

Multi-Language Probabilistic Programming

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There are many different probabilistic programming languages that are specialized to specific kinds of probabilistic programs. From a usability and scalability perspective, this is undesirable: today, probabilistic programmers are forced up-front to decide which language they want to use and cannot mix-and-match different languages for handling heterogeneous programs. To rectify this, we seek a foundation for sound interoperability for probabilistic programming languages: just as today's Python programmers can resort to low-level C programming for performance, we argue that probabilistic programmers should be able to freely mix different languages for meeting the demands of heterogeneous probabilistic programming environments. As a first step towards this goal, we introduce MULTIPPL, a probabilistic multi-language that enables programmers to interoperate between two different probabilistic programming languages: one that leverages a high-performance exact discrete inference strategy, and one that uses approximate importance sampling. We give a syntax and semantics for MULTIPPL, prove soundness of its inference algorithm, and provide empirical evidence that it enables programmers to perform inference on complex heterogeneous probabilistic programs and flexibly exploits the strengths and weaknesses of two languages simultaneously.

CCS Concepts: • **Mathematics of computing** → **Bayesian computation**; • **Theory of computation** → *Denotational semantics*.

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1 Introduction

Scalable and reliable probabilistic inference remains a significant barrier for applying and using probabilistic programming languages (PPLs) in practice. The core of the inference challenge is that there is no universal approach: different kinds of inference strategies are specialized for different kinds of probabilistic programs. For example, STAN's inference strategy is highly effective on continuous and differentiable programs such as hierarchical Bayesian models, but struggles on programs with high-dimensional discrete structure such as graph and network reachability [9]. On the other extreme, languages like DICE and PROBLOG scale well on purely-discrete problems, but the price for this scalability is that they must forego any support whatsoever of continuous probability distributions [16, 23]. In an ideal world, a probabilistic programmer would not have to commit to one language or the other: they could use a DICE-like language for high-performance scalable inference on the discrete portion of the program, a STAN-like language for the portion to which it is well-suited, and be able to transfer data and control-flow between these two languages for heterogeneous programs.

This raises a key question: how should we orchestrate the handoff between two probabilistic programming languages whose underlying semantics may be radically different and seemingly incompatible? This question of sound language interoperability has been extensively explored in the context of non-probabilistic languages [13, 31, 36, 39, 47, 60, 61], where the goal is to prove

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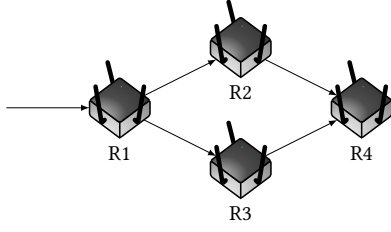
properties such as type-soundness and termination in a multi-language setting. As a starting point, Matthews and Findler [31] introduced an effective model for capturing the interaction between two languages by *language embedding*: the syntax and operational semantics of a Scheme-like language and an ML-like language are unified into a multi-language and syntactic boundary terms are added to mediate transfer of control and data between the two languages. Using this embedding approach, they were able to establish the type-soundness of the multi-language. Their approach relied on a careful enforcement of soundness properties on the boundaries, for instance inserting dynamic guards or contracts to ensure soundness when typed ML values are transferred to untyped Scheme.

We introduce the notion of *sound inference interoperability*: whereas sound interoperability of traditional languages ensures that multi-language programs are type-sound, sound *inference* interoperability ensures that probabilistic multi-language programs correctly represent the intended probability distribution. Our main goal will be to establish sound inference interoperability of two PPLs: the first is called **Disc** and is similar to DICE, and the second is called **Cont** and it makes use of importance-sampling-based inference. These two languages are a nice pairing: **Disc** provides scalable exact discrete inference at the expense of expressivity, as it does not support continuous random variables and unbounded loops. On the other hand, **Cont** provides significant expressivity (it supports continuous random variables) at the cost of relying on importance-sampling-based approximate inference. Following Matthews and Findler [31], we embed both **Disc** and **Cont** into a multi-language we call MULTIPPL. Together, these two languages cover a broad spectrum of interesting probabilistic programs that are difficult to handle today. We will show in Section 2 and Section 4 that examples from networking and probabilistic graphical models benefit from the ability to flexibly use different languages and inference algorithms within a unified multi-language. Traditional multi-language semantics establishes sound interoperability by proving type-soundness of the combined multi-language [31]. Analogously, we establish sound inference interoperability between **Disc** and **Cont**, guaranteeing that well-typed MULTIPPL programs correctly represent the intended probability distribution. Our contributions are as follows:

- We introduce MULTIPPL, a multi-language in the style of Matthews and Findler [31] that enables interoperation between a discrete exact probabilistic programming language **Disc** and a continuous approximate probabilistic programming language **Cont**.
- In Section 3 we construct two models of MULTIPPL by combining appropriate semantic domains for **Disc** and **Cont** programs: a high-level model capturing the probability distribution intended by a given MULTIPPL program, and a low-level model capturing the details of our particular implementation strategy. We then prove that these two semantics agree, establishing correctness of the implementation (Theorem 3.6). We identify two key requirements for ensuring sound inference interoperability between exact and approximate programs: **Disc** programs must additionally enforce *sample consistency* for ensuring **Disc** values pass safely into **Cont**, and **Cont** programs must additionally perform *importance weighting* for ensuring the safety of **Disc** conditioning.
- In Section 4 we validate the practical effectiveness of MULTIPPL through our provided implementation. We evaluate the efficacy of MULTIPPL by modeling complex independence structures through real-world problems in the domain of networking and probabilistic graphical models. We provide insights into MULTIPPL's approach to probabilistic inference and characterize the nuanced landscape that interoperation produces.

2 Overview

We argue that it is often the case that realistic probabilistic programs consist of sub-programs that are best handled by *different* probabilistic programming languages. Consider for example the *packet arrival* situation visualized in Fig. 1. In this example, at each time step, network packets



```

1  function step() {
2    let lambda = uniform(0, 5) in
3    let numPackets = poisson(lambda) in
4    for i in 0..numPackets {
5      forwardPacket(R1)
6    }
7  }

```

Fig. 1. A small network and a fragment of a probabilistic program encoding of the packet arrival problem.

Disc	Expressions	$M, N ::= X \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid M \wedge N \mid \neg M$ $\mid \langle \rangle \mid \langle M, N \rangle \mid \text{fst } M \mid \text{snd } M$ $\mid \text{ret } M \mid \text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N \mid \text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N$ $\mid \text{flip } e \mid \text{observe } M \mid \langle e \rangle_E$
	Types	$A, B ::= \text{unit} \mid \text{bool} \mid A \times B$
	Contexts	$\Delta ::= X_1 : A_1, \dots, X_n : A_n$
CONT	Expressions	$e ::= x \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid r \mid e_1 + e_2 \mid -e \mid e_1 \cdot e_2 \mid e_1 \leq e_2$ $\mid () \mid (e_1, e_2) \mid \text{fst } e \mid \text{snd } e$ $\mid \text{ret } e \mid \text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \mid \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3$ $\mid d \mid \text{obs}(e_o, d) \mid \langle M \rangle_S$
	Distributions	$d ::= \text{flip } e \mid \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2 \mid \text{poisson } e$
	Types	$\sigma, \tau ::= \text{unit} \mid \text{bool} \mid \text{real} \mid \sigma \times \tau$
	Contexts	$\Gamma ::= x_1 : \tau_1, \dots, x_n : \tau_n$
	Number literals	$r \in \mathbb{R}$

Fig. 2. Syntax of MULTIPPL. In **Disc**, we require $e \in [0, 1]$ for **flip**. In **CONT**, the syntax of distributions d denotes probability distributions. In **obs** these terms condition, otherwise they are immediately sampled.

are arriving according to a Poisson distribution, a fairly standard setup in discrete-time queueing theory [32]. Then, each packet is forwarded through the network, whose topology is visualized as a directed graph. The goal is to query for various properties about the network's behavior: for instance, the probability of a packet reaching the end of the network, or of a packet queue overflowing. This example task is inspired by prior work on using probabilistic programming languages to perform network verification [18, 53].

The situation in Fig. 1 is a small illustrative example of packet arrival, but programs like it are extremely challenging for today's PPLs because they mix different kinds of program structure. Lines 2 and 3 manipulate continuous and countably-infinite-domain random variables, which precludes the use of DICE. However, graph reachability and queue behavior are complex discrete distributions, which are difficult for STAN due to their inherent non-differentiability and high-dimensional discrete structure. In order to scale on this example, we would like to be able to use an inference algorithm like STAN's for lines 2 and 3, and an inference algorithm like DICE's for lines 4–6.

Our approach to designing a language capable of handling situations like that described in Fig. 1 is to enable the programmer to seamlessly transition between programming in two different PPLs: **CONT**, an expressive language that supports sampling-based inference and continuous random variables, and **Disc**, a restricted discrete-only language that supports scalable exact discrete inference. Following Matthews and Findler [31], we describe a *probabilistic multi-language* that

embeds both languages into a single unified syntax: see Fig. 2. In Section 3.1 we discuss the intricacies of the syntax in Fig. 2 in full detail, including typing judgments found in Fig. 7 and the appendix; here we briefly note its high-level structure and discuss examples.

These languages delineate our two syntactic categories:

- (1) **Disc** terms, shown in **purple**, that support discrete probabilistic operations such as Bernoulli random variables and Bayesian conditioning. The syntax is standard for an ML-like functional language with the addition of probabilistic constructs: **flip** e introduces a Bernoulli random variable that is **true** with probability $e \in [0, 1]$ and **false** otherwise; the construct **observe** M conditions on M . Notably, **Disc** lacks introduction forms for continuous random variables or real numbers and so in order to define the Bernoulli-distributed random variable using **flip**, we must rely on interoperation to construct our distribution.
- (2) **Cont** terms, shown in **orange**, additionally support standard continuous operations and sampling capabilities from two distributions inexpressible in **Disc**: a Uniform distribution **uniform** $e_1 e_2$ over the interval $[e_1, e_2]$, with $e_1, e_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, and a Poisson distribution **poisson** with rate $e \in \mathbb{R}$ being greater than zero. The syntax **obs**(e_o, d) denotes conditioning on the event that a sample drawn from distribution d is equal to e_o .

Mediating between the **Disc** and **Cont** sublanguages are the boundaries $\langle e \rangle_E$ and $\langle M \rangle_S$: the boundary $\langle e \rangle_E$ allows passing from **Cont** to **Disc**, and the boundary $\langle M \rangle_S$ allows passing from **Disc** to **Cont**. This style of presentation is similar to Patterson [40].

Listing 1 shows an example program in our multi-language which passes a uniformly-sampled real value θ from **Cont** into **Disc** and uses the resulting value as a prior for sampling two independent Bernoulli random variables. The outer-most language is **Cont**. On Line 1, θ is bound to a sample drawn from the uniform distribution on the unit interval. Then, on Lines 2–5, we begin evaluation of a **Disc** program inside the boundary term $\langle - \rangle_S$. We flip two coins X and Y (Lines 2 and 3, respectively) in the **Disc** sub-language, whose prior parameters are both θ . On Line 4, we observe that one of the two coins was true, taking advantage of syntactic sugar where **observe** is bound to a discarded variable name. Line 5 brings us to the final line of our program, where we query for the probability that X is true. The next two sub-sections will explain our approach to bridging the two languages.

