Typing). An environment $\Gamma \in \prod_{x \in \text{Dom } \Gamma} \text{Type}$ is a family mapping variables from a finite domain $\text{Dom } \Gamma \subseteq \text{Var}$ to types. The set of environments is denoted by Env, and the singleton environment is written $x : \tau$. The typing relation $(-\vdash-:\-)$ $\subseteq \text{Env} \times \text{Term} \times \text{Type}$ is the smallest relation satisfying the rules in Figure 10. If t has no free variables, we write $t : \tau$ in place of $\forall \Gamma, \Gamma \vdash t : \tau$, since the environment has no bearing on whether t is typed.

Not every term is sensible (e.g., consider ‘fst ()’). The typing relation $\Gamma \vdash t : \tau$ describes exactly which terms are sensible within a given environment.

3.2 Semantics

Definition 3.4 (Hedgehog Interpretation and Semantics). A Hedgehog interpretation is a pre-monad $F : \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ equipped with additional operations

$$\text{flip}_F : [0, 1] \rightarrow_Q F \mathbb{B} \quad \text{shrink}_F^n : \prod_{i=0}^n A \rightarrow_Q F A.$$

An interpretation induces (1) a type and environment semantics $\llbracket - \rrbracket^F : \text{Type} \cup \text{Env} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ and (2) for all $\Gamma \vdash t : \tau$ a term semantics $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash t : \tau \rrbracket^F : \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket^F \rightarrow_Q \llbracket \tau \rrbracket^F$ (see Figure 11). When t has no free variables, we write $\llbracket t : \tau \rrbracket^F$ in place of $\llbracket () \vdash t : \tau \rrbracket^F$. We also omit the type ascription $(: \tau)$ when it can be inferred from the surrounding context.

The semantics of most types and terms are standard, where types denote suitable quasi-Borel spaces and terms denote quasi-measurable functions over variable assignments (i.e., elements of $\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket = \prod_{x \in \text{Dom } \Gamma} \Gamma_x$). An interpretation specifies the semantics of generator types and terms (Gen, return, let, flip, and shrink). We only require that an interpretation F is a pre-monad, and not a monad: QuickCheck generators are known not to form a monad [Claessen and Hughes 2000], and Hedgehog's sampling interpretation (Definition 3.5) inherits this property. An important feature of Definition 3.4 is that it is compositional, i.e., the semantics of a term is uniquely determined by the semantics of its immediate sub-terms.

Type and Environment Semantics

$$\llbracket \emptyset \rrbracket^F = \mathbf{0} \quad \llbracket 1 \rrbracket^F = \mathbf{1} \quad \llbracket \tau_1 + \tau_2 \rrbracket^F = \llbracket \tau_1 \rrbracket^F + \llbracket \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \quad \llbracket \tau_1 * \tau_2 \rrbracket^F = \llbracket \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \times \llbracket \tau_2 \rrbracket^F$$

$$\llbracket \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rrbracket^F = \llbracket \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \rightarrow_Q \llbracket \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \quad \llbracket \text{Gen } \tau \rrbracket^F = F \llbracket \tau \rrbracket^F \quad \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket^F = \prod_{x \in \text{Dom } \Gamma} \llbracket \Gamma_x \rrbracket^F$$

Term Semantics

$$\llbracket \Gamma, x : \tau \vdash x : \tau \rrbracket^F \rho = \rho_x \quad \llbracket \Gamma \vdash () : 1 \rrbracket^F \rho = () \quad \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{absurd } t : \tau \rrbracket^F \rho = !(\llbracket \Gamma \vdash t : \emptyset \rrbracket^F \rho)$$

$$(\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{fst } t : \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \rho, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{snd } t : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho) = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t : \tau_1 * \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho$$

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash (t_1, t_2) : \tau_1 * \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho = (\llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \rho, \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho)$$

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{inl } t : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \rrbracket^F = \iota_1 \circ \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t : \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \quad \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{inr } t : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \rrbracket^F = \iota_2 \circ \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_0 \text{ with inl } x_1 . t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 . t_2 : \tau_3 \rrbracket^F \rho \\ &= \begin{cases} \llbracket \Gamma, x_1 : \tau_1 \vdash t_1 : \tau_3 \rrbracket^F (\rho_x)_{x \in \text{Dom } \Gamma \cup \{x_1\}} & \text{if } \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_0 : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho = \iota_1 \rho_{x_1} \\ \llbracket \Gamma, x_2 : \tau_2 \vdash t_2 : \tau_3 \rrbracket^F (\rho_x)_{x \in \text{Dom } \Gamma \cup \{x_2\}} & \text{if } \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_0 : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho = \iota_2 \rho_{x_2} \end{cases} \\ & \text{where } \Gamma \vdash t_0 : \tau_1 + \tau_2, \quad \Gamma, x_1 : \tau_1 \vdash t_1 : \tau_3, \quad \Gamma, x_2 : \tau_2 \vdash t_2 : \tau_3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x : \tau_1 . t : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho = \rho_x \mapsto \llbracket \Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash t : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F (\rho_y)_{y \in \text{Dom } \Gamma \cup \{x\}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_1 t_2 : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho &= \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho (\llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \rho) \\ & \text{where } \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2, \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \tau_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{return } t : \text{Gen } \tau \rrbracket^F \rho = \text{unit } (\llbracket \Gamma \vdash t : \tau \rrbracket^F \rho)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in } t_2 : \text{Gen } \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho \\ &= \text{bind}_F (\rho_x \mapsto \llbracket \Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash t_2 : \text{Gen } \tau_2 \rrbracket^F (\rho_y)_{y \in \text{Dom } \Gamma \cup \{x\}}) (\llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Gen } \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \rho) \\ & \text{where } \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Gen } \tau_1, \quad \Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash t_2 : \text{Gen } \tau_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{flipp} : \text{GenBool} \rrbracket^F \rho = \text{flip}_F p \quad \llbracket \Gamma \vdash \text{shrink} : \underbrace{\tau * \dots * \tau}_{n+1 \text{ times}} \rightarrow \text{Gen } \tau \rrbracket^F \rho = \text{shrink}_F^n$$

Fig. 11. Semantics of Hedgehog.

$$\mathfrak{C} A = (\mathbb{S} \rightarrow_Q \text{Tree } A) \quad \text{unit}_{\mathfrak{C}} a = \sigma \mapsto \text{unit } a \quad \text{bind}_{\mathfrak{C}} f m = \sigma \mapsto \text{bind } (a \mapsto f a (\pi_r \sigma)) (m (\pi_l \sigma))$$

$$\text{flip}_{\mathfrak{C}} p = \sigma \mapsto \text{unit } (\sigma < p) \quad \text{shrink}_{\mathfrak{C}}^n (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = \sigma \mapsto \text{node } (a_0, \text{unit } a_1 :: \dots :: \text{unit } a_n :: \epsilon)$$

Fig. 12. Hedgehog's Sampling Interpretation.

Definition 3.5 (Hedgehog Sampling Interpretation). The *sampling interpretation* $\mathfrak{C} : \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ of Hedgehog is defined in Figure 12.

Definition 3.5 closely mirrors the actual implementation of Hedgehog. We describe each component of the sampling interpretation as follows:

- (1) Generators ($\text{Gen } \tau$) are represented as deterministic functions from the sample space \mathbb{S} to rose trees (i.e., generators are random variables). Intuitively, the probabilistic behaviour of

491 a generator arises by feeding it a uniformly distributed random sample, and the resulting
 492 tree (called a *shrink tree*) describes a value and all the ways it can be shrunk.

- 493 (2) The “pure” computation `return t` ignores its sample and returns a tree with a single node
 494 labelled by the value of t .
 495 (3) Sequential composition `let $x \leftarrow t_1$ in t_2` splits its sample, passing a different half to t_1 and t_2 .
 496 (4) The probabilistic choice operation `flip p` returns `true` if its sample lies in the range $[0, p)$.
 497 (5) The shrink operation `shrink` ignores its sample and returns a shrink tree comprising of its
 498 arguments.

499 Example 3.6. The semantics of $\text{coin}_1, \text{coin}_2 : \text{GenBool}$, given in Example 3.2, are as follows:

500 $\llbracket \text{coin}_1 \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}} \sigma = \text{unit} (\pi_l \sigma < 1/2 \Leftrightarrow \pi_r \sigma < 1/2) \quad \llbracket \text{coin}_2 \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}} \sigma = \text{unit} (\pi_l \sigma < 1/2)$

502 While coin_1 and coin_2 intuitively represent the same distribution of values, they are not equivalent
 503 under the sampling semantics: \mathfrak{C} is overly *fine-grained*.

505 3.3 Program Transformations

506 We often talk about term equivalence under an interpretation (e.g., does $\llbracket \text{coin}_1 \rrbracket^F = \llbracket \text{coin}_2 \rrbracket^F$ for
 507 some other interpretation F ?), so we define a shorthand in Definition 3.7.

509 *Definition 3.7 (Hedgehog Semantic Equivalence).* Two Hedgehog terms $\Gamma \vdash t_1, t_2 : \tau$ are *semantically equivalent*
 510 under an interpretation F (written $\Gamma \vdash t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau$) if $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \tau \rrbracket^F = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \tau \rrbracket^F$.
 511 We write $t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau$ for $(\cdot) \vdash t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau$ and omit the type ascription $(: \tau)$ when it can be inferred
 512 from the surrounding context.

513 To further illustrate how the sampling interpretation is unsuitable for semantic equivalence
 514 proofs, we show that several common program transformations are not permitted under \mathfrak{C} .

516 THEOREM 3.8. *The following equivalences do not hold:*

517 $\Gamma \vdash \text{return } t \text{ in } f x =^{\mathfrak{C}} f t \tag{1}$

519 $\Gamma \vdash \text{return } x \text{ in } t =^{\mathfrak{C}} t \tag{2}$

520 $\Gamma \vdash \text{let } y \leftarrow (\text{let } x \leftarrow t \text{ in } f x) \text{ in } g y =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{let } x \leftarrow t \text{ in } \text{let } y \leftarrow f x \text{ in } g y \tag{3}$

522 $\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } p \text{ in } t =^{\mathfrak{C}} t \tag{4}$

523 $\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } p \text{ in } \text{let } y \leftarrow t \text{ in } f x y =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{let } y \leftarrow t \text{ in } \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } p \text{ in } f x y \tag{5}$

525 $\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } p \text{ in } f(\text{not } x) =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip}(1 - p) \text{ in } f x \tag{6}$

526 $\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } p \text{ in } \text{let } y \leftarrow \text{flip } q \text{ in } f(x \text{ and } y) =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip}(p \cdot q) \text{ in } f x \tag{7}$

528 Intuitively, none of these transformations are sound under the sampling interpretation because,
 529 similar to Example 3.6, they all change how samples are interpreted. We discuss each equation in
 530 detail:

- 531 • Equation (1) states that an effect-free computation, when let-bound to a variable, can be
 532 inlined. This is an optimization: removing a let expression reduces the number of sample
 533 splits under the sampling semantics. Equation (1) is a form of constant folding [Aho et al.
 534 2006].
- 535 • Equation (2) formalizes the intuition that `return x` is a “no-op”. Like equation (1), equation (2)
 536 is an optimization and reduces the number of sample splits under the sampling semantics.
- 537 • Equation (3) states that the order in which multiple sequential compositions are formed
 538 does not matter as long as the overall order of computations remains the same. While not
 539

strictly an optimization by itself, [equation \(3\)](#) is necessary to justify further optimizations. For example, if [equations \(3\)](#) and [\(4\)](#) hold then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{let } x \leftarrow (\text{let } y \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in flip}) \text{ in } t_2 &= \text{let } y \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in let } x \leftarrow \text{flip in } t_2 \\ &= \text{let } y \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in } t_2. \end{aligned}$$

[Equations \(1\) to \(3\)](#) are essentially the monad laws, and hence \mathfrak{C} is not a monad.

- [Equation \(4\)](#) is a standard property of probabilistic choice [[Culpepper and Cobb 2017](#)], and states that a flip statement whose result is unused can be removed. This is also an optimization that reduces the number of sample splits under the sampling semantics.
- [Equation \(5\)](#) is another standard property of probabilistic choice [[Staton 2017](#)], and states that the order in which a random value is generated is irrelevant. While not an optimization by itself, [equation \(5\)](#) is necessary to justify further optimizations. For example, if [equations \(4\)](#) and [\(5\)](#) hold then

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flipp in} \\ \text{let } y \leftarrow \text{shrink... in} \\ \text{let } z \leftarrow \text{flip } q \text{ in} \\ f(x \text{ and } z) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flipp in} \\ \text{let } z \leftarrow \text{flip } q \text{ in} \\ \text{let } y \leftarrow \text{shrink... in} \\ f(x \text{ and } z) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } (p \cdot q) \text{ in} \\ \text{let } y \leftarrow \text{shrink... in} \\ f x \end{array} \right).$$

- [Equation \(6\)](#) states that flipping a biased coin with parameter p is the same as flipping a biased coin with parameter $1 - p$ and interchanging the results. Since p is a constant in our setting, [equation \(6\)](#) is an optimization because it eliminates a negation (not).
- [Equation \(7\)](#) provides a condition for merging two calls to flip. Since flip's parameter is a constant in our setting, [equation \(7\)](#) is an optimization because it reduces the number of sample splits under the sampling semantics.

In contrast to [Theorem 3.8](#), the following transformations *are* permitted under \mathfrak{C} .

THEOREM 3.9. *The following equivalences hold:*

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{return } t \text{ in shrink } (f_1 x) \dots (f_n x) =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{shrink } (f_1 t) \dots (f_n t) \quad (8)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{shrink } t_0 \dots t_n \text{ in return } x =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{shrink } t_0 \dots t_n \quad (9)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{shrink } t =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{return } t \quad (10)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_2 =^{\mathfrak{C}} t_2 \quad (11)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{if true then } t_1 \text{ else } t_2 =^{\mathfrak{C}} t_1 \quad (12)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{if false then } t_1 \text{ else } t_2 =^{\mathfrak{C}} t_2 \quad (13)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{flip } 0 =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{return false} \quad (14)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{flip } 1 =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{return true} \quad (15)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{let } y \leftarrow (\text{let } x \leftarrow \text{shrink } t_0 \dots t_n \\ \text{in shrink } (f_1 x) \dots (f_m x)) \\ \text{in shrink } (g_0 y) \dots (g_k y) \end{array} \right) =^{\mathfrak{C}} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{let } x \leftarrow \text{shrink } t_0 \dots t_n \text{ in} \\ \text{let } y \leftarrow \text{shrink } (f_1 x) \dots (f_m x) \text{ in} \\ \text{shrink } (g_0 y) \dots (g_k y) \end{array} \right) \quad (16)$$

We describe each equation as follows:

- [Equations \(8\), \(9\)](#) and [\(16\)](#) are essentially special cases of [Equations \(1\) to \(3\)](#) where the computations involved only exhibit shrinking effects.
- [Equation \(10\)](#) states that a shrink term with only one argument (i.e., no specified shrinks) is identical to a pure computation (return).

- 589 • Equations (11) to (13) are common optimizations of if expressions. Unlike the other equations
 590 we discuss, these equations hold under any interpretation.
 591 • Equations (14) and (15) state that flip's behaviour is deterministic when its parameter is
 592 either zero or one.

593 From Theorems 3.8 and 3.9 we infer that the sampling interpretation only permits transformations
 594 of *non-probabilistic terms*. Since generators are primarily probabilistic programs, this renders the
 595 sampling interpretation unsuitable for program optimization.
 596

597 3.4 Distributions

598 We have presented in Definitions 3.4 and 3.5 a sampling semantics which closely mirrors the actual
 599 implementation of Hedgehog. However, the specifics of how samples are turned into values are irrele-
 600 vant from the user's perspective. Users are more concerned with a generator's distribution, which
 601 determines how well the input space of the SUT is covered. To this end, the sampling semantics is
 602 not suitable for proving the soundness because it is too fine-grained (e.g., see Example 3.6).
 603

604 *Definition 3.10 (Hedgehog Distribution Semantics).* The *distribution semantics* of any $t : \text{GenBool}$
 605 is given by the function
 606

$$\begin{aligned} 607 \quad \langle - \rangle &: \text{Term} \rightarrow \text{Dist } \mathbb{B} \\ 608 \quad \langle t \rangle &= \text{map } \llbracket t \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}} \lambda. \end{aligned}$$

610 Since generators represent random variables, we obtain a distribution via the push-forward
 611 operation.
 612

613 *Example 3.11.* We compute the distributions of $\text{coin}_1, \text{coin}_2 : \text{GenBool}$ given in Example 3.2:
 614

$$\begin{aligned} 615 \quad \langle \text{coin}_1 \rangle &= 1/2 \cdot \text{unit } (\text{unit true}) + 1/2 \cdot \text{unit } (\text{unit false}) \\ 616 \quad \langle \text{coin}_2 \rangle &= 1/2 \cdot \text{unit } (\text{unit true}) + 1/2 \cdot \text{unit } (\text{unit false}) \end{aligned}$$

618 Terms coin_1 and coin_2 both produce single-node trees. Each tree is labelled by either true or false
 619 with probability $1/2$.
 620

621 Building on Example 3.11, we show that Hedgehog's distribution semantics is non-compositional,
 622 i.e., it cannot be represented as an interpretation. Define
 623

```
624     discrim : GenBool → GenBool
625     discrim = fun m : GenBool . let b ← shrink (true, false) in if b then m else coin1
```

627 and consider the sampling semantics of $\text{discrim} \text{coin}_1$ and $\text{discrim} \text{coin}_2$. On one hand, we have
 628

$$\begin{aligned} 629 \quad \text{discrim } \text{coin}_1 &=^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink } (\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in if } b \text{ then } \text{coin}_1 \text{ else } \text{coin}_1 \\ 630 \quad &=^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink } (\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in } \text{coin}_1. \end{aligned}$$

632 During shrinking, the sample fed to coin_1 does not change, so any tree produced by $\text{discrim } \text{coin}_1$
 633 will have identical node labels. Hence,

$$635 \quad \langle \text{discrim } \text{coin}_1 \rangle = 1/2 \cdot \text{unit } (\text{node } (\text{true}, \text{unit true} :: \epsilon)) + 1/2 \cdot \text{unit } (\text{node } (\text{false}, \text{unit false} :: \epsilon))$$