Listing 1. TwoCoins

```

1  let  $\theta$  be uniform 0 1 in
2   $\langle$  let  $X$  be flip  $\theta$  in
3    let  $Y$  be flip  $\theta$  in
4    observe  $X \vee Y$  in
5    ret  $X$   $\rangle_S$ 

```

2.1 Disc and Cont inference

Before we describe the intricacies of language interoperation, we first provide some high-level intuition for how we wish to perform inference on **Disc** and **Cont** independently. First, we give a denotational semantics for MULTIPPL that we denote $\llbracket - \rrbracket$ which associates each MULTIPPL term with a probability distribution on MULTIPPL values (see Section 3 for a formal definition of these semantics). Here we will briefly illustrate these semantics by example: the semantics $\llbracket \text{flip } p \rrbracket$ produces a Bernoulli distribution that is true with probability $p \in [0, 1]$; the semantics $\llbracket \text{uniform } e_1 e_2 \rrbracket$ produces a uniform distribution on the interval $[e_1, e_2] \in \mathbb{R}$.

The goal of inference is to efficiently evaluate the denotation of a probabilistic program. While **Disc** and **Cont** share a unified denotation, they have very different approaches to inference. The key advantage of our multi-language approach is that we can specialize the design of **Cont** and **Disc** to take full advantage of structural differences between their underlying inference algorithms: for **Disc** we will use an exact inference strategy based on knowledge compilation similar to DICE [23], and for **Cont** we will rely on approximate inference via sampling. In the next two subsections we give a high-level overview of these standard approaches.

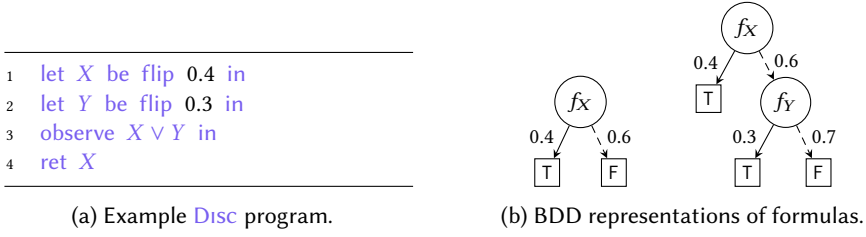


Fig. 3. Motivating example showing the compilation of the **Disc** program in 3a to BDDs in 3b. On the left of 3b is a BDD representing the distribution formula $\varphi = f_X$; on the right is the BDD representing the accepting formula $\alpha = f_X \vee f_Y$. $\boxed{T}$ and $\boxed{F}$ represent true and false values, respectively.

2.1.1 Exact inference via knowledge compilation. Here, we illustrate the principles of exact inference in **Disc** via example; Section 3 provides a formal treatment of these semantics. In Fig. 3a, we reproduce the **Disc** program compiled in Lines 3–5 of Listing 1, but instantiate the priors of **Y** and **Z** with numeric literals 0.4 and 0.3, respectively. Our example in Fig. 3a denotes the probability distribution of Bernoulli 0.3, given that one of the two weighted coin flips is true; its semantics is $\llbracket \text{Fig. 3a} \rrbracket(\text{true}) = \frac{0.4}{0.58} \approx 0.689$.

The exact inference strategy used by **Disc** is to perform probabilistic inference via weighted model counting [10, 14, 46], following Holtzen et al. [23]. The key idea is to interpret the probabilistic program as a weighted Boolean formula whose models are in one-to-one correspondence with paths through the program, and where each path is associated with a weight that matches the probability of that path in the program. Concretely, a *weighted Boolean formula* is a pair (φ, w) where φ is a Boolean formula and w is a *weight function* that associates literals (assignments to variables) in φ with real-valued weights. Then, the *weighted model count* of a weighted Boolean formula is the weighted sum of models:

$$\text{WMC}(\varphi, w) = \sum_{\{m \models \varphi\}} \prod_{\{\ell \in m\}} w(\ell). \quad (1)$$

To perform **Disc** inference by reduction to weighted model counting, we associate each **Disc** program with a pair of Boolean formulae in a manner similar to Holtzen et al. [23]: (1) an *accepting formula* α that encodes the paths through the program that does not violate observations; and (2) a *distribution formula* φ such that $\text{WMC}(\varphi \wedge \alpha)$ is the unnormalized probability of the program returning true. For instance, we would compile Fig. 3a into accepting formula $\varphi = f_X$ and $\alpha = f_X \vee f_Y$, where f_X is a Boolean variable that represents the outcome of **flip** 0.4 and f_Y represents the outcome of **flip** 0.3. Then, the weight function is $w(f_X) = 0.4$, $w(\overline{f_X}) = 0.6$, $w(f_Y) = 0.4$, $w(\overline{f_Y}) = 0.3$, $w(\overline{f_Y}) = 0.7$. Then, we can compute the semantics of Fig. 3a by performing weighted model counting:

$$\llbracket \text{Fig. 3a} \rrbracket(\text{true}) = \frac{\text{WMC}(\varphi \wedge \alpha, w)}{\text{WMC}(\alpha, w)} = \frac{\text{WMC}(f_X, w)}{\text{WMC}(f_X \vee f_Y, w)} = \frac{0.4}{0.4 + 0.6 \cdot 0.3} = \frac{0.4}{0.58} \approx 0.689$$

The weighted model counting task is well-studied, and there is an array of high-performance implementations for solving it [10, 23, 46]. One approach that is particularly effective is *knowledge compilation*, which compiles the Boolean formula into a representation for which weighted model counting can be performed efficiently (typically, polynomial-time in the size of the compiled representation). A common target for this compilation process is *binary decision diagrams* (BDDs), shown in Fig. 3b. A BDD is a rooted DAG whose internal nodes are labeled with Boolean variables and whose leaves are labeled with either true or false values. A BDD is read top-down: solid edges denote true assignments to variables, and dashed edges denote false assignments. Once a Boolean

1	let x be flip 0.20 in	1	let Y be flip 0.25 in	1	let Y be flip 0.25 in
2	let Y be flip 0.25 in	2	observe true $\vee Y$ in	2	observe false $\vee Y$ in
3	observe $(x)_E \vee Y$ in	3	ret $Y)_S$	3	ret $Y)_S$
4	ret $Y)_S$				
(a) Motivating example.		(b) Sampled $x = \text{true}$.		(c) Sampled $x = \text{false}$.	

Fig. 4. Interpreting **CONT** values in **Disc**.

formula is compiled to a BDD, inference can be performed in polynomial time (in the size of the BDD) by performing a bottom-up traversal of the DAG.

While highly effective for discrete probabilistic inference tasks with finite domains, inference via knowledge compilation has a critical weakness: it cannot support continuous random variables or unbounded discrete random variables due to the requirement that each program be associated with a (finite) Boolean formula. Hence, the design of **Disc** must be carefully restricted to only permit programs that can be compiled to Boolean formulae, which is why it does not contain syntactic support for these features.

2.1.2 Approximate inference via sampling. A powerful alternative to exact inference is approximate inference via sampling. The engine that drives sampling-based inference is the expectation estimator. The expectation estimator is widely used as a foundation for approximate inference strategies for probabilistic programs [9, 11, 29, 33, 43, 55]. We will use it to give an inference algorithm for **CONT**. Concretely, suppose we want to use the expectation estimator to approximate the semantics of the **CONT** program $\llbracket \text{flip } 1/4 \rrbracket$. To do this, we can draw $N = 100$ samples from the program: in roughly 1/4 of these samples, the program will output true. This approach is known as *direct sampling*, and is one way of utilizing the expectation estimator to design approximate inference algorithms.

Formally, let Ω be a sample space, Pr a probability density function, and let $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued random variable out of the sample space. Then, the expectation of X is defined as $\mathbb{E}_{\text{Pr}}[X] = \int \text{Pr}(\omega)X(\omega)d\omega$. The *expectation estimator* approximates the expectation of a random variable X by drawing N samples from Pr :

$$\mathbb{E}_{\text{Pr}}[X] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x \sim \text{Pr}}^N X(x). \quad (2)$$

There are many more advanced approaches to sampling-based inference beyond direct sampling such as Hamiltonian Monte-Carlo [9, 34]; at their core, all these approximate inference algorithms follow the same principle of drawing some number of samples from the program and using that to estimate the semantics.

When compared with the exact inference strategy described in Section 2.1.1, sampling-based inference has the key advantage that it only requires the ability to sample from the probabilistic program: each time a random quantity is introduced, it can be dealt with by eagerly sampling. This makes sampling an ideal inference algorithm for implementing flexible and expressive languages with many features: unlike **Disc**, it is straightforward to add interesting features like continuous random variable and unbounded loops to **CONT** without wholesale redesigning of its inference algorithm. This gain in expressivity comes at the cost of precision: unlike **Disc**, **CONT** is only able to provide an approximation to the final expectation.

2.2 Sound interoperation

Now we move on to our main goal, establishing sound interoperation between the underlying inference strategies of **DISC** and **CONT** by identifying two key invariants that must be maintained when transporting **DISC** and **CONT** values across boundaries: *importance weighting* and *sample consistency*. At first, there appears to be a straightforward way of establishing interoperation between these two languages: when a **CONT** value v_s is interpreted in a **DISC** context, it is lifted in a Dirac-delta distribution on v_s . Figure 4a gives an illustration of this scenario: first, on Line 1 we sample a value (either true or false) for x . Then, on Line 3 we interpret x within an exact context. Figures 4b and 4c show the two possible liftings: the sampled value is given its straightforward interpretation in the exact context. When a **DISC** value v_e is interpreted in a **CONT** context, one can draw a sample v_s from the *exact* distribution denoted by v_e . However, we will show in the next two sub-sections that a naive approach that fails to preserve key invariants will result in incorrect inference results, and that one must maintain careful invariants in order to ensure soundness of inference across boundaries.

2.2.1 Importance weighting. Let us more carefully consider the situation shown in Fig. 4a. First, we observe that the desired semantics is $\llbracket \text{Fig. 4a} \rrbracket (\text{true}) = 0.25/0.4 = 0.625$. Suppose we were to follow a naive multi-language inference procedure of drawing 100 samples by eagerly evaluating values for x . Following Section 2.1.2, approximately 20 of these samples will yield the program in Fig. 4b and approximately 80 will yield the program in Fig. 4c. Observe that $\llbracket \text{Fig. 4b} \rrbracket (\text{true}) = 0.25$ and $\llbracket \text{Fig. 4c} \rrbracket (\text{true}) = 1$. So our naive estimate $\llbracket \text{Fig. 4a} \rrbracket (\text{true})$ would be:

$$\llbracket \text{Fig. 4a} \rrbracket (\text{true}) \stackrel{?}{\approx} \frac{20}{100} \llbracket \text{Fig. 4b} \rrbracket (\text{true}) + \frac{80}{100} \llbracket \text{Fig. 4c} \rrbracket (\text{true}) = 0.85 \quad (3)$$

Something went wrong – we expected the result of Eq. (3) to be 0.625. This naive sampling approach significantly over-estimated $\llbracket \text{Fig. 4a} \rrbracket (\text{true})$. The issue is that, in this naive approach, the observation that occurs on Line 3 (Fig. 4a) is not taken into account when sampling a value for x : samples where $x = \text{true}$ are under-sampled relative to their true probability, and samples where $x = \text{false}$ are over-sampled.