638 On the other hand, we have

```

639  discrimcoin2 =C let b ← shrink (true, false) =C let b ← shrink (true, false)
640          in if b then coin2 else coin1           in if b then
641                               let x ← flip 1/2
642                               in return x
643                               else
644                               let y ← flip 1/2 in
645                               let z ← flip 1/2 in
646                               return y = z.
647

```

648 During shrinking, the values of x and y will be identical (as they obtain their values from the same
649 part of the sample), but there is only a 50% chance that $y = z$. Hence,

```

650   $\langle\!\langle \text{discrim}\text{ coin}_2 \rangle\!\rangle = 1/4 \cdot \text{unit}(\text{node}(\text{true}, \text{unit true} :: \epsilon)) + 1/4 \cdot \text{unit}(\text{node}(\text{true}, \text{unit false} :: \epsilon))$ 
651          + 1/4 · unit (node (false, unit true ::  $\epsilon$ )) + 1/4 · unit (node (false, unit false ::  $\epsilon$ ))
652

```

653 If distribution semantics can be represented as an interpretation, then $\langle\!\langle \text{coin}_1 \rangle\!\rangle = \langle\!\langle \text{coin}_2 \rangle\!\rangle$ implies
654 $\langle\!\langle \text{discrim}\text{ coin}_1 \rangle\!\rangle = \langle\!\langle \text{discrim}\text{ coin}_2 \rangle\!\rangle$. Hence, no such interpretation exists.

655 PROPOSITION 3.12 (NON-COMPOSITIONALITY OF DISTRIBUTION SEMANTICS). *There is no interpretation*
656 *F such that $\llbracket t \rrbracket^F = \langle\!\langle t \rangle\!\rangle$ whenever $t : \text{GenBool}$.*

658 3.5 Contextual Equivalence

659 The sampling interpretation given in [Definition 3.5](#) induces a compositional semantics, but does not
660 accurately model user-level reasoning and is too fine-grained to be useful for generator equivalence
661 proofs ([Example 3.6](#)). Conversely, the distribution semantics given in [Definition 3.10](#) has neither
662 of these drawbacks but is non-compositional. Can we obtain a coarse-grained interpretation that
663 more closely models user-level reasoning? To answer this question, we first define what it means
664 for an interpretation to be *correct*.

665 In the denotational approach to semantics, two standard tasks are to show that a particular
666 denotational semantics is sound and complete with respect to an existing operational semantics
667 [[Plotkin 1977](#)]. A denotational semantics is sound if any two denotationally equal programs are
668 contextually equivalent, i.e., they produce the same result in any context under the operational
669 semantics. Soundness rules out “bad” interpretations (such as the one where all terms are equal)
670 and ensures that all conclusions made using the denotational semantics are valid in the operational
671 semantics. Conversely, a denotational semantics is complete if any two contextually equivalent
672 programs are denotationally equal. Completeness rules out excessively fine interpretations (such
673 as one where terms are equal iff they are syntactically equal) and ensures that all conclusions that
674 can be made using the operational semantics can also be made using the denotational semantics
675 (i.e., there are no “blind spots” in the reasoning power of the denotational semantics). In the
676 context of Hedgehog, we consider distribution semantics as an operational semantics, and define
677 contextual equivalence accordingly. Then, a correct (i.e., sound and complete) interpretation is one
678 that coincides with contextual equivalence.

679 [Definition 3.13 \(Contexts and Contextual Equivalence\)](#). The set of contexts Ctx is generated by

```

680  C ::= □ | absurd C | inl C | inr C | match C with inl x. t | inr x. t
681          | match t with inl x. C | inr x. t | match t with inl x. t | inr x. C
682          | (C, t) | (t, C) | fst C | snd C | fun x : τ. C | Ct | tC | return C
683          | let x ← C in t | let x ← t in C.
684

```

685

The *substitution* $C[t]$ of a term t into a context C is obtained by substituting the (unique) instance of \square in C for t . We write $C : (\Gamma \vdash \tau) \longrightarrow (\Gamma' \vdash \tau')$ when $\Gamma' \vdash C[t] : \tau'$ for all terms $\Gamma \vdash t : \tau$. Two terms $\Gamma \vdash t_1, t_2 : \tau$ are *contextually equivalent* (written $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau$) if $(|C[t_1]|) = (|C[t_2]|)$ for all contexts $C : (\Gamma \vdash \tau) \longrightarrow ((\) \vdash \tau')$, where $\tau' \in \text{Type}$. We write $t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau$ in place of $(\) \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau$ and omit the type ascription $(: \tau)$ when it can be inferred from the surrounding context.

Intuitively, [Definition 3.13](#) states that two terms are contextually equivalent if one can be substituted for the other in any context without changing the overall distribution of the term. For example, we refer to [Example 3.11](#), from which we conclude coin_1 and coin_2 are *not* contextually equivalent: they produce different distributions in the context $\text{discrim} \square$.

We now define our correctness criteria for interpretations.

[Definition 3.14](#). An interpretation F is (1) *sound* if $\Gamma \vdash t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau \implies \Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau$, and (2) *complete* if $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau \implies \Gamma \vdash t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau$.

The sampling interpretation \mathbb{C} is trivially sound (generators which represent the same random variables have the same distribution). Surprisingly, \mathbb{C} is also complete! We sketch our completeness proof for terminating generator terms with no free variables.

We proceed by contraposition. In essence, the problems we have observed in [Examples 3.2, 3.6](#) and [3.11](#) generalize to terms other than coin_1 and coin_2 . Suppose we have two terms $t_1, t_2 : \text{Gen } \tau$ such that $t_1 \neq^{\mathbb{C}} t_2$. Then there exists some $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}$ such that $\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma \neq \llbracket t_2 \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma$. Define

$$\begin{aligned} \text{discrim}' &: ((\) \vdash \text{Gen } \tau) \longrightarrow ((\) \vdash \text{Gen } \tau) \\ &\text{discrim}' = \text{let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in if } b \text{ then } \square \text{ else } t_1. \end{aligned}$$

First, we consider the case of $\text{discrim}'[t_1]$:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{discrim}'[t_1] &=^{\mathbb{C}} \text{let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in if } b \text{ then } t_1 \text{ else } t_1 \\ &=^{\mathbb{C}} \text{let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in } t_1 \end{aligned}$$

The first shrink produced by $\text{discrim}'[t_1]$ is always the same element returned during the testing phase, as b first shrinks from true to false. More concretely, for any $\sigma' \in \mathbb{S}$,

$$\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_1] \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma' = \text{node}(b, \text{node}(b, \text{xs} :: \text{xs})) \quad (\dagger)$$

where $\text{node}(b, \text{xs}) = \llbracket t_1 \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} (\pi_r \sigma')$. Now consider the case of $\text{discrim}'[t_2]$:

$$\text{discrim}'[t_2] =^{\mathbb{C}} \text{let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in if } b \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_1.$$

Without loss of generalization, assume $\sigma = \pi_r \sigma'$ for some $\sigma' \in \mathbb{S}$. Then

$$\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_2] \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma' = \text{node}(a, \text{node}(b, \text{ys} :: \text{xs}))$$

where $(a, \text{xs}) = \llbracket t_2 \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma$ and $(b, \text{ys}) = \llbracket t_1 \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma$. Since $\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma \neq \llbracket t_2 \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma$, either $a \neq b$ or $\text{xs} \neq \text{ys}$. In either case, the result of $\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_1] \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma''$ is *not* of the form described in [\(†\)](#). Thus $\text{node}(a, \text{node}(b, \text{ys} :: \text{xs}))$ occurs with positive probability under $\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_2] \rrbracket$ but occurs with zero probability under $\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_1] \rrbracket$.

THEOREM 3.15. *The sampling interpretation \mathbb{C} is sound and complete.*

PROOF. *Soundness.* Suppose $\Gamma \vdash t_1 =^{\mathbb{C}} t_2 : \tau$ and $C : (\Gamma \vdash \tau) \longrightarrow ((\) \vdash \text{Bool})$. Since \mathbb{C} is (by definition) compositional, we have $\Gamma \vdash C[t_1] =^{\mathbb{C}} C[t_2] : \tau$. Hence $(|C[t_1]|) = (|C[t_2]|)$.

Completeness. Let

$$P \tau \equiv \forall \Gamma \vdash t_1, t_2 : \tau, \Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 \implies \Gamma \vdash t_1 =^{\mathbb{C}} t_2 : \tau.$$

Given τ , we prove $P \tau$ by structural induction on τ .