This example illustrates that a naive approach to interoperation is unsound. To fix it, one approach is to adjust the *relative importance* of each sample: we will still sample $x = \text{true}$ roughly 20% of the time, but we will decrease the overall importance of this sample. The key idea comes from *importance sampling*, which is a refinement of the expectation estimator given in Eq. (2) but enables estimating an expectation $\mathbb{E}_p[X]$ by sampling from a *proposal distribution* q :

$$\mathbb{E}_p[X] = \int X(x)p(x)dx = \int X(x)\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}q(x)dx = \mathbb{E}_q\left[X(x)\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}\right]. \quad (4)$$

The above holds as long as the proposal q *supports* p (i.e., satisfies the property that, for all x , if $p(x) > 0$ then $q(x) > 0$). The ratio $p(x)/q(x)$ is called the *importance weight* of the sample x : intuitively, if x is more likely according to the true distribution p than the proposal q , the importance ratio will be greater than 1; similarly, if x is less likely according to p than q , its weight will be less than 1. In this instance, the proposal q is semantics of the program with all observe statements deleted, and p is $\llbracket \text{Fig. 4a} \rrbracket$.

Unfortunately, already having access to p defeats the purpose of approximating. In addition, our programs p always incorporate a normalization constant Z , such that

$$p(x) = \hat{p}(x)/Z, \quad (5)$$

with $\hat{p}$ being the unnormalized distribution. Summing the probability of $\hat{p}$ for all x in the domain of p yields $Z = \int \hat{p}(x)dx$. Computing this normalization constant is expensive, and amounts to

calculating p directly. In our setting, calculating this normalization constant is identical to the denotation of Line 3 in the exact setting. To avoid solving for this in our importance sampler, we can incorporate Eq. (5) into our expectation Eq. (4) and jointly approximate our query alongside Z ,

$$\mathbb{E}_p[X] = \int X(x)p(x)dx = \frac{\int X(x)\hat{p}(x)dx}{\int \hat{p}(x)dx} = \frac{\int X(x)\frac{\hat{p}(x)}{q(x)}q(x)dx}{\int \frac{\hat{p}(x)}{q(x)}q(x)dx} = \frac{\mathbb{E}_{x \sim q} \left[X(x) \frac{\hat{p}(x)}{q(x)} \right]}{\mathbb{E}_{x \sim q} \left[\frac{\hat{p}(x)}{q(x)} \right]}. \quad (6)$$

The above is called a *self-normalized importance sampler* [44]. Here, in the denominator, we construct the normalizing constant for q to be the ratio of the unnormalized $\hat{p}$ to q : the Line 2 in Fig. 4b when $x = \text{true}$ and the Line 2 in Fig. 4c when $x = \text{false}$. Notice that the probability of evidence encoded by `observe` statements in Fig. 4b and Fig. 4b are $\llbracket \text{true} \vee Y \rrbracket (\text{true}) = 1$ and $\llbracket \text{false} \vee Y \rrbracket (\text{true}) = 0.25$, respectively.

Sampling 100 draws of x , again, with 20 samples yielding the program in Fig. 4b and 80 samples yielding the program in Fig. 4c, Eq. (6) now returns our expected result:

$$\llbracket \text{Fig. 4a} \rrbracket (\text{true}) \approx \frac{\frac{20}{100} 1 \cdot \llbracket \text{Fig. 4b} \rrbracket (\text{true}) + \frac{80}{100} 0.25 \cdot \llbracket \text{Fig. 4c} \rrbracket (\text{true})}{\frac{20}{100} 1 + \frac{80}{100} 0.25} = \frac{20 \cdot 0.25 + 80 \cdot 0.25}{20 + 20} = 0.625$$

2.2.2 Sample consistency. Importance weighting is not all that is necessary to ensure sound interoperability: we must also ensure that `Disc` values are safely interpreted with a `Cont` context. Consider the example in Listing 2. There are two observations to make about this program. The first is that we embed a `Cont` program into a `Disc` context; this results in a sampler that evaluates all `Cont` fragments while preserving the semantics of all `Disc` variables in order to produce a sample. The next thing to notice is that a `Disc` program denotes a distribution; in the semantics of `Cont`, when we come across a distribution a sample is immediately drawn from it.

Listing 2. SAMPLE CONSISTENCY

```

1 let X be flip 0.5 in
2 (let y be (X)S in
3 let z be (X)S in
4 ret y ∧ z)E
```

Again, we can propose a naive strategy for performing inference on this program: one where we draw a new sample each time we encounter a distribution. Notice that Line 2 holds a reference X to `flip 0.5`, denoting a Bernoulli distribution. When we evaluate this boundary, with probability $1/2$ we sample $y = \text{true}$; suppose we sample $y = \text{true}$. We encounter this reference, again, on Line 3 and suppose we sample $z = \text{false}$. Finally, on Line 4, we evaluate the Boolean expression, resulting in false, which is lifted into the Dirac-delta distribution in `Disc`. Running this program n number of times, we will expect to see the expectation of $y \wedge z$ with y and z as two independent draws of the fair Bernoulli distribution. At this point, something strange has occurred: by referencing a single variable in `Disc`, we have simulated two independent `flips`.

Intuitively, the sampled value for z must be *the same* as the sampled value for y . Operationally, to ensure this is the case, any samples drawn across at the $(-)_S$ boundary additionally constraining `Disc` program's accepting criteria so that all subsequent samples remain consistent.

3 MULTIPPL: Multi-Language Probabilistic Programming

In this section we present MULTIPPL, a multilanguage that supports both exact and sampling-based inference. Sections 3.1 and 3.2 describe the syntax of MULTIPPL programs and MULTIPPL's type system. We then present two semantic models of MULTIPPL. First, Section 3.3 presents a high-level model $\mathcal{H}[-]$ capturing the probability distribution generated by a MULTIPPL program; this model specifies the intended behavior of our implementation. Second, Section 3.4 presents a low-level model $\mathcal{L}[-]$ capturing our particular inference strategy; taking the intuition we have built up

in Section 2.2 and providing the precise way in which our implementation combines knowledge compilation with importance sampling. Finally, Section 3.5 connects these two models: we show that $\mathcal{L}[-]$ soundly refines $\mathcal{H}[-]$, establishing sound inference interoperability between **Disc** and **Cont** with respect to our inference strategy.

3.1 Syntax

The syntax of MULTIPPL is given in Fig. 2. MULTIPPL is a union of two sublanguages, **Disc** and **Cont**, that support exact and sampling-based inference. To streamline the presentation of the models in Sections 3.3 and 3.4, each sublanguage is then subdivided into pure and effectful fragments.

The sampling-based sublanguage **Cont** is a first-order probabilistic programming language with Booleans, tuples, and real numbers. In **Cont**, the pure fragment includes not only the basic operations on Booleans and pairs, but also arithmetic operations on real numbers. The effectful fragment additionally includes primitive operations **uniform** $e_1\ e_2$ for generating uniformly-distributed real numbers in the interval $[e_1, e_2]$, **poisson** e for generating Poisson-distributed integers with rate e , and **obs**-expressions denoting conditioning operators for these distributions.

The exact sublanguage **Disc**, reminiscent of DICE [23], is a discrete first-order probabilistic programming language with Booleans and tuples. The pure fragment of **Disc** includes the basic operations on Booleans and pairs, while the effectful fragment includes constructs for sequencing and branching, as well as the primitive operations **flip** e – for generating Bernoulli-distributed Booleans with parameter e of type **real**, and **observe** M – for conditioning on an event M .

The **Disc** branching construct **if** e **then** M **else** N requires the guard e to be a **Cont** term. This is not an essential restriction, but rather required for sound inference interoperability with respect to the specific implementation strategy we have chosen. As sketched in Sections 2.1.1 and 2.1.2, standard sampling-based inference maintains a weight for the current trace, while exact inference maintains a weight map and an accepting formula. In our implementation, we wanted a language whose inference algorithm would stay as close to these traditional inference algorithms as possible while avoiding incorrect weighting schemes. To do this while maintaining safe inference interoperability, one must have the rather subtle invariant that **if-then-else** expressions in the **Disc** sublanguage have then- and else- branches that importance-weight their respective traces by the same amount. The syntactic restriction on **if** e **then** M **else** N is a simple way of ensuring this is always the case: probabilistic choice is removed, and only one branch need ever be considered. In our implementation, we also permit **if-then-else** expressions where both branches are boundary-free **Disc** programs, as exact inference for such programs can be performed just as in Holtzen et al. [23], without touching the importance weight. These special cases could be avoided by maintaining an auxiliary Boolean formula tracking a *path condition*, which encodes during inference the then- and else- branches of **if-then-else** expressions taken to reach a given subterm. This would allow arbitrary **if-then-else** expressions in the **Disc** sublanguage, at the expense of additional overhead of maintaining this path condition during inference. In our design of MULTIPPL, we have decided to restrict the syntax of the language rather than impose a performance cost; in practice, this has been sufficient to express all of the examples in Section 4.

3.2 Typing

The syntax of types and typing contexts is given in Fig. 2. **Disc** types A include Booleans and pairs; **Cont** types τ additionally include a type of real numbers. A **Disc** typing context Δ is a mapping of **Disc** variables to **Disc** types, and a **Cont** typing context Γ is a mapping of **Cont** variables to **Cont** types. By convention we will denote **Disc** syntactic elements with capital letters and **Cont** elements with lower-case Greek letters. This section is best read in color, where we use orange monotype font for **Cont** terms and purple sans-serif font for **Disc** terms.

$$\boxed{A \leftrightarrow \tau}$$

$$\frac{}{\text{unit} \leftrightarrow \text{unit}} \quad \frac{}{\text{bool} \leftrightarrow \text{bool}} \quad \frac{A \leftrightarrow \tau \quad B \leftrightarrow \sigma}{A \times B \leftrightarrow \tau \times \sigma}$$

Fig. 5. Rules for convertibility between **Disc** types A and **Cont** types τ .

$$\boxed{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} M : A}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash M : A}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{ret } M : A} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} M : A \quad \Gamma; \Delta, X : A \vdash_{\text{c}} N : B}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N : B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} M : A \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} N : A}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N : A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{flip } e : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{\Delta \vdash M : \text{bool}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{observe } M : \text{unit}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e : \tau \quad A \leftrightarrow \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \langle e \rangle_E : A}$$

$$\boxed{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e : \tau}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{ret } e : \tau} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_1 : \sigma \quad \Gamma, x : \sigma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_3 : \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : \tau} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{flip } e : \text{bool}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2 : \text{real}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{poisson } e : \text{real}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_0 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{obs}(e_0, \text{flip } e_1) : \text{unit}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_0 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{obs}(e_0, \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2) : \text{unit}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_0 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{obs}(e_0, \text{poisson } e) : \text{unit}} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} M : A \quad A \leftrightarrow \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \langle M \rangle_S : \tau}$$

Fig. 6. Typing rules for the effectful fragment of MULTIPPL.