- Cases $\tau = \emptyset$ and $\tau = 1$. These cases are trivial by the fact that all elements of these types are equal.
- Case $\tau = \tau_1 * \tau_2$. Suppose $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau_1 * \tau_2$, where $\Gamma \vdash t_1, t_2 : \tau_1 * \tau_2$, and suppose the inductive hypotheses P_{τ_1} and P_{τ_2} . It suffices to show $\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } t_1 =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{fst } t_2 : \tau_1$ and $\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } t_1 =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{snd } t_2 : \tau_2$, which, by the inductive hypotheses, reduces to showing $\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } t_1 \approx \text{fst } t_2 : \tau_1$ and $\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } t_1 \approx \text{snd } t_2 : \tau_2$, which follows from $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau_1 * \tau_2$.
- Case $\tau = \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$. Suppose $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$, where $\Gamma \vdash t_1, t_2 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$, and suppose the inductive hypotheses P_{τ_1} and P_{τ_2} . It suffices to show $\Gamma \vdash t_1 t_3 =^{\mathfrak{C}} t_2 t_3 : \tau_2$ for all $\Gamma \vdash t_3 : \tau_1$. By the inductive hypothesis, it suffices to show $\Gamma \vdash t_1 t_3 \approx t_2 t_3 : \tau_2$, which follows from $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$.
- Case $\tau = \tau_1 + \tau_2$. Suppose $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau_1 + \tau_2$, where $\Gamma \vdash t_1, t_2 : \tau_1 + \tau_2$, and suppose the inductive hypotheses P_{τ_1} and P_{τ_2} . We consider, by cases, whether there exists terms $t_3 : \tau_1$ and $t_4 : \tau_2$.
 - *Case t_3 exists and t_4 exists.* It suffices to show

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 : \tau_1$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x : \tau_2,$$
 which, by the inductive hypotheses, reduce to

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 \approx \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 : \tau_1$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x \approx \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x : \tau_2,$$
 which both follow from $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau_1 + \tau_2$.
 - *Case t_3 exists and t_4 does not exist.* If t_4 does not exist, then τ_2 is isomorphic to \emptyset , and hence there is an alternate term $x : \tau_2 \vdash t'_4 : \tau_1$ involving absurd. It suffices to show

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 : \tau_1$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t'_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t'_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x : \tau_2,$$
 which, by the inductive hypotheses, reduce to

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 \approx \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. x \mid \text{inr } x. t_3 : \tau_1$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{match } t_1 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t'_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x \approx \text{match } t_2 \text{ with } \text{inl } x. t'_4 \mid \text{inr } x. x : \tau_2,$$
 which both follow from $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2 : \tau_1 + \tau_2$.
 - *Case t_3 does not and t_4 exists.* Symmetric to the previous case.
 - *Case t_3 does not and t_4 does not exist.* In this case, τ_1 and τ_2 are isomorphic to \emptyset , and hence $\tau_1 + \tau_2$ is isomorphic to \emptyset . Thus $\Gamma \vdash t_1 =^{\mathfrak{C}} t_2 : \emptyset$ trivially.
- Case $\tau = \text{Gen } \tau'$. We proceed by contraposition. Suppose $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \neq^{\mathfrak{C}} t_2$. Then there exists some $\rho \in \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket$ and $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}$ such that $\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}} \rho \sigma \neq \llbracket t_2 \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}} \rho \sigma$. We proceed using $\text{discrim}'$ as described above. Thus
 - (1) for all ρ and σ , $\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_2] \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}} \rho_1 \sigma_1 = (a, \text{node}(a, xs), xs)$ for some a and xs , and
 - (2) $\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_2] \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}} \rho_2 \sigma_2 = (a, \text{node}(b, ys), ys)$ for some $\rho, \sigma, a \neq b$ and $ys \neq xs$.
 Since our terms represent *terminating* programs, the set of choices of σ_2 must be infinite and of non-zero measure. Thus $\llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_1] \rrbracket = \llbracket \text{discrim}'[t_2] \rrbracket$, which completes the proof.

□

COROLLARY 3.16. Let F be a sound and complete interpretation. Then two terms $\Gamma \vdash t_1, t_2 : \tau$ are semantically equivalent under F iff they are semantically equivalent under \mathfrak{C} , i.e.,

$$\Gamma \vdash t_1 =^F t_2 \iff \Gamma \vdash t_1 \approx t_2.$$

785 3.6 Summary

786 We have formalized Hedgehog's syntax as well as its sampling and distribution semantics with
 787 an eye towards proving program optimizations sound. The sampling semantics is compositional
 788 but unusably fine-grained: many common program optimizations are unsound under the sampling
 789 semantics ([Theorem 3.8](#)). On the other hand, the distribution semantics is coarse-grained but
 790 non-compositional. By [Corollary 3.16](#), every (sound and complete) compositional semantics must
 791 identify the exact same set of terms as the sampling semantics. Thus, none of the transformations
 792 discussed in [Theorem 3.8](#) are permitted under *any* sound interpretation of Hedgehog, which renders
 793 Hedgehog a poor target for optimization. We stress that [Theorem 3.15](#) is a consequence of combining
 794 probabilistic and shrinking effects: if either `flip` or `shrink` are removed from Hedgehog, then
 795 [Theorem 3.15](#) no longer holds.

797 4 Hedgehog \rightarrow

798 In [Section 3](#), we demonstrated that Hedgehog is unsuited for performing generator optimizations. In
 799 particular, any two programs with identical distributions can be distinguished within a pathological
 800 context, `discrim'`, unless they have identical sampling semantics. To overcome this flaw, we
 801 propose to instead work with $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$, a restricted version of Hedgehog based on the arrow
 802 calculus [[Lindley et al. 2010](#)] which rules out such pathological contexts.

803 Intuitively, `discrim'` exploits hidden statistical dependence between generators in different
 804 branches. This dependence is a direct result of both sides of a `match` term being evaluated with the
 805 same sample. Thus, $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$ rules out this behaviour by ensuring that each branch of a case
 806 analysis (`match`) receives different samples. This is achieved by (1) redefining the semantics of case
 807 analysis and (2) adding additional type system restrictions.

808 In this section, we define the $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$ language. This section is structurally similar to [Section 3](#).
 809 We first define $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$'s syntax and type system as a modification of Hedgehog's ([Definition 4.1](#),
 810 [Definition 4.2](#)). We then define a sampling semantics for $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$ ([Definition 4.5](#)) and derive
 811 from it a distribution semantics ([Definition 4.9](#)). Unlike Hedgehog, $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$'s distribution
 812 semantics is compositional (we show it in [Theorem 4.13](#)).

814 4.1 Syntax

815 *Definition 4.1 (Hedgehog \rightarrow Types and Terms).* The set of $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$ types (denoted by $Type^\bullet$) is
 816 defined by the following modifications to Type ([Definition 3.1](#)):

$$817 \tau ::= \dots \mid \text{Gen} \tau \mid \tau \rightsquigarrow \tau$$

818 The set of $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$ terms (denoted by $Term^\bullet$) is defined identically to Term ([Definition 3.1](#)), but
 819 types are drawn from $Type^\bullet$ instead of Type (e.g., in `fun x : τ . t`).

820 $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$ replaces the generator type `Gen τ` with a generator function type $\tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2$. Intuitively,
 821 an element of $\tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2$ is a function that (1) takes in an element of type τ_1 , (2) performs some
 822 probabilistic and shrinking effects, and then (3) returns a value of type τ_2 . In other words, $\tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2$
 823 is analogous to $\tau_1 \rightarrow \text{Gen} \tau_2$. At the term level, $Hedgehog^\rightarrow$ reuses the existing function application
 824 ($t_1 t_2$) and anonymous function constructs (`fun x : τ . t`) for generator functions.

825 The most significant changes are in the typing rules ([Definition 4.2](#)).

826 *Definition 4.2 (Hedgehog \rightarrow Typing).* The set of environments Env^\bullet and the typing relation $(- \vdash^\bullet$
 827 $- : -) \subseteq Env^\bullet \times Term^\bullet \times Type^\bullet$ are defined analogously to [Definition 3.3](#), but we remove the rules

834 for let, return, flip, and shrink, and add

$$\frac{\Gamma; x : \tau_1 \vdash^* t : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash^* \text{fun } x : \tau_1. t : \tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash^* \text{flip}_p : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}}{\Gamma \vdash^* \text{shrink} : \tau \times \dots \times \tau \rightsquigarrow \tau}$$

838 where the *command typing relation* $(-; - \vdash^* - : -) \subseteq \text{Env}^* \times \text{Env}^* \times \text{Term}^* \times \text{Type}^*$ is mutually
839 defined to be the smallest relation satisfying

$$\frac{\Gamma, \Delta \vdash^* x : \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{return } x : \tau} \quad \frac{x \notin \text{Dom } \Delta \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma; \Delta, x : \tau_1 \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{let } x \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in } t_2 : \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_1 t_2 : \tau_2} \quad \frac{x_1, x_2 \notin \text{Dom } \Delta \quad \Gamma, \Delta \vdash^* t_0 : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \quad \Gamma; \Delta, x_1 : \tau_1 \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_3 \quad \Gamma; \Delta, x_2 : \tau_2 \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_3}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{match } t_0 \text{ with inl } x_1. t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2. t_2 : \tau_3}.$$

848 Hedgehog \rightarrow 's typing rules divide terms into two classes: normal terms (satisfying $- \vdash^* - : -$)
849 and *command terms* (satisfying $-; - \vdash^* - : -$). Command terms only occur inside an anonymous
850 function with a generator function type. Command terms include effect-free computations (return),
851 sequential composition (let), effectful function application ($t_1 t_2$), and case analyses which result
852 in commands (match). The typing rules for command terms have two contexts: one for normal
853 values (Γ) and one for values produced by the result of another command or given as an input to
854 the function (Δ). In an effectful function application $t_1 t_2$, only the argument term t_2 can refer to
855 any variable in Δ . This rules out command terms such as

$$\text{let } f \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in let } x \leftarrow t_2 \text{ in } f x,$$

858 where the effects performed by the last term ($f x$) are determined by the (arbitrarily complex)
859 behaviour of t_1 , i.e. the control flow of a command term is *fixed*.