MULTIPPL contains two sublanguages that each have a pure and effectful part, so there are correspondingly four forms of typing judgment. For the pure fragments,

- $\Delta \vdash M : A$ says the pure **Disc** term M has **Disc** type A in **Disc** context Δ .
- $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ says the pure **Cont** term e has **Cont** type τ in **Cont** context Γ .

These judgments are standard and deferred to the appendix.

The typing judgments for effectful MULTIPPL terms are parameterized by a combined context $\Gamma; \Delta$, as an effectful term may mention variables from both **Disc** and **Cont** via boundaries:

- $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} M : A$ says the effectful **Disc** term M has **Disc** type A in combined context $\Gamma; \Delta$.

$$\begin{array}{llll}
\llbracket \text{unit} \rrbracket = \{\star\} & \llbracket \text{unit} \rrbracket = \{\star\} & & \\
\llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket = \{\top, \perp\} & \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket = \{\top, \perp\} & \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket = \prod_{X \in \text{dom } \Delta} \llbracket \Delta(X) \rrbracket & \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket = \prod_{x \in \text{dom } \Gamma} \llbracket \Gamma(x) \rrbracket \\
\llbracket A \times B \rrbracket = \llbracket A \rrbracket \times \llbracket B \rrbracket & \llbracket \text{real} \rrbracket = \mathbb{R} & & \\
\llbracket \sigma \times \tau \rrbracket = \llbracket \sigma \rrbracket \times \llbracket \tau \rrbracket & & &
\end{array}$$

Fig. 7. Interpreting types and typing contexts.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\llbracket \Delta \vdash M : A \rrbracket : \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket & \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \rrbracket : \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\text{measurable}} \llbracket \tau \rrbracket \\
\llbracket X \rrbracket(\delta) = \delta(X) & \llbracket x \rrbracket(y) = y(x) \\
\llbracket \text{true} \rrbracket(\delta) = \top & \llbracket \text{true} \rrbracket(y) = \top \\
\llbracket \text{false} \rrbracket(\delta) = \perp & \llbracket \text{false} \rrbracket(y) = \perp \\
\llbracket M \wedge N \rrbracket(\delta) = \begin{cases} \top, & \text{if } \llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta) = \llbracket N \rrbracket(\delta) = \top \\ \perp, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} & \llbracket r \rrbracket(y) = r \\
\llbracket \neg M \rrbracket(\delta) = \begin{cases} \perp, & \text{if } \llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta) = \top \\ \top, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} & \llbracket e_1 + e_2 \rrbracket(y) = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(y) + \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(y) \\
\llbracket \langle \rangle \rrbracket(\delta) = \star & \llbracket -e \rrbracket(y) = -\llbracket e \rrbracket(y) \\
\llbracket \langle M, N \rangle \rrbracket(\delta) = (\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta), \llbracket N \rrbracket(\delta)) & \llbracket e_1 \cdot e_2 \rrbracket(y) = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(y) \cdot \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(y) \\
\llbracket \text{fst } M \rrbracket(\delta) = \pi_1(\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta)) & \llbracket e_1 \leq e_2 \rrbracket(y) = \begin{cases} \top, & \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(y) \leq \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(y) \\ \perp, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
\llbracket \text{snd } M \rrbracket(\delta) = \pi_2(\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta)) & \llbracket () \rrbracket(y) = \star \\
& \llbracket (e_1, e_2) \rrbracket(y) = (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(y), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(y)) \\
& \llbracket \text{fst } e \rrbracket(y) = \pi_1(\llbracket e \rrbracket(y)) \\
& \llbracket \text{snd } e \rrbracket(y) = \pi_2(\llbracket e \rrbracket(y))
\end{array}$$

Fig. 8. Interpreting pure terms.

- $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau$ says the effectful **CONT** term e has **CONT** type τ in combined context $\Gamma; \Delta$.

These judgments are defined in Fig. 6. Note that in the rule for **flip** e , the parameter e can be an arbitrary pure **CONT** term; this allows expressing the TwoCoins example from Section 2. In principle, one could allow arbitrary effectful **CONT** programs e as parameter to **flip** instead of just pure ones, but we have not found this to be useful in practice. The typing judgments for the boundaries $\llbracket e \rrbracket_E$ and $\llbracket M \rrbracket_S$ allow converting **Disc** terms of type A into **CONT** terms of type τ and vice versa, so long as A and τ are *convertible*, written $A \leftrightarrow \tau$. The convertibility relation is defined in Fig. 5; it simply states that **Disc** types can be converted into their **CONT** counterparts in the expected way, and that the **CONT** type **real** has no **Disc** counterpart.

3.3 High-level semantic model

This section defines a high-level model $\mathcal{H}[-]$ of MULTIPPL to serve as the definition of sound inference interoperability for the MULTIPPL multilanguage.

Setting aside details of any particular inference strategy, a MULTIPPL program $\bullet; \bullet \vdash_c e : \tau$ should produce a conditional probability distribution over values of type τ . Following standard techniques for modelling probabilistic programs with conditioning [55], we interpret types and typing contexts as measurable spaces, pure terms as measurable functions, and effectful terms via a suitable monad.

Fig. 7 gives the interpretations of types and typing contexts. **Disc** types denote finite discrete measurable spaces and **CONT** types denote arbitrary measurable spaces. These interpretations are then lifted to typing contexts in the usual way: a **Disc** context Δ denotes the measurable space

$$\boxed{\mathcal{H}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A] : [\Gamma] \times [\Delta] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w[A]}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{H}[\text{ret } M](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{ret}(\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta)) & \mathcal{H}\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{if } e \\ \text{then } M \\ \text{else } N \end{array}\right](\gamma, \delta) &= \begin{cases} \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{H}[M](\gamma, \delta) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{H}[N](\gamma, \delta) \end{cases} \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N](\gamma, \delta) &= \begin{pmatrix} x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[M](\gamma, \delta); \\ \mathcal{H}[N](\gamma, \delta[X \mapsto x]) \end{pmatrix} & \mathcal{H}[\text{flip } e](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{flip}(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\langle e \rangle_E](\gamma, \delta) &= \mathcal{H}[e](\gamma, \delta) & \mathcal{H}[\text{observe } M](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(1_{\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta)=\top})
\end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\mathcal{H}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau] : [\Gamma] \times [\Delta] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w[\tau]}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{H}[\text{ret } e](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{ret}(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma)) & \mathcal{H}\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{if } e_1 \\ \text{then } e_2 \\ \text{else } e_3 \end{array}\right](\gamma, \delta) &= \begin{cases} \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{H}[e_2](\gamma, \delta) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{H}[e_3](\gamma, \delta) \end{cases} \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2](\gamma, \delta) &= \begin{pmatrix} x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[e_1](\gamma, \delta); \\ \mathcal{H}[e_2](\gamma[x \mapsto x], \delta) \end{pmatrix} & \mathcal{H}[\langle M \rangle_S](\gamma, \delta) &= \mathcal{H}[M](\gamma, \delta) \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{flip } e](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{flip}(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{uniform}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{poisson } e](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{poisson}(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{flip } e_1)](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(\text{flip}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma))) \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{poisson } e_1)](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(\text{poisson}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma))) \\
\mathcal{H}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2)](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(\text{uniform}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma))(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma)))
\end{aligned}$$

Fig. 9. Interpreting effectful terms. We use Haskell-style syntactic sugar for the usual monad operations.

of substitutions δ such that $\delta(x) \in \llbracket \Delta(x) \rrbracket$ for all $x \in \text{dom } \Delta$, and a **CONT** contexts Γ denotes the measurable space of substitutions γ such that $\gamma(x) \in \llbracket \Gamma(x) \rrbracket$ for all $x \in \text{dom } \Gamma$.

Fig. 8 gives the standard interpretations of pure terms [55]. Pure **Disc** terms $\Delta \vdash M : A$ denote functions $\llbracket M \rrbracket : [\Delta] \rightarrow [A]$, automatically measurable because every **Disc** type denotes a discrete measurable space. Pure **CONT** terms $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ denote measurable functions $\llbracket e \rrbracket : [\Gamma] \rightarrow [\tau]$.

Following Staton et al. [55], to interpret effectful terms we make use of the monad $\text{Dist}_w A = \text{Dist}([0, 1] \times A)$, obtained by combining the writer monad for the monoid $([0, 1], \times, 1)$ of weights with the probability monad Dist [20]. Under this interpretation, a **MULTIPPL** program $\bullet; \bullet \vdash_c e : \tau$ denotes a distribution over pairs (w, v) , where v is a value of type τ produced by a particular run of e and w is the weight accumulated by both **CONT** and **Disc** observe expressions.

Fig. 9 interprets effectful **MULTIPPL** terms using Dist_w . A **Disc** term $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A$ is interpreted as a measurable function $\mathcal{H}[M] : [\Gamma] \times [\Delta] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w[A]$, and a **CONT** term $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau$ is interpreted as a measurable function $\mathcal{H}[e] : [\Gamma] \times [\Delta] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w[\tau]$. To model the basic probabilistic operations, the interpretation additionally makes use of the following primitives:

- $\overline{(\bullet)} : \text{Dist}(A) \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w(A)$ lifts distributions on A into Dist_w by setting $w = 1$.
- $\text{score} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w\{\star\}$ sends a weight w to the Dirac distribution $\delta_{(w, \star)}$ centered at $(w, \star)$.
- For $p \in \mathbb{R}$, $\text{flip}(p)$ is the Bernoulli distribution on $\{\top, \perp\}$ with parameter p if $p \in [0, 1]$ and the Dirac distribution $\delta_\perp$ otherwise.
- For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $\text{uniform}(a, b)$ is the uniform distribution on $[a, b]$ if $a \leq b$ and $\delta_{\min(a, b)}$ otherwise.
- For $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $\text{poisson}(\lambda)$ is the Poisson distribution with rate λ if $\lambda > 0$ and δ_0 otherwise.

Boundaries have no effect under this interpretation, reflecting the idea that changing one's inference strategy should not change the inferred distribution; semantic values of **Disc** type are implicitly coerced into semantic values of **Cont** type and vice versa, thanks to the following lemma:

LEMMA 3.1 (NATURAL EMBEDDING). *If $A \leftrightarrow \tau$ then $\llbracket A \rrbracket = \llbracket \tau \rrbracket$.*

PROOF. By induction on $A \leftrightarrow \tau$. □

3.4 Low-level model

This section presents a low-level model $\mathcal{L}[\![-]\!]$ of MULTIPPL, capturing the particular details of our inference strategy.

The interpretations of types, typing contexts, and the pure fragment of MULTIPPL are identical to the ones given in Section 3.3. Where $\mathcal{L}[\![-]\!]$ differs from $\mathcal{H}[\![-]\!]$ is in the interpretation of effectful terms. Key to this interpretation is the construction of a suitable semantic domain for interpreting effectful terms in a way that faithfully reflects the details of our implementation. We construct this semantic domain by combining models of exact and sampling-based inference.

Our model of sampling-based inference is entirely standard, making use of the monad Dist_w of Section 3.3. This monad captures the fact that a sampler performs inference by drawing weighted samples from the distribution defined by a probabilistic program [55].

Our model of exact inference, on the other hand, is novel. As explained in Section 2.1.1 and documented in full detail in Holtzen et al. [23], exact inference via knowledge compilation performs inference by maintaining two pieces of state: a *weight map* w associating Boolean literals to probabilities, and a Boolean formula α , called the *accepting formula*, that encodes the paths through the program that do not violate observe statements. The final result of knowledge compilation is itself a Boolean formula φ ; the posterior distribution can then be calculated by performing weighted model counting on $\varphi \wedge \alpha$ and α with respect to the weight map w .

The defining trait of this knowledge compilation strategy is that it *maintains an exact representation of the underlying probability space throughout probabilistic program execution*. At any given moment during knowledge compilation, there is an underlying *sample space*: the space of models over the collection of Boolean variables generated so far. The purpose of the weight map w is to represent a *distribution* over this sample space: the probability of a given model can be computed by multiplying the weights of all of its literals. Together, the sample space and the weight map form a *probability space*, which is statefully manipulated throughout the knowledge compilation process. Upon each encounter of a **flip** command, the probability space grows: this is implemented by generating a fresh Boolean variable to represent the result of the **flip** and extending w accordingly. The purpose of the accepting formula α is to represent an *event* in this probability space: the event consisting of those models that satisfy α . Upon each encounter of an **observe** command, this event shrinks: this is implemented by conjoining the condition being observed onto α . Finally, the purpose of the output formula φ is to represent a *random variable*, which is to say a Boolean-valued function out of the sample space: the formula φ represents the random variable that takes values $\top$ for those models that satisfy φ and $\perp$ otherwise.

What is essential about this setup is that it *maintains a conditional probability space* (Ω, μ, E) , consisting of a sample space Ω (the space of models), a probability measure μ on it (represented by the weight map), and an event E denoting the result of all **observe** statements so far (represented by the accepting formula), and that it *produces random variables*. The fact that these probability spaces, events, and random variables are represented via weighted Boolean formulas, while crucial for the efficiency of inference, are details of the implementation that are irrelevant to ensuring safe inference interoperability. Because of this, our low-level semantics abstracts over these representation concerns, choosing instead to work directly with probability spaces and random variables.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}[\text{ret } M](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \llbracket M \rrbracket \circ D) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} (\Omega_1, f_1, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket M \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D); \\ (\Omega_2, f_2, Y) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket N \rrbracket](\Omega_1)(\gamma, (D \circ f_1)[X \mapsto X]); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega_2, f_1 \circ f_2, Y) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{L}[\llbracket M \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{L}[\llbracket N \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{flip } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} p := \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \in [0, 1] \text{ then } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \text{ else } 0; \\ \Omega_{\text{flip}} := (\{0, 1\}, \mu, \{0, 1\}) \text{ where } \mu(1) = p; \\ \Omega' := \Omega \otimes \Omega_{\text{flip}}; \\ X := \omega' \mapsto \text{if } \pi_2(\omega') = 1 \text{ then } \top \text{ else } \perp; \\ \text{ret}(\Omega', \pi_1, X) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{observe } M](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} F := (\llbracket M \rrbracket \circ D)^{-1}(\top); \\ \text{score}(\mu|_E(F)); \\ \text{ret}((\Omega, \mu, E \cap F), \text{id}, _ \mapsto \star) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\llbracket e \rrbracket_E](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} (\Omega', f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega', f, _ \mapsto x) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{ret } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma)) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} (\Omega_1, f_1, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ (\Omega_2, f_2, y) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket](\Omega_1)(\gamma[x \mapsto x], D \circ f_1) \\ \text{ret}(\Omega_2, f_1 \circ f_2, y) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_3 \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{flip } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \overline{\text{flip}(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma))} \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, x) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \overline{\text{uniform}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma))} \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, x) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{poisson } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \overline{\text{poisson}(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma))} \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, x) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{flip } e_1)](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{score}(\text{flip}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma))); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \star) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2)](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{score}(\text{uniform}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma))(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma))); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \star) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{poisson } e_1)](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{score}(\text{poisson}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma))); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \star) \end{array} \right) \\
\mathcal{L}[\llbracket M \rrbracket_S](\Omega)(\gamma, D) &= \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket M \rrbracket](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ x \leftarrow (\omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \text{ret}(X(\omega'))) \\ \text{ret}((\Omega', \mu', E' \cap X^{-1}(x)), f, x) \end{array} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

Fig. 10. Low-level interpretation of effectful MULTIPPL terms. Parts crucial for sound inference interoperability are highlighted, appearing in the denotation of $\text{observe } M$ and $\llbracket M \rrbracket_S$. Best read in color.

Following Li et al. [27], we model **Disc** programs as statefully manipulating tuples (Ω, μ, E) and producing random variables X . For example, we model running the effectful **Disc** program

$$X : \text{bool} \vdash_c \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{let } Y \text{ be flip } 1/2 \text{ in} \\ \text{observe } (X \wedge Y) \text{ in} \\ \text{ret } X \end{array} \right) : \text{bool}$$

given input probability space (Ω, μ, E) and random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ as follows:

- **flip** $1/2$ expands the probability space from (Ω, μ, E) to $(\Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket, \mu \otimes \text{Ber } 1/2, E \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket)$, and produces the Boolean random variable $Y : \Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ defined by $Y(\omega, b) = b$. This is implemented by generating a new Boolean variable representing Y . Note that Y is defined in terms of the new sample space $\Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$. The function $\pi_1 : \Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket \rightarrow \Omega$ says how to convert between the old sample space Ω and the new sample space $\Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$: the random variable X , defined in terms of the old space Ω , can be converted into a random variable $X \circ \pi_1$ defined in terms of the new space $\Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ by precomposition with π_1 . Similarly, the conditioning set E , a subset of the old space Ω , can be converted into a conditioning set $\pi_1^{-1}(E) = E \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ on the new sample space $\Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$. In the implementation, these conversions are no-ops: they amount to the fact that a Boolean formula over Boolean variables Γ can be weakened to a Boolean formula over variables Γ, x .
- **observe** $(X \wedge Y)$ shrinks the new conditioning set $E \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ by intersecting it with the subset $G := \{(\omega, b) \mid X(\omega) = Y(b) = \top\}$ of $\Omega \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ on which X and Y are both $\top$; this produces a new conditioning set $(E \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket) \cap G$. This is implemented by conjoining the Boolean formula representing $X \wedge Y$ onto the accepting formula.

In general, we will interpret MULTIPPL programs in a semantic domain that combines this stateful approach to modelling exact inference with the standard Dist_w -based approach to modelling sampling-based inference: a MULTIPPL program $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A$ denotes a function that receives:

- (1) a concrete instantiation $\gamma \in \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket$ for free **CONT** variables
- (2) a probability space Ω and a random variable $D \in \Omega \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket$ for free **Disc** variables,

and uses the monad Dist_w to produce a weighted sample consisting of a new probability space Ω' and a random variable $X \in \Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket$ of outputs. The old and new probability spaces are connected by a function $f : \Omega' \rightarrow \Omega$, which says how to convert random variables and events defined in terms of the old space into random variables and events defined on the new one. The following definitions make this idea precise.

Definition 3.2. A *finite conditional probability space* is a triple (Ω, μ, E) where (1) Ω is a finite set; (2) $\mu : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a discrete probability distribution, and (3) E is a subset of Ω called the *conditioning set*. Let FCPS be the collection of finite conditional probability spaces.

Definition 3.3. A *map of finite conditional probability spaces* $f : (\Omega, \mu, E) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mu', E')$ is a measure-preserving map $f : (\Omega, \mu) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mu')$ such that $E \subseteq f^{-1}(E')$. For two finite conditional probability spaces (Ω, μ, E) and (Ω', μ', E') , let $(\Omega, \mu, E) \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} (\Omega', \mu', E')$ be the set of maps from (Ω, μ, E) to (Ω', μ', E') .

Note: For readability, finite conditional probability spaces (Ω, μ, E) will be written Ω unless disambiguation is needed.

With these two definitions in hand, we can give a precise description to the semantic domains used to construct our low-level model of effectful MULTIPPL terms. Given a finite conditional probability space Ω as input, an effectful **Disc** term $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A$ sends a pair of substitutions for

free **Disc** and **Cont** variables to a distribution over weighted samples consisting of a new finite conditional probability space Ω' and a random variable $\Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket$ of outputs:

$$\mathcal{L}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A](\Omega) : \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \times (\Omega \rightarrow \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket) \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w \left(\coprod_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times (\Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket) \right)$$

The notation $\coprod_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times (\Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket)$ denotes an indexed coproduct: an element of this set is a tuple (Ω', f, X) consisting of a new finite conditional probability space Ω' , a map of finite conditional probability spaces $f : \Omega' \rightarrow \Omega$ connecting the old and new sample spaces, and a random variable X defined on the new sample space.

Analogously, an effectful **Cont** term $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau$ sends a pair of substitutions to a distribution over weighted samples consisting of a new finite conditional probability space Ω' and a value $v \in \llbracket \tau \rrbracket$:

$$\mathcal{L}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau](\Omega) : \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \times (\Omega \rightarrow \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket) \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w \left(\coprod_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times \llbracket \tau \rrbracket \right)$$

The semantic equations defining $\mathcal{L}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A](\Omega)$ and $\mathcal{L}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau](\Omega)$ are given in Fig. 10. As in Fig. 9, we continue to use Haskell-style syntactic sugar for the Dist_w monad operations. The interpretation of effectful **Cont** programs is largely similar to the one given by $\mathcal{H}[-]$; the primary difference is the plumbing of probability spaces Ω and maps f throughout. The interpretation of effectful **Disc** programs statefully manipulates the probability space as sketched earlier: **flip** e expands the probability space from Ω to $\Omega \otimes \Omega_{\text{flip}}$, where Ω_{flip} is a freshly-generated probability space supporting a Bernoulli-distributed random variable with parameter e , and **observe** M shrinks the conditioning set from E to $E \cap F$, where F is the subset of the sample space on which M is $\top$. Maps of conditional probability spaces f are used to convert random variables from old to new sample spaces throughout.

The interpretation of the **Cont**-to-**Disc** boundary $\llbracket e \rrbracket_E$ is to draw a weighted sample x from e and return the constant random variable at x . Conversely, the interpretation of the **Disc**-to-**Cont** boundary $\llbracket M \rrbracket_S$ is to compute the random variable X denoted by M and then return a sample x drawn from the distribution of X . The parts of Fig. 10 shown in bold ensure sound inference interoperability: in the interpretation of $\llbracket M \rrbracket_S$, the event $X^{-1}(x)$ is added to the conditioning set to ensure *sample consistency*; in the interpretation of **observe** M , the statement $\text{score}(\mu|_E(F))$ performs *importance weighting*, to ensure the weight of the current execution remains correct relative to other possible executions.¹

3.5 Soundness

This section presents our main theoretical result: the low-level model $\mathcal{L}[-]$ capturing our inference strategy soundly refines the high-level model $\mathcal{H}[-]$; that is, given a complete MULTIPPL program e , weighted samples drawn from e according to our knowledge-compilation- and importance-sampling-based inference strategy follow the same distribution as samples drawn according to $\mathcal{H}[-]$. To make this precise, we first define what it means to run a complete MULTIPPL program, and what it means for two distributions over weighted samples to be equivalent.