861 Example 4.3. The terms coin_1 and coin_2 (Example 3.2) are still typed in Hedgehog \rightarrow , but they
862 are command terms instead of normal terms, i.e.,

$$\Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{coin}_1 : \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{coin}_2 : \text{Bool}.$$

865 To form normal terms, we place each term inside an anonymous function:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{coin}_1^* : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool} & \text{coin}_2^* : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool} \\ \text{coin}_1^* = \text{fun } u : 1. \text{ let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } 1/2 \text{ in} & \text{coin}_2^* = \text{fun } u : 1. \text{ let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } 1/2 \text{ in} \\ \quad \text{let } y \leftarrow \text{flip } 1/2 \text{ in} & \quad \text{return } x. \\ \quad \text{return } x = y & \end{array}$$

871 We similarly wrap the function discrim as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{discrim}^* : (1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow (1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}) \\ \text{discrim}^* = \text{fun } f : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}. \text{ fun } u : 1. \text{ let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in} \\ \quad \text{if } b \text{ then } f() \text{ else } \text{coin}_1^*(). \end{aligned}$$

4.2 Semantics

878 Definition 4.4 (Hedgehog \rightarrow Interpretation and Semantics). A Hedgehog \rightarrow interpretation $F : \mathbf{Qbs} \times$
879 $\mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ is a pre-arrow equipped with additional operations

$$\text{flip}_F : [0, 1] \rightarrow_Q F(1, \mathbb{B}) \quad \text{shrink}_F^n \in F(\prod_{i=0}^n A, A).$$

```

883    $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{return } x : \tau \rrbracket^F \rho = \text{arr}(\rho' \mapsto \llbracket \Gamma, \Delta \vdash^* x : \tau \rrbracket^F (\rho, \rho'))$ 
884
885    $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{let } x \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in } t_2 : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho$ 
886   =  $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta, x : \tau_1 \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho$ 
887   o arr(( $\rho', \rho'_x$ )  $\mapsto (\rho'_y)_{y \in \text{Dom } \Delta \cup \{x\}}$ )
888   o first( $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \rho$ )
889   o arr( $\rho' \mapsto (\rho', \rho')$ )
890   where  $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_1, \quad \Gamma; \Delta, x : \tau_1 \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_2$ 
891
892    $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_1 t_2 : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \rho \circ \llbracket \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_1 \rrbracket^F \rho$ 
893   where  $\Gamma \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2, \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_1$ 
894
895    $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* \text{match } t_0 \text{ with } \text{inl } x_1 . t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 . t_2 : \tau_3 \rrbracket^F \rho$ 
896   = arr(( $a, b$ )  $\mapsto (b, a)$ )
897   o left( $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta, x_2 : \tau_2 \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_3 \rrbracket^F \rho$ )
898   o arr(( $a, b$ )  $\mapsto (b, a)$ )
899   o left( $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta, x_1 : \tau_1 \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_3 \rrbracket^F \rho$ )
900   o arr( $\rho' \mapsto \text{distrib}(\rho', \llbracket \Gamma, \Delta \vdash^* t_0 : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \rrbracket^F (\rho, \rho'))$ )
901   where  $\Gamma, \Delta \vdash^* t_0 : \tau_1 + \tau_2, \quad \Gamma; \Delta, x_1 : \tau_1 \vdash^* t_1 : \tau_3, \quad \Gamma; \Delta, x_2 : \tau_2 \vdash^* t_2 : \tau_3$ 
902
903   Fig. 13. Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$  Command Semantics.
904

```

An interpretation induces a *type and environment semantics* $\llbracket - \rrbracket^F : \text{Type}^* \cup \text{Env}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$, defined analogously to [Definition 3.4](#), but with

$$\llbracket \tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2 \rrbracket^F = F(\llbracket \tau_1 \rrbracket^F, \llbracket \tau_2 \rrbracket^F).$$

An interpretation also induces, for all $\Gamma \vdash^* t : \tau$, a *term semantics* $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash^* t : \tau \rrbracket^F : \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket^F \rightarrow_Q \llbracket \tau \rrbracket^F$ defined analogously to [Definition 3.4](#) with

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash^* \text{fun } x : \tau_1 . t : \tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2 \rrbracket^F = \llbracket \Gamma; x : \tau_1 \vdash^* t : \tau_2 \rrbracket^F \quad \llbracket \Gamma \vdash^* \text{flip } p : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool} \rrbracket^F \rho = \text{flip}_F p$$

$$\llbracket \Gamma \vdash^* \text{shrink} : \underbrace{\tau * \dots * \tau}_{n+1 \text{ times}} \rightsquigarrow \tau \rrbracket^F \rho = \text{shrink}_F^n$$

where the function $\llbracket \Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t : \tau \rrbracket^F : \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket^F \rightarrow_Q F(\llbracket \Delta \rrbracket^F, \llbracket \tau \rrbracket^F)$ is defined for all $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash^* t : \tau$ in Figure 13.

The semantics for terms are adapted from [Lindley et al. \[2010\]](#). The semantics of Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ terms are defined analogously to Hedgehog, where an interpretation provides implementations of command terms. One significant difference is that the semantics of match (specifically within a command term) is now also defined by the interpretation. As with [Definition 3.4](#), we only require an interpretation to be a pre-arrow and not an arrow, since our sampling interpretation is not an arrow.

[Definition 4.5 \(Hedgehog \$^\rightarrow\$ Sampling Interpretation\).](#) The *sampling interpretation* $\mathfrak{C}^* : \mathbf{Qbs} \times \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ of Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ is defined in [Figure 14](#).

Hedgehog's sampling semantics defines generators as random variables, and Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ analogously defines generator functions as random functions. The remaining definitions also mirror [Definition 3.4](#), e.g., where composition $f \circ_{\mathfrak{C}^*} g$ splits its sample between arguments f and g .

$$\begin{array}{ll}
932 \quad \mathfrak{C}^\bullet(A, B) = (\mathbb{S} \times A \rightarrow_Q \text{Tree } B) & \text{arr}_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet} f(\sigma, a) = \text{unit}(f a) \\
933 & \\
934 \quad (f \circ_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet} g)(\sigma, a) = \text{bind}(b \mapsto f(\pi_r \sigma, b))(g(\pi_l \sigma, a)) & \text{first}_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet} f(\sigma, (a, c)) = \text{map}(-, c)(f(\sigma, a)) \\
935 & \\
936 \quad \text{left}_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet} f(\sigma, \iota_1 a) = \text{map } \iota_1(f(\sigma, a)) & \text{left}_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet} f(\sigma, \iota_2 b) = \text{unit}(\iota_2 b) \\
937 & \\
938 \quad \text{flip}_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet} p(\sigma, ()) = \text{unit}(\sigma < p) & \text{shrink}_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet}^n(\sigma, (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)) = \text{node}(a_0, \text{unit } a_1 :: \dots :: \text{unit } a_n :: \epsilon) \\
939 & \\
940 \quad \text{Fig. 14. Hedgehog}^\rightarrow\text{'s Sampling Interpretation.} &
\end{array}$$

941 *Remark 4.6.* Only redefining the semantics of `match` is not sufficient to rule out pathological
942 contexts such as `discrim'`. Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$'s additional type system restrictions are necessary due to
943 the presence of higher-order computation. For example, recall from [Proposition 3.12](#),

945 $\text{discrim } \text{coin}_2 =^{\mathfrak{C}} \text{let } b \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{true}, \text{false}) \text{ in if } b \text{ then } \text{coin}_1 \text{ else } \text{coin}_2.$

946 This can be expressed equivalently — without any case analysis — as

947 $\text{let } m \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{coin}_1, \text{coin}_2) \text{ in } m.$

948 The Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ version of this term is

949 $\text{let } m \leftarrow \text{shrink}(\text{coin}_1^\bullet, \text{coin}_2^\bullet) \text{ in } m()$

950 which does not satisfy the typing relation because `let`-bound variables (i.e., m), cannot appear on
951 the left hand side of a function application (as in $m()$).

952 *Example 4.7.* The sampling semantics of $\text{coin}_1^\bullet, \text{coin}_2^\bullet : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}$ ([Example 4.3](#)) are nearly
953 identical to their counterparts in [Example 3.6](#):

954 $\llbracket \text{coin}_1^\bullet \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet}(\sigma, u) = \text{unit}(\sigma_1 < 1/2 \Leftrightarrow \sigma_2 < 1/2) \quad \llbracket \text{coin}_2^\bullet \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet}(\sigma, u) = \text{unit}(\sigma_1 < 1/2)$

955 where $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \mathbb{S}$ obtained from σ by some sequence of invocations of π_l and π_r . The exact
956 sequences are unimportant, but they are much longer than in [Example 3.6](#) because the semantics
957 of `let` ([Figure 13](#)) involves a large number of compositions ($\circ_{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet}$). [Hughes \[2004, §4.2\]](#) describes
958 how these redundant compositions can be eliminated.

959 On the other hand, the semantics of $\text{discrim}^\bullet \text{ coin}_1^\bullet$ is

960 $\llbracket \text{discrim}^\bullet \text{ coin}_1^\bullet \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet} \sigma = \text{node}(\sigma_1 < 1/2 \Leftrightarrow \sigma_2 < 1/2, \text{unit}(\sigma_3 < 1/2 \Leftrightarrow \sigma_4 < 1/2) :: \epsilon)$

961 where $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, \sigma_4 \in \mathbb{S}$ are also obtained from σ by some sequence of invocations of π_l and π_r .
962 Unlike Hedgehog, Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ ensures that each branch in discrim^\bullet receives an independent
963 sample, so $\text{discrim}^\bullet \text{ coin}_1^\bullet$ does not return trees where all nodes are identically labelled. This
964 example also demonstrates that the command term `if` t then t' else t' is generally *not* identical
965 to t' , i.e., [Equation \(11\)](#) does not hold in Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$.

966 Like Hedgehog, Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ interpretations induce a semantic equivalence relation.

967 *Definition 4.8 (Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ Semantic Equivalence).* Two Hedgehog $^\rightarrow$ terms $\Gamma \vdash^\bullet t_1, t_2 : \tau$ are *semantically equivalent* with respect to an interpretation F (written $\Gamma \vdash^\bullet t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau$) if $\llbracket \Gamma \vdash^\bullet t_1 : \tau \rrbracket^F = \llbracket \Gamma \vdash^\bullet t_2 : \tau \rrbracket^F$. We write $t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau$ for $() \vdash^\bullet t_1 =^F t_2 : \tau$ and omit the type ascription $(: \tau)$ when it
968 can be inferred from the surrounding context.

$$\begin{aligned}
981 \quad \mathfrak{D}(A, B) &= \text{Dist}(A \rightarrow_Q \text{Tree } B) & \text{arr}_{\mathfrak{D}} \mu &= \text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ \mu) \\
982 \\
983 \quad \mu_1 \circ_{\mathfrak{D}} \mu_2 &= \text{bind}(a_2 \mapsto \text{map}(a_1 \mapsto \text{bind } a_1 \circ a_2) \mu_1) \mu_2 & \text{first}_{\mathfrak{D}} \mu &= \text{map}(\mu' \mapsto (a, c) \mapsto (\mu' a, c)) \mu \\
984 \\
985 \quad \text{left}_{\mathfrak{D}} \mu &= \text{map}(\mu' \mapsto [\iota_1 \circ \mu', \iota_2]) \mu & \text{flip}_{\mathfrak{D}} p &= \text{map}((\sigma, ()) \mapsto \sigma < p) \lambda \\
986 \\
987 \quad \text{shrink}_{\mathfrak{D}}^n &= \text{unit}((a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) \mapsto \text{node}(a_0, \text{unit } a_1 :: \dots :: \text{unit } a_n :: \epsilon)) \\
988 \\
989 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 15. Hedgehog \rightarrow 's Distribution Interpretation.

4.3 Distributions

Definition 4.9 (Hedgehog \rightarrow Distribution Semantics). The distribution semantics of term $t : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}$ is given by the function

$$\begin{aligned}
994 \quad (-)^\bullet &: \text{Term}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{Dist}(1 \rightarrow_Q \mathbb{B}) \\
995 \quad (t)^\bullet &= \text{map}(\text{curry}[\![t]\!]^{\mathfrak{C}^\bullet}) \lambda.
\end{aligned}$$

Definition 4.9 is the Hedgehog \rightarrow analogue of *Definition 3.10*.

Example 4.10. We compute the distributions of $\text{coin}_1^\bullet, \text{coin}_2^\bullet : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}$ given in *Example 4.3*:

$$\begin{aligned}
1000 \quad (\text{coin}_1^\bullet)^\bullet &= 1/2 \cdot \text{unit}((() \mapsto \text{unit true}) + 1/2 \cdot \text{unit}((() \mapsto \text{unit false})) \\
1001 \quad (\text{coin}_2^\bullet)^\bullet &= 1/2 \cdot \text{unit}((() \mapsto \text{unit true}) + 1/2 \cdot \text{unit}((() \mapsto \text{unit false}))
\end{aligned}$$

These distributions are essentially identical to the ones given in *Example 3.11*.

Definition 4.11 (Hedgehog \rightarrow Distribution Interpretation). The distribution interpretation $\mathfrak{D} : \mathbf{Qbs} \rightarrow \mathbf{Qbs}$ is defined in *Figure 15*.

PROPOSITION 4.12. *The interpretation \mathfrak{D} is an arrow.*

(1) Case $f \circ \text{arr id} = f$.

$$\begin{aligned}
1009 \quad f \circ \text{arr id} &= f \circ \text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ \text{id}) \\
1010 \quad &= \text{bind}(a \mapsto \text{map}(b \mapsto \text{bind } b \circ a) f) (\text{unit unit}) \\
1011 \quad &= \text{map}(b \mapsto \text{bind } b \circ \text{unit}) f \\
1012 \quad &= \text{map}(b \mapsto b) f \\
1013 \quad &= f
\end{aligned}$$

(2) Case $\text{arr}(f \circ g) = \text{arr } f \circ \text{arr } g$.

$$\begin{aligned}
1017 \quad \text{arr}(f \circ g) &= \text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ f \circ g) \\
1018 \quad &= \text{unit}(\text{bind}(\text{unit} \circ f) \circ \text{unit} \circ g) \\
1019 \quad &= \text{map}(a_1 \mapsto \text{bind } a_1 \circ \text{unit} \circ g) (\text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ f)) \\
1020 \quad &= \text{bind}(a_2 \mapsto \text{map}(a_1 \mapsto \text{bind } a_1 \circ a_2) (\text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ f))) (\text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ g)) \\
1021 \quad &= \text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ f) \circ \text{unit}(\text{unit} \circ g) \\
1022 \quad &= \text{arr } f \circ \text{arr } g
\end{aligned}$$

(3) Case $\text{first}(f \circ g) = \text{first } f \circ \text{first } g$.

(4) Case $\text{arr}(-_1) = f \circ \text{arr}(-_1)$.

(5) Case $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$.

(6) Case $\text{first}(\text{arr } f) = \text{arr}(f \times \text{id})$.

Types				
1030	$\langle 1 \rangle_{\text{ty}} = 1$	$\langle \emptyset \rangle_{\text{ty}} = \emptyset$	$\langle \tau_1 + \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}} = \langle \tau_1 \rangle_{\text{ty}} + \langle \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}}$	$\langle \tau_1 * \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}} = \langle \tau_1 \rangle_{\text{ty}} * \langle \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}}$
1031				
1032	$\langle \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}} = \langle \tau_1 \rangle_{\text{ty}} \rightarrow \langle \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}}$			
1033				$\langle \tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}} = \langle \tau_1 \rangle_{\text{ty}} \rightarrow \text{Gen} \langle \tau_2 \rangle_{\text{ty}}$
1034	Environments			
1035	$\langle x_1 : \tau_1, \dots, x_n : \tau_n \rangle_{\text{env}} = x_1 : \langle \tau_1 \rangle_{\text{ty}}, \dots, x_n : \langle \tau_n \rangle_{\text{ty}}$			
1036				
1037	Terms			
1038	$\langle x \rangle_{\text{tm}} = x$	$\langle \text{absurd } t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{absurd} \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	$\langle () \rangle_{\text{tm}} = ()$	$\langle \text{inl } t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{inl} \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$
1039				
1040	$\langle \text{inr } t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{inr} \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$			
1041				$\langle \text{match } t_1 \text{ with inl } x_1. t_2 \mid \text{inr } x_2. t_3 \rangle_{\text{tm}}$
1042				$= \text{match} \langle t_1 \rangle_{\text{tm}} \text{ with}$
1043				$\quad \text{inl } x_1. \text{ let } y \leftarrow \langle t_2 \rangle_{\text{tm}} \text{ in return } y$
				$\quad \mid \text{inr } x_2. \text{ let } y \leftarrow \text{return} () \text{ in } \langle t_3 \rangle_{\text{tm}}$
1044	$\langle (t_1, t_2) \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \langle \langle t_1 \rangle_{\text{tm}}, \langle t_2 \rangle_{\text{tm}} \rangle$	$\langle \text{fst } t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{fst} \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	$\langle \text{snd } t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{snd} \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	
1045				
1046	$\langle \text{fun } x : \tau. t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{fun } x : \langle \tau \rangle_{\text{ty}}. \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	$\langle t_1 t_2 \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \langle t_1 \rangle_{\text{tm}} \langle t_2 \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	$\langle \text{return } t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{return} \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	
1047				
1048	$\langle \text{let } x \leftarrow t_1 \text{ in } t_2 \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{let } x \leftarrow \langle t_1 \rangle_{\text{tm}} \text{ in } \langle t_2 \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	$\langle \text{flip } p \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{flip } p$	$\langle \text{shrink } t \rangle_{\text{tm}} = \text{shrink} \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}}$	
1049				
1050	Fig. 16. Translation from Hedgehog \rightarrow to Hedgehog.			
1051				
1052	(7) Case arr $(\text{id} \times g) \circ \text{first } f = \text{first } f \circ \text{arr} (\text{id} \times g)$.			
1053	(8) Case arr assoc $\circ \text{first} (\text{first } f) = \text{first } f \circ \text{arr assoc}$.			
1054				
1055	THEOREM 4.13. Suppose $() \vdash^* t : 1 \rightsquigarrow \text{Bool}$. Then $\langle \langle t \rangle \rangle^* = \llbracket t \rrbracket^{\mathfrak{D}}$.			
1056				
1057	Theorem 4.13 states that, unlike Hedgehog's distribution semantics, Hedgehog \rightarrow 's distribution semantics <i>are</i> compositional, as witnessed by the interpretation \mathfrak{D} . Under \mathfrak{D} , generator functions			
1058				
1059				
1060				
	are interpreted as distributions of functions into shrink trees. Note that, in Theorem 4.13 , t is a command term and therefore represents an effectful computation.			
1061				
1062	THEOREM 4.14. Equations (1) to (16) (Theorems 3.8 and 3.9) all hold for Hedgehog \rightarrow terms under \mathfrak{D} , except for equation (11).			
1063				
1064	Theorem 4.14 demonstrates that Hedgehog \rightarrow is considerably more suited for program optimization than Hedgehog. The only transformation which is not valid (as demonstrated in Example 4.7) is equation (11). However, we can recover a special case.			
1065				
1066				
1067	PROPOSITION 4.15. The following equivalence holds:			
1068				
1069	$\text{let } x \leftarrow \text{flip } p \text{ in if } x \text{ then } t \text{ else } t =^{\mathfrak{D}} t$			
1070				
1071	Intuitively, Proposition 4.15 demonstrates that equation (11) holds whenever the condition term does not shrink.			
1072				
1073	4.4 From Hedgehog\rightarrow to Hedgehog			
1074				
1075	Definition 4.16. The translation from Hedgehog \rightarrow types, environments, and terms to Hedgehog types, environments, and terms is given by the functions $\langle - \rangle_{\text{ty}} : \text{Type}^* \rightarrow \text{Type}$, $\langle - \rangle_{\text{env}} : \text{Env}^* \rightarrow \text{Env}$, and $\langle - \rangle_{\text{tm}} : \text{Term}^* \rightarrow \text{Term}$ defined in Figure 16 .			
1076				
1077				
1078				