Definition 3.4. For a closed program $\bullet; \bullet \vdash_c e : \tau$, let $\text{eval}_{\mathcal{L}}(e)$ be the computation

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} (_, _, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e \rrbracket](\text{emp})(\emptyset, \emptyset); \\ \text{ret } x \end{array} \right) : \text{Dist}_w \llbracket \tau \rrbracket$$

¹Here, $\mu|_E$ is the distribution μ conditioned on the event E .

where $\emptyset$ is the empty substitution, emp is the unique 1-point probability space. Let $\text{eval}_{\mathcal{H}}(e)$ be the computation $\mathcal{H}[\![e]\!](\emptyset, \emptyset) : \text{Dist}_{\mathbf{w}}[\![\tau]\!]$.

Definition 3.5. Two computations $\mu, \nu : \text{Dist}_{\mathbf{w}}A$ are *equal as importance samplers*, written $\mu \simeq \nu$, if for all bounded integrable $k : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ it holds that $\mathbb{E}_{(a,x) \sim \mu}[a \cdot k(x)] = \mathbb{E}_{(b,y) \sim \nu}[b \cdot k(y)]$.

With these definitions in hand, our soundness theorem states that our inference strategy agrees with the high-level model up to equality of importance samplers.

THEOREM 3.6 (SOUNDNESS). *If $\bullet; \bullet \vdash_{\mathbf{c}} e : \tau$ then $\text{eval}_{\mathcal{L}}(e) \simeq \text{eval}_{\mathcal{H}}(e)$.*

Theorem 3.6 is proved by induction on typing, after suitable strengthening of the theorem statement from closed to open terms. The essence of the proof boils down to two key lemmas. The first lemma allows swapping the order of sampling and scoring, and is crucial to the correctness of our importance reweighting scheme in interpreting `observe`:

LEMMA 3.7. *If $(\Omega, \mu, E) \in \text{FCPS}$ then $\left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu; \\ \text{score}(\mathbf{1}_{\omega \in E}); \\ \text{ret } \omega \end{array} \right) \simeq \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{score}(\mu(E)); \\ \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{ret } \omega \end{array} \right)$.*

The second lemma says that sampling twice — from a marginal on X to get a sample x , then from the conditional distribution given $X = x$ — is the same as sampling once from the joint distribution, and is crucial to ensuring sample consistency in our implementation of the boundary `(M)S`.

LEMMA 3.8. *If $(\Omega, \mu, E) \in \text{FCPS}$ and $X : \Omega \rightarrow A$ with A finite, then*

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow (\omega \leftarrow \mu; \text{ret}(X\omega)); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu|_{X^{-1}(x)}; \\ \text{ret}(x, \omega) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega' \leftarrow \mu; \\ \text{ret}(X\omega', \omega') \end{array} \right).$$

The full details can be found in Appendix A.7.

4 Evaluation

In Section 3 we described the theoretical underpinnings of MULTIPPL and proved it sound. In this section we provide implementation details and empirical evidence for the utility of MULTIPPL by measuring its scalability on well-known inference tasks and comparing its performance against existing probabilistic programming systems. We conclude with a discussion of our evaluation and how these programs relate to the design space of MULTIPPL programs.

4.1 Lightweight Extensions to MULTIPPL

The semantics described in Section 3 provide a minimal model of multi-language interoperability that is simple and correct. In our implementation we extend the semantics of `Disc` and `Cont` to support more features, resulting in a practical and flexible language.

4.1.1 Extensions to `Cont`. Importance-sampling languages often include more features than those described in `Cont`. The grammar for `Cont`, shown in Fig. 2, supports three base distributions: Bernoulli, Uniform, and Poisson distributions. In our implementation we include many more distributions including Normal, Beta, and Dirichlet distributions, as well as their corresponding observation expressions. We also extend `Cont` with unbounded loops and list data structures.

4.1.2 Extensions to *Disc*. Our implementation of *Disc* directly leverages the BDD library of DICE [23] and includes support for integers as described in Holtzen et al. [23]. Integers can be introduced into a *Disc* program either by embedding a *CONT* integer or through new syntax in *Disc* representing a discrete distribution. Both terms are translated into one-hot encoded tuples of Boolean variables: *CONT* integers are translated dynamically, while discrete categorical distributions are translated by the compiler statically into the *Disc* grammar shown in Fig. 2.

4.2 Empirical evaluation

MULTIPPL programs encompass a vast design space, including both *CONT* and *Disc* programs as well any interleaving of these two languages. To investigate the efficacy of our implementation and characterize this landscape, we ask the following questions:

- (1) *Does MULTIPPL capture enough expressive power to represent interesting and practical probabilistic structure while maintaining competitive performance?* We consider four benchmarks with complex conditional independence structures to illustrate the design space of MULTIPPL programs. We draw on models in the domains of network analysis [18, 25] and Bayesian networks [5, 7].
- (2) *How does MULTIPPL compare with contemporary PPLs in using exact and approximate inference with respect to wall-clock time and distance from the exact distribution?* To answer this question, we benchmark against state-of-the-art PPLs which handle both discrete and continuous variables: PSI [19], performing exact inference by compilation, and Pyro [8], using its importance sampling infrastructure for approximate inference.

4.2.1 Experimental Setup. For exact inference, PSI is a best-in-class language that encodes both discrete and continuous variables using its compiled symbolic approach. For approximate inference we leverage Pyro’s importance sampling infrastructure. MULTIPPL is written in Rust and performs both knowledge compilation and sampling during runtime evaluation when it encounters a *Disc* or *CONT* program, respectively. To unify the comparison between these disparate settings, we delineate our evaluation criteria along two metrics of sample *efficiency* and sample *quality*.

The sample *efficiency* of each inference strategy is defined as the wall-clock time to draw 1000 samples; measured in seconds and recorded in “Time(s)” column of the following figures. Comparing the performance of inference algorithms implemented in different languages is a general challenge. To account for the difference in overhead, we treat *CONT* as our baseline in the approximate setting.

Sample *quality* is also important and we computed the *L1-distance* (i.e., the difference of absolute values) between a ground-truth answer, derived for each task, and the estimated quantity from sampling. Tasks that only evaluate exact inference always yield an L1-distance of 0: for these tasks we only report wall-clock time, and we only draw one sample from the MULTIPPL program.

Heuristically, our aim in writing MULTIPPL programs is to achieve high *quality* samples using *Disc* while maintaining reasonable wall-clock *efficiency* with *CONT*. While this guides the design of our evaluation, users must decide how this trade-off effects their models on a case-by-case basis.

All benchmarks involving approximate inference are performed using a fixed budget of 1000 samples and all statistics collected are averaged over 100 independent trials.²

4.2.2 Estimating packet arrival. Our first evaluation comes from the motivating example of Fig. 1. For this arrival task we are interested in modeling packets traversing a router network and observe the presence, or absence, of packets at their destination. Our main interest is in some unobservable router that lives along the traversal path, and we query the expected number of packets which pass through this node. The router network in our evaluation has a tree-based topology that uses an

²All evaluations are run on a single thread of an AMD EPYC 7543 Processor with 2.8GHz and 500 GiB of RAM. A software artifact is available on Zenodo[56] and GitHub (<https://github.com/stites/multippl>)

Model	PSI		Pyro		MULTIPPL (CONT)		MULTIPPL	
	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)
arrival/tree-15	—	—	0.365	12.713	0.355	0.247	0.337	0.349
arrival/tree-31	—	—	0.216	26.366	0.218	0.561	0.179	0.754
arrival/tree-63	—	—	0.118	53.946	0.120	1.469	0.093	1.912
alarm	t/o	t/o	1.290	16.851	1.173	0.433	0.364	14.444
insurance	t/o	t/o	0.149	13.724	0.144	1.104	0.099	11.406
gossip/4	—	—	0.119	6.734	0.119	0.720	0.118	0.812
gossip/10	—	—	0.533	6.786	0.531	1.561	0.524	1.373
gossip/20	—	—	0.747	7.064	0.745	3.565	0.750	2.888

Fig. 11. Empirical results of our benchmarks of the arrival, discrete Bayesian network, and gossip tasks. “MULTIPPL (CONT)” shows the evaluation of a baseline CONT program with no boundary crossings into Disc, evaluations under the “MULTIPPL” column performs interoperation. “t/o” indicates a timeout beyond 30 minutes, and “—” indicates that the problem is not expressible in PSI because of an unbounded loop.

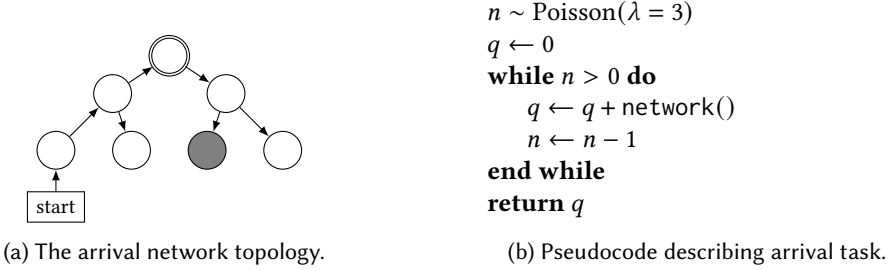


Fig. 12. Implementation-generic details for the packet-arrival task. Shown in 12a, a packet traverses the network by entering the bottom-left most node, annotated by the start arrow. We observe a successful traversal to the gray-filled node, and we query the double-circle node for its posterior distribution. The PSI, Pyro, and MULTIPPL programs all follow pseudocode shown in 12b, where network models the topology.

equal-cost multipath (ECMP) protocol [24], as shown in Fig. 12a. The ECMP protocol dictates that a packet is forwarded with uniform probability to all neighboring routers with equal distance to the goal, as shown in Fig. 12a. In this scenario, n packets traverse the network where n is drawn from a Poisson distribution with a rate of 3, as described in Fig. 12b. The presence of this Poisson random variable makes this example quite challenging for many existing PPL inference strategies because the resulting loop has a statically unbounded number of iterations. We made the following additional design decisions in making this task:

- (1) **Evidence:** We observe the gray node of the network topology depicted in Fig. 12a.
- (2) **Query:** We query the expected probability that the packet traverses through a central node of the tree-topology, depicted by the twice-circled node of Fig. 12a.
- (3) **Boundary decisions:** CONT models the Poisson distribution and outer loop. One boundary call is made to the network, defined in Disc.
- (4) **Scaling:** We scale this model to topologies of 15, 31, and 63 nodes.
- (5) **Ground truth:** Our ground truth is defined by writing a DICE program for the network, and analytically solving for the expected number of packets.