1079 1080 1081 **Definition 4.16** defines our translation from Hedgehog \rightarrow terms to Hedgehog terms. The only changes performed by $\langle - \rangle_{\text{tm}}$ are (1) replacing every instance of $\tau_1 \rightsquigarrow \tau_2$ with $\tau_1 \rightarrow \text{Gen } \tau_2$, and (2) adding additional return computations to match terms.

1082 **PROPOSITION 4.17.** *The following statements hold:*

- 1084 (1) *Suppose $\Gamma \vdash t : \tau$. Then $\langle \Gamma \rangle_{\text{env}} \vdash \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}} : \langle \tau \rangle_{\text{ty}}$.*
- 1085 (2) *Suppose $\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash t : \tau$. Then $\langle \Gamma \rangle_{\text{env}}, \langle \Delta \rangle_{\text{env}} \vdash \langle t \rangle_{\text{tm}} : \langle \tau \rangle_{\text{ty}}$.*

1086 1087 1088 **Proposition 4.17** shows that our translation preserves typing. As shown in [Example 4.7](#), it is not the case that our translation preserves sampling semantics. However, distribution semantics is preserved.

1089 **LEMMA 4.18.** *Suppose $() ; () \vdash^* t_1 =^{\mathcal{D}} t_2 : \text{Bool}$. Then $(\langle t_1 \rangle_{\text{tm}}) = (\langle t_2 \rangle_{\text{tm}})$.*

1091 4.5 Summary

1093 1094 1095 1096 1097 1098 1099 1100 1101 We have introduced Hedgehog \rightarrow , a restricted variant of Hedgehog with a compositional distribution semantics ([Theorem 4.13](#)). Hedgehog \rightarrow achieves this by forcing different branches in a case analysis (`match`) to produce statistically independent values. This cannot be a simple semantic change due to the presence of higher-order computation, so Hedgehog \rightarrow also places restrictions on (effectful) function application in the style of the arrow calculus [[Lindley et al. 2010](#)]. The resulting language admits nearly all the program transformations discussed in [Theorems 3.8](#) and [3.9](#), except for one which holds in a restricted context. We provide a simple translation from Hedgehog \rightarrow back to Hedgehog, which indicates that any Hedgehog program which corresponds to some Hedgehog \rightarrow program is equally amenable to optimization.

1102 5 Evaluation

1103 1104 1105 1106 1107 1108 1109 In [Section 4](#), we described a modification of the Hedgehog language, Hedgehog \rightarrow , which has a compositional distribution semantics which supports a much wider variety of program transformations than Hedgehog ([Theorem 4.14](#)). We now evaluate the effects of Hedgehog \rightarrow 's design with respect to other practical considerations. Given that the Hedgehog \rightarrow language obtains a compositional semantics by placing syntactic restrictions on the form of Hedgehog programs, the goal of our evaluation is to answer the following research questions:

1110 **RQ1:** To what extent can a Hedgehog \rightarrow -based language express existing generators?

1111 **RQ2:** What is the impact of Hedgehog \rightarrow 's design on program size?

1112 5.1 Setup

1113 1114 1115 1116 1117 1118 1119 1120 We have implemented Hedgehog \rightarrow as a companion library to Hedgehog. The library, `hedgehog-arrow`, includes a type `Gen a b` of effectful functions from `a` to `b`. The Glasgow Haskell Compiler (GHC) includes syntactic extensions for arrows [[Paterson 2001](#)], which allows programs to be written in a syntax similar to what is presented in [Section 4](#). For example, we translate [Example 4.3](#) to Haskell in [Figure 17](#). Anonymous generator functions are constructed using the `proc` keyword, sequential composition is denoted using `do` notation, and generator function application is explicitly denoted using the operator “ \rightarrow ”.

1121 1122 In addition to the two basic operators `flip` and `shrink` presented in [Sections 3](#) and [4](#), `hedgehog-arrow` also includes the following primitives:

- 1123 (1) Operations `getSize :: Gen a Size` and `resize :: Gen a b → Gen (Size, a) b` for controlling the size of generated values.
- 1125 (2) An operation `freeze :: Gen a b → Gen a (Tree b)` which runs its argument, capturing all of its shrinking behaviour and saving it to a tree.

```

1128   1 coin1 :: Gen () Bool
1129   2 coin1 = proc () -> do
1130     3   x <- bool_ -> ()
1131     4   y <- bool_ -> ()
1132     5   returnA -> x == y
1133   6
1134   7 coin2 :: Gen () Bool
1135   8 coin2 = proc () -> do
1136     9   x <- bool_ -> ()
1137    10  returnA -> x

```

Fig. 17. Example 4.3 translated to Haskell.

```

1 1138 1 prune :: Gen a b -> Gen a b
2 1139 2 prune g = proc x -> do
3 1140 3   y <- freeze g -> x
4 1141 4   returnA -> treeLabel y

```

Fig. 18. The prune Function.

Module	# Expressible	Module Size
Hedgehog.Gen	64/68/70	N/A
Test.Example.Basic	5/18/18	417/393 (6.1%)
Test.Example.Confidence	1/1/1	35/37 (-5.4%)
Test.Example.Coverage	7/7/7	251/261 (-3.8%)
Test.Example.Exception	3/3/3	82/85 (-3.5%)
Test.Example.QuasiShow	2/2/2	63/60 (5%)
Test.Example.Resource	10/10/10	398/401 (-0.7%)
Test.Example.RoundTrip	0/3/3	225/216 (4.2%)
Test.Example.STLC	0/16/16	425/402 (5.7%)

Table 1. Numbers of expressible generators per module and module sizes. Generator counts are reported as number of (not expressible/semi-expressible/fully-expressible) generators. Module sizes are reported as (Hedgehog \rightarrow /Hedgehog) module AST nodes.

The first feature comes from QuickCheck and solves certain termination issues [Claessen and Hughes 2000]. The second feature is used to modify or eliminate existing shrinking behaviour. For example, the function `prune`, which eliminates all shrinking behaviour from its argument, is implemented using `freeze` in Figure 18. Intuitively, `prune` behaves exactly like `freeze` but discards everything except the root value in the resulting tree (line 4).

We perform our experiments on Hedgehog’s Hedgehog.Gen module. The Hedgehog.Gen module contains a large collection of common generators and generator combinators. We provide analogues for each of these generators and combinators in hedgehog-arrow. We also perform experiments on several modules from Hedgehog’s example repository¹. We rewrote each of these modules to use hedgehog-arrow. Our full module set is given in Table 1.

The source code for our implementation, examples, and experiments is available at <https://github.com/hedgehog-arr/hedgehog-arr>.

5.2 Results

RQ1: To what extent can a Hedgehog \rightarrow -based language express existing generators? Hedgehog \rightarrow is intuitively a restricted version of Hedgehog, hence we investigate the impact this restriction has on expressivity in practice.

Table 1 lists, per module, how many generators and combinators within those modules

¹Commit 4e9045fafa9b50efdc68326cd9f643c0d8383a18

```

1177   1 choice :: MonadGen m => [m a] -> m a
1178   2 choice [] = error "Hedgehog.Gen.choice: used with empty list"
1179   3 choice xs = do
1180     4   n <- integral (Range.constant 0 (length xs - 1))
1181     5   xs !! n

```

Fig. 19. The implementation of choice in Hedgehog.