The rows labeled by “arrival” in Fig. 11 summarize the evaluation for this section. This table shows that MULTIPPL’s samples are significantly higher quality than Pyro’s and the CONT program in this

experiment. As the topology increases in size, we see that the MULTIPPL program is able to produce increasingly higher quality samples with respect to L1 distance. This is because MULTIPPL is able to exactly compute packet reachability of a single traversal in increasingly larger networks using **Disc**, while still able to express sampling from the Poisson distribution in **CONT**. The MULTIPPL program performing interoperation is an order of magnitude more efficient than Pyro, however the **CONT** alternative is still most efficient with regard to wall-clock time and yields similar quality samples as Pyro. PSI, using its symbolic inference procedure, fails to model the unbounded loop.

4.2.3 Querying discrete Bayesian networks. Bayesian networks [41] provide a challenging and practical source of programs with widespread adoption across numerous domains, including medicine [1, 38], healthcare [5], and actuarial sciences [7]. Even in the purely-discrete setting, Bayesian networks remain a practical challenge when evaluating exact inference strategies due to the complex independence structures intrinsic to this domain.

In this task we study interoperation of our language by modeling two discrete Bayesian networks: ALARM [5] and Insurance [7]. These networks pose a scaling challenge for exact inference, and form the largest models described in our evaluation: ALARM contains 509 flip primitives and the Insurance network contains 1008 flip primitives. Modeling the entirety of the network in **Disc** and sampling 1000 times will result in a time-out for our evaluation, and we must use interoperation to increase sample quality while keeping sample efficiency competitive in our benchmark.

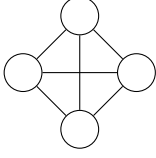
The ALARM network models a system for patient monitoring, while the Insurance network estimates the expected costs for a car insurance policyholder. We summarize these tasks as follows:

- (1) **Evidence:** In both models, we observed one or more leaf nodes.
- (2) **Query:** We query all root nodes for both of the Bayesian networks.
- (3) **Boundary decisions:** Variables are defined in **Disc** or **CONT** to heuristically maximize the degree of exact inference permitted while keeping the wall-clock time within 60 seconds.
- (4) **Scaling:** ALARM contains 509 flip primitives and Insurance contains 1008 flip primitives.
- (5) **Ground truth:** The ground truth is defined by an equivalent DICE program.

The **CONT** model, with similar sample quality to Pyro, is more efficient than its MULTIPPL counterpart in this evaluation. It is also significantly more efficient than Pyro and PSI (which timed out on this benchmark). As an importance sampler, **CONT** and Pyro simply sample each distribution directly, and we see the Python overhead slowing down the Pyro model.

Our MULTIPPL programs demonstrate superior sample quality to the Pyro and **CONT** models. We achieve this by declaring boundaries that split the ALARM and Insurance networks into sub-networks that are modeled exactly with **Disc** and keep compiled BDD sizes small. However it should be noted that placement of boundaries tips the scales in a tradeoff between quality and efficiency. Optimal interleaving between **CONT** and **Disc** is task-sensitive, and the MULTIPPL programs evaluated only demonstrate a best-effort approach to modeling.

4.2.4 Network takeover with a gossip protocol. The gossip protocol is a common peer-to-peer communication method for distributed systems. In our setting each packet traverses an undirected, fully-connected network using a FIFO scheduler for transport. At each time step, indicated by a tick in the scheduler, a server will schedule two additional packets to all of its neighbors with each destination drawn i.i.d. from a uniform distribution. This task initializes with a *compromised* node which sends two *infected* packets to its neighbors. When a server receives an infected packet, it becomes compromised and can only propagate infected packets for the remainder of the evaluation. Taken from Gehr et al. [18], we sample n time steps from a uniform distribution, step n times, then query the model for the expected number of compromised servers.



(a) Topology of the gossip network.

```

init ← 0
steps ~ Uniform(4, 8)
state ←
  (true, false, false, false)
deque ← []
for n = 1, 2 do
  s ~ Discrete( $\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}$ );
  deque ← s+1 :: deque
end for

while steps > 0 do
  cur ← head(deque);
  deque ← tail(deque);
  state[cur] ← state[cur] ∨ true
  for n = 1, 2 do
    s ~ Discrete( $\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}$ );
    ix ← if (s < cur) { s } else { s + 1 };
    deque ← deque ++ [ix]
  end for
  steps ← steps - 1
end while
return state

```

(b) Pseudocode for a gossip network task.

Fig. 13. Implementation-generic details of the gossip network task. The 4-node topology of the undirected network is shown in 13a. Pseudocode to iterate over each time step is provided in 13b.

This evaluation poses an expressivity challenge to the **Disc** sub-language, which cannot define the dynamic-length FIFO queue without interoperation with **CONT**. To handle this requirement, we extend **CONT** to support lists and define all discrete random variables in **Disc**. At each end of the loop we update our queue in **CONT**, collapsing any compiled BDDs.

- (1) **Evidence:** This task defines a direct sampler and no evidence is given.
- (2) **Query:** The model queries for the expected number of compromised servers after n steps.
- (3) **Boundary decisions:** Discrete variables are in **Disc**, the loop and FIFO queue live in **CONT**.
- (4) **Scaling:** This network scales from 4- to 10- and 20- nodes.
- (5) **Ground truth:** The PSI model from Gehr et al. [18] was used to generate the ground truth for a statically defined set of time steps. An enumerative model was also defined to count the number of states. The expectation of these models over the loop is derived analytically.

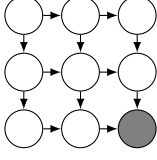
In Fig. 11, we see that all terminating evaluations have similar L1-distances, with Pyro and **CONT** programs producing slightly better quality samples. The **MULTIPPL** model produces more efficient samples, on average, which speaks to the minimal overhead of interoperation when knowledge compilation plays a small role in inference. There is also the possibility that BDDs are cached and reused, resulting in a small speedup for some intermediate samples drawn from **Disc**.

As this benchmark comes with a PSI implementation from Gehr et al. [18], we provided a best-effort attempt at getting this to run including limiting the number of time steps to make the task more tractable, but we were unable reproduce their results within our 30m evaluation window.

4.2.5 Estimating network reliability. The *network reliability* task is interested in a single packet's traversal through a network using a probabilistic routing protocol that is embedded in a larger network. As a model only involving discrete random variables, we can observe how interoperation effects sample quality and efficiency by looking at programs defined in **CONT**, **Disc**, and in an optimal interoperation configuration. Consider, again the ECMP protocol from Section 4.2.2. In this task we modify each router with non-uniform probabilities, as a packet can traverse out of the sub-network. The sub-network itself is a directed grid, shown in Fig. 14a, with the probability of traversal being dependent on the packet's origin. Pseudocode for the model is presented in Fig. 14b.

This benchmark observes a packet arriving at the final node in the sub-network, and queries the probability that this packet passes through each router in the model. As there are no continuous random variables involved, we can model this task using either exact or approximate inference.

- (1) **Evidence:** The final node in the network topology observes a successful packet traversal.



(a) Topology of a 9-node network

```

 $n_{00} \sim \text{Bern } \frac{1}{3}$ 
 $n_{01} \sim \text{if } n_{00} \text{ then Bern } \frac{1}{4} \text{ else Bern } \frac{1}{5}$ 
 $n_{10} \sim \text{if } \neg n_{00} \text{ then Bern } \frac{1}{4} \text{ else Bern } \frac{1}{5}$ 
 $p \leftarrow \text{if } n_{10} \vee n_{01} \text{ then } \frac{1}{6} \text{ else } \frac{1}{7}$ 
 $\quad \quad \quad \neg n_{10} \vee \neg n_{01} \text{ then } \frac{1}{8} \text{ else } \frac{1}{9}$ 
 $n_{11} \sim \text{Bern } p$ 
observe  $n_{11} = \top$ 
return ( $n_{00}, n_{01}, n_{10}, n_{11}$ )

```

(b) Pseudocode of a 4-node model

Fig. 14. An overview of the reliability task, with the topology of the 9-node network in 14a: a packet is observed in the node shaded gray and all nodes are queried for their posterior distribution. In 14b we show the pseudocode for a 4-node reliability task, similar structure is used for networks with 9-, 36-, and 81-nodes.

# Nodes	PSI	MULTIPPL (Disc)	Pyro		MULTIPPL (Cont)		MULTIPPL	
	Time(s)	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)
9	546.748	0.001	0.080	3.827	0.079	0.067	0.033	0.098
36	t/o	0.089	1.812	14.952	0.309	0.277	0.055	1.169
81	t/o	40.728	7.814	33.199	0.680	0.887	0.079	81.300

Fig. 15. Exact and approximate results for models performing approximate inference

- (2) **Query:** The model queries for the marginal probability on all nodes in the network.
- (3) **Boundary decisions:** MULTIPPL programs (in column “MULTIPPL” of table Fig. 15), model the minor upper- and lower- triangles of the network topology in **Disc** and perform interoperation along the minor diagonal to break the exact inference task into two parts. This maximizes the size of compiled BDDs while providing orders of magnitude improvement in sample efficiency.
- (4) **Scaling:** This network scales in the size of the grid, scaling from 9- to 36- to 81- nodes.
- (5) **Ground truth:** An equivalent DICE model was used as the ground truth for this model.

The first two columns of Fig. 15 show the results of exact compilation; comparing PSI to **Disc** programs (column “MULTIPPL (**Disc**)”). Because of the nature of this evaluation, **Disc** can represent the exact posterior of the model and produce perfect samples with competitive efficiency for small programs. As the program grows in size, producing samples take considerably longer: scaling with the size of the underlying logical formula.

The partially-collapsed and fully-sampled MULTIPPL programs are compared to Pyro in the remaining columns of Fig. 15. MULTIPPL programs (column “MULTIPPL”) are defined in **Disc** and model the minor diagonal of the network’s grid in **Cont**. Programs fully defined in **Cont** (column “MULTIPPL (**Cont**)”) sample each node individually in the same manner as Pyro.

In this evaluation **Cont** is more efficient and MULTIPPL programs effectively leverage **Disc**’s knowledge compilation to produce higher-quality samples. For smaller models, the defined MULTIPPL programs have efficiency competitive to **Cont**. As the model scales, the overhead of knowledge compilation increases. This can be seen by noting the single-sample efficiency of **Disc** programs from our exact evaluation. As the MULTIPPL program scales to 81 nodes the sample efficiency decreases, suggesting an alternative collapsing scheme may be preferable for larger programs.

This network reliability evaluation, alongside prior evaluations, demonstrates that MULTIPPL consistently produces higher quality samples compared to alternatives in the approximate setting. Through these evaluations, we find that MULTIPPL does capture enough expressive power to

represent interesting and practical probabilistic structure while remaining competitive with other languages. That said, the performance of MULTIPPL's inference poses a nuanced landscape and we leave a full characterization of this design space to future work.

5 Related Work

Multi-language interoperability between probabilistic programming languages builds on a wide body of work spanning the programming language and the machine learning communities. We situate our research in four categories: heterogeneous inference, programmable inference, multi-language semantics, and the monadic semantics of probabilistic programming languages.

5.1 Heterogeneous inference in probabilistic programming languages. There are existing probabilistic programming languages and systems that enable users to blend different kinds of inference algorithms when performing inference on a single probabilistic program. Particularly relevant are approaches that leverage *Rao-Blackwellization* in order to combine exact and approximate inference strategies into a single system. Within this vein, Atkinson et al. [2] introduced *semi-symbolic inference*, where the idea is to perform exact marginalization over distributions whose posteriors can be determined to have some closed-form solution. Other works that use variations of Rao-Blackwellization [21, 33, 37] all seek to explicitly marginalize out portions of the distribution by using closed-form exact posteriors when feasible. The main difference between these approaches to Rao-Blackwellization and our proposed approach is that these systems do not expose *separate languages* that correspond to different phases of the inference algorithm: they provide a single unified syntax in which the user programs. As a consequence, they all rely on (semi-)automated means of automatically discovering which portions can be feasibly Rao-Blackwellized; this process can be difficult to control and lead to unpredictable performance. Our multi-language approach has the following benefits: (1) predictable and interpretable performance due to the explicit choice of inference algorithm that is exposed to the user; and (2) amenability to modular formalization, since we can verify the correctness of each inference strategy and verify the correctness of their composition on the boundary. We hope to incorporate the interesting ideas of these related works into MULTIPPL, in particular closed-form approaches to exact marginalization of continuous distributions.

There is a broad literature on heterogeneous inference that we hope to eventually draw on to build a richer vocabulary of sub-languages to add to MULTIPPL. Friedman and Van den Broeck [17] described an approach to collapsed approximate inference that dynamically blends exact inference via knowledge compilation and approximate inference via sampling; we are curious if this can be integrated with our system. We also look towards incorporating more stateful inference algorithms such as Markov-Chain Monte Carlo into MULTIPPL, and aim to investigate this in future work.

5.2 Programmable inference. Programmable inference (or inference (meta-)programming) provide probabilistic programmers with a meta-language for defining new inference algorithms within a single PPL by offering language primitives that give direct access to the inference runtime [29]. Cusumano-Towner et al. [12] provides a black-box interface to underlying inference algorithms alongside combinators to operate on these interfaces, Stites et al. [57] designs a domain specific language (DSL) for inference which produces correct-by-construction importance weights.

We see programmable inference as a viable means of designing new inference algorithms which we can incorporate into a multi-language. Furthermore, a multi-language setting can offer inference programmers the ability to abstract away the nuances of the inference process, lowering the barrier to entry for this type of development. One common thread through much of the work on inference programming is core primitives which encapsulate the building blocks for inference algorithms including resample-move sequential Monte Carlo, variational inference, many other Markov chain

Monte Carlo methods. These primitives could be designed formally as DSLs, which would be a great addition to a multi-language and something we look forward to developing in future work.

5.3 Nested inference. Nested inference enriches a probabilistic programming language with a first-class `infer` or `normalize` construct that enables the programmer to query for the probability of an event inside their probabilistic programs [3, 42, 54, 58, 63]. Nested inference is a useful programming construct that enables a variety of new applications, such as in cognitive science where one agent may wish to reason about the intent of another [58]. Nested inference is similar in spirit to our multi-language approach in that it gives the programmer control over when inference is performed on their program and what inference algorithm is used. A key difference between nested inference and our multi-language approach is that the former provides access to the inference result whereas MultiPPL’s boundary forms do not. This difference is essential. In our view, there is the following analogy to non-probabilistic programming: performing nested inference is like invoking a compiler and inspecting the resulting binary, whereas performing multi-language inference is like interoperating through an FFI. In the non-probabilistic setting, these two situations require distinct semantic models — compare, for example, formal models of introspection and dynamic code generation [6, 15, 28, 30, 52] with formal models of FFI-based interoperability [22, 26, 31, 39, 45] — and we believe the same is likely true of our probabilistic setting.

In the future, it would be interesting to consider integrating nested inference within a multi-language setting and exploring the consequences of this new feature on language interoperation. It would also be quite interesting to investigate whether our multi-language inference strategy could be compiled to, or expressed in terms of, rich nested inference constructs. A preliminary analysis reveals a number of basic differences between MultiPPL’s inference strategy and standard models of nested inference, so such a compilation scheme would likely require significant modifications to nested inference — for a detailed technical discussion, see Appendix B.

5.4 Multi-language semantics. Today, it is often the case that probabilistic programming languages are embedded in a host, non-probabilistic language [4]. However, these PPLs assume their host semantics will not interfere with the semantics of the PPL’s inference process. This work is the first of its kind to build on top of multi-language semantics to reason about inference algorithms.

Multi-language semantics, while new to the domain of probabilistic programming, has had a large impact on the broader programming language community. They play a fundamental role in reasoning about interoperation [39], gradual typing [35, 59], and compositional compiler verification [45]. There are two styles of calculi which represent the current approaches to multi-language interoperation. These are the *multi-languages* approach from Matthews and Findler [31] and the a more fine-grained approach by Siek and Taha [49] using a *gradually typed lambda calculus*.

Ye et al. [62] takes a traditional programming language approach to the gradual typing of PPLs and defines a gradually typed probabilistic lambda calculus which allows a user to migrate a PPL from an untyped- to typed- language — a nontrivial task involving a probabilistic coupling argument for soundness. In contrast, our work centers on how multi-languages can help the interoperation of inference algorithms across semantic domains.

Baydin et al. [4] establishes, informally, a common interface for PPLs to interact with scientific simulators across language boundaries. In this work, the semantics of the simulator is a black-box distribution defined in some language, which may or may not be probabilistic, and a separate PPL may interact with the simulator during the inference process. While Baydin et al. [4] works across language boundaries, they do not reason about interoperation — they only involve one inference algorithm — and they do not provide any soundness guarantees. That said, Baydin et al. [4] demonstrates a simple boundary allowing for rapid integration of many practical probabilistic programming languages, something we also strive for.

5.5 Monadic semantics of PPLs. Numerous monads have been developed for use as semantic domains that capture the various notions of computation used in probabilistic inference. The fundamental building block for each of these models is the probability monad `Dist`, along with its generalizations to monads of subdistributions and measures [20]. Using this probability monad to give semantics to probabilistic programs goes back to at least Ramsey and Pfeffer [43], who further build on this basic setup by introducing *measure terms* to efficiently answer expectation-based queries. Staton et al. [55] make use of the writer monad transformer applied to the monoid of weights to obtain a monad suitable for modelling probabilistic programs with score-based conditioning; we have made essential use of this monad to define the two semantic models of `MULTIPPL` presented in Section 3. Ścibior [48] use monad transformer stacks, implemented in Haskell, to obtain a variety of sampling-based inference algorithms in a compositional manner, with each layer of the stack encompassing a different component of an inference algorithm. Our semantics of `MULTIPPL` builds on this line of work in giving monadic semantics to probabilistic computations by providing a model of exact inference via knowledge compilation in terms of stateful manipulation of finite conditional probability spaces and random variables. In future work, we intend to investigate whether this state-passing semantics can be packaged into a monad of its own, capturing the notion of computation carried out when performing knowledge compilation, by making use of recent constructions in categorical probability [50, 51].

6 Conclusion

Performing inference on models with a mix of continuous and discrete random variables is an important modeling challenge for practical systems and `MULTIPPL` offers a multi-language approach to tackle this problem. In this work, we provide a sound denotational semantics that generalizes for all exact inference algorithms and sampling-based approximate inference that satisfy our semantic domains. We identify two requirements to establish the correctness of the interoperation described: that the exact PPL must maintain *sample consistency* and that the approximate sampling-based PPL must perform *importance weighting*. We demonstrate that our implementation of `MULTIPPL` benefits from the expressiveness of `CONT` and makes practical problems representable and additionally provides tractable inference from `DISC` for complex discrete-structured probabilistic programs.

Ultimately, we hope that our multi-language perspective can lead to a clean formal unification of many probabilistic program semantics and inference strategies. For future work, we hope to extend our semantics to incorporate local-search inference strategies such as sequential and Markov-Chain Monte Carlo. With enough coverage across semantics, we also gain the opportunity to look at probabilistic interoperation by inspecting a shared core calculus for inference, and would draw on work from Patterson [40]. Finally, by providing a syntactic approach to inference interoperation, we also open up opportunities to use static analysis to see when and how we might automatically insert boundaries to further specialize a model’s inference algorithm.

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A Appendix

A.1 Syntax

Disc	Expressions	$M, N ::= X \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid M \wedge N \mid \neg M$ $\mid \langle \rangle \mid \langle M, N \rangle \mid \text{fst } M \mid \text{snd } M$ $\mid \text{ret } M \mid \text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N \mid \text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N$ $\mid \text{flip } e \mid \text{observe } M \mid \langle e \rangle_E$
	Types	$A, B ::= \text{unit} \mid \text{bool} \mid A \times B$
	Contexts	$\Delta ::= X_1 : A_1, \dots, X_n : A_n$
CONT	Expressions	$e ::= x \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid r \mid e_1 + e_2 \mid -e \mid e_1 \cdot e_2 \mid e_1 \leq e_2$ $\mid () \mid (e_1, e_2) \mid \text{fst } e \mid \text{snd } e$ $\mid \text{ret } e \mid \text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \mid \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3$ $\mid d \mid \text{obs}(e_o, d) \mid \langle M \rangle_S$
	Distributions	$d ::= \text{flip } e \mid \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2 \mid \text{poisson } e$
	Types	$\sigma, \tau ::= \text{unit} \mid \text{bool} \mid \text{real} \mid \sigma \times \tau$
	Contexts	$\Gamma ::= x_1 : \tau_1, \dots, x_n : \tau_n$
	Number literals	$r \in \mathbb{R}$

A.2 Typing rules

A.2.1 Convertibility.

$$\frac{}{\text{unit} \leftrightarrow \text{unit}} \quad \frac{}{\text{bool} \leftrightarrow \text{bool}} \quad \frac{A \leftrightarrow \tau \quad B \leftrightarrow \sigma}{A \times B \leftrightarrow \tau \times \sigma}$$

A.2.2 Pure exact sublanguage.

$$\frac{\Delta(X) = A}{\Delta \vdash X : A} \quad \frac{}{\Delta \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{}{\Delta \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{\Delta \vdash M : \text{bool} \quad \Delta \vdash N : \text{bool}}{\Delta \vdash M \wedge N : \text{bool}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash M : \text{bool}}{\Delta \vdash \neg M : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{}{\Delta \vdash \langle \rangle : \text{unit}} \quad \frac{\Delta \vdash M : A \quad \Delta \vdash N : B}{\Delta \vdash \langle M, N \rangle : A \times B} \quad \frac{\Delta \vdash M : A \times B}{\Delta \vdash \text{fst } M : A}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash M : A \times B}{\Delta \vdash \text{snd } M : B}$$

A.2.3 Effectful exact sublanguage.

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash M : A}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{ret } M : A} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A \quad \Gamma; \Delta, X : A \vdash_c M : B}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N : B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c N : A}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N : A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{flip } e : \text{bool}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash M : \