- 1183
 1184 (1) cannot be expressed in Hedgehog \rightarrow ,
 1185 (2) are *semi-expressible*, i.e., can be expressed using non-expressible generators, and
 1186 (3) are expressible in Hedgehog \rightarrow .

1187 We observed only two combinators in the first category: choice and frequency. To illustrate
 1188 why these combinators are not expressible, we present a simplified implementation of choice in
 1189 Figure 19. Intuitively, choice xs selects a random generator x from xs and executes it. During
 1190 shrinking, choice xs may behave like any x' in xs which occurs earlier than x. Operationally,
 1191 choice xs works by selecting a random integer n (line 4) and then executing the nth element
 1192 of xs (line 5). The reason choice cannot be implemented is because it always passes the same
 1193 sample to its selection xs !! n, which introduces a statistical dependency, which is explicitly
 1194 disallowed by Hedgehog \rightarrow (see Remark 4.6). The frequency combinator exhibits the same issue.
 1195 We provide alternative implementations of choice and frequency in hedgehog-arrow which
 1196 guarantee statistical independence during shrinking. Note that combinators are not generators
 1197 themselves, but functions used to construct other generators: to our knowledge, no generator
 1198 deliberately depends on the original behaviour of choice and frequency.

1199 **Summary:** hedgehog-arrow expresses almost all generators in our evaluation corpus, including
 1200 those used in practical examples.

1202 **RQ2:** What is the impact of Hedgehog \rightarrow 's design on program size? The restrictions Hedgehog \rightarrow
 1203 places on command terms may require users to employ verbose workarounds. We determine
 1204 whether this is the case by measuring the impact of Hedgehog \rightarrow 's design on program size.

1205 Table 1 lists the size (in AST nodes) of both the Hedgehog and hedgehog-arrow version of
 1206 each module. We do not compare the Hedgehog .Gen module because the Hedgehog .Gen primarily
 1207 consists of re-exported internal code.

1208 Our results show that using hedgehog-arrow has a negligible impact on program size.

1209 **Summary:** hedgehog-arrow programs are not significantly larger than their Hedgehog counter-
 1210 parts.

1212 5.3 Threats to Validity

1214 Our example set is entirely written in Haskell, which is a lazy and purely functional language. Our
 1215 results may not generalize to strict, imperative languages. Our example set, while fairly large, does
 1216 not include any particularly large examples (the largest being 122 lines), so our conclusions may
 1217 not hold for larger programs.

1218 6 Related Work

1220 *Property-Based Testing and Shrinking.* Property-based testing was popularized by the QuickCheck
 1221 [Claessen and Hughes 2000] framework for Haskell, which features a probabilistic eDSL for spec-
 1222 ifying generators. In QuickCheck, a shrinker for a type a is specified separately as a function
 1223 shrinks :: a -> [a] from values to their immediate shrinks. In contrast, Hedgehog \rightarrow employs
 1224 generator-based shrinking, where shrinkers are derived from annotated generator specifications.

1226 Generator-based shrinking approaches were introduced by QuviQ QuickCheck [Claessen et al.
 1227 2009] for Erlang. QuviQ QuickCheck implements generator-based shrinking using *integrated*
 1228 *shrinking*, where generators are represented as tree-valued random variables. Integrated shrinking
 1229 is used by Hedgehog [Stanley 2024] (and hence Hedgehog \rightarrow) and many property-based testing
 1230 frameworks in other languages such as RapidCheck [Eriksson 2024] for C++.

1231 The Hypothesis [Maciver and Hatfield-Dodds 2019] library for Python implements a different
 1232 approach to generator-based shrinking called *internal shrinking*, where generators are represented
 1233 as random variables drawing from a space of infinite bit sequences, and shrinks are obtained
 1234 by re-executing generators on modified bit sequences obtained via a set of built-in heuristics.
 1235 While hypothesis often produces better shrinks than approaches based on integrated shrinking
 1236 for programs with no user annotations, hypothesis provides no mechanism for user control over
 1237 shrinking. This is less than ideal when the built-in heuristics are insufficient. The falsify library for
 1238 Haskell [de Vries 2023] rectifies this downside while retaining the advantages of internal shrinking
 1239 by allowing users to specify custom shrinking behaviour. De Vries [2023] identify the primary
 1240 advantage of internal shrinking as *hierarchical shrinking* behaviour, where shrinking is allowed
 1241 to backtrack. The Hedgehog language actually exhibits hierarchical shrinking for generators
 1242 implemented using Applicative functor operations [Mcbride and Paterson 2008]. Applicative
 1243 functors and arrows are closely related [Mcbride and Paterson 2008]. Integrating hierarchical
 1244 shrinking into Hedgehog \rightarrow is left as future work.

1245 Reflective generators [Goldstein et al. 2023] extend normal generators with *partial monadic*
 1246 *profunctor* operations. Goldstein et al. [2023] show how this extension lends itself to a number of
 1247 features, including the ability to run a generator “backwards” to obtain a random seed from a user-
 1248 provided test case. The reflective generator framework does not mandate a particular interpretation,
 1249 but is incompatible with Hedgehog \rightarrow ’s semantics since Hedgehog \rightarrow ’s explicitly disallows the
 1250 general (monadic) form of sequential composition that reflective generators support.

1251 The formal semantics of generator-based shrinking languages have not been explored in detail
 1252 prior to this work and hence these languages lack sound, formally-specified, compositional rules
 1253 for reasoning about combined generator and shrinker behaviour.

1254
 1255 *Semantics of Probabilistic Programming Languages.* Quasi-Borel Spaces [Heunen et al. 2017]
 1256 form a semantic model of higher-order probabilistic programs, which we use to justify our various
 1257 semantics. Quasi-Borel Pre-Domains [Vákár et al. 2019] combine quasi-Borel spaces with ω -complete
 1258 partial orders [Abramsky and Jung 1995] to allow modelling probabilistic programs with recursion.
 1259 All of our results generalize to this setting except for (possibly) [Theorem 3.15](#). The proof of
 1260 [Theorem 3.15](#) relies on the fact that, whenever $\llbracket t \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma = x$, then $\llbracket t \rrbracket^{\mathbb{C}} \sigma' = x$ for all σ' in some set of
 1261 positive measure. This holds for all *terminating* programs, but not necessarily for non-terminating
 1262 programs. Investigating this case is left for future work. Note that a failure to generalize does not
 1263 reduce the impact of [Theorem 3.15](#) since it still applies to all terminating programs.
 1264

1265
 1266 *Semantics of Probabilistic and Nondeterministic Programming Languages.* Shrinking can be viewed
 1267 as a form of nondeterminism, and there is a large body of work addressing the combination of
 1268 probabilistic and nondeterministic effects [Bandini and Segala 2001; Chen and Sanders 2009; Gibbons
 1269 and Hinze 2011; Mislove et al. 2004; Varacca and Winskel 2006]. Various authors [Gibbons and Hinze
 1270 2011; Mislove et al. 2004; Varacca and Winskel 2006] observe that allowing probabilistic choice to
 1271 distribute over nondeterministic choice, combined with the the idempotence of probabilistic choice,
 1272 leads to unexpected behaviour. [Theorem 3.15](#) provides a similar type of observation, specific to
 1273 Hedgehog. Placing this result in a more general setting is left to future work.
 1274

1275 *Arrows.* Arrows are a generalization of monads [Moggi 1991] introduced to functional programming by Hughes [2000]. Arrows model languages with more restricted control flow than monads
 1276 allow, which is crucial for our solution. Arrows alone do not model languages with case analysis: the
 1277 `ArrowChoice` class [Hughes 2000] in Haskell extends arrows with this ability, and corresponds to
 1278 the left function required by Hedgehog \rightarrow interpretations. Hedgehog \rightarrow is built on the *arrow calculus*
 1279 [Lindley et al. 2010], which provides a more familiar presentation of arrows and their equational
 1280 properties. Paterson [2001] describes a similar notation for Haskell, on which our implementation
 1281 is based.
 1282

1283 7 Conclusion and Future Work

1284 Existing languages that feature user-controlled generator-based shrinking lack sound, compositional
 1285 semantics for reasoning about generator equivalence. In this paper, we showed that this problem is
 1286 inherent to the design of existing languages, using Hedgehog as a canonical example. We defined
 1287 Hedgehog \rightarrow , a restricted version of Hedgehog, and showed that it has an appropriate compositional
 1288 semantics. We also showed that Hedgehog \rightarrow is expressive enough in practice by translating a
 1289 large set of existing programs into Hedgehog \rightarrow , and showed that Hedgehog \rightarrow programs are not
 1290 significantly more tedious to write than Hedgehog programs.
 1291

1292 We have shown that many common optimizations are valid within Hedgehog \rightarrow , but these
 1293 optimizations remain to be implemented. This can be done for Haskell programs either with
 1294 rewrite rules [Reinders 2024] or a compiler plugin [Farmer et al. 2012]. As mentioned in Section 6,
 1295 integrating falsify-style [de Vries 2023] hierarchical shrinking into Hedgehog \rightarrow is also left as future
 1296 work.
 1297

1298 Data Availability Statement

1299 The source code for our implementation, examples, and experiments is available at <https://github.com/hedgehog-arr/hedgehog-arr>. The proofs for our theorems can be found in the extended version
 1300 at <https://github.com/hedgehog-arr/hedgehog-arr/blob/master/extended.pdf>.
 1301

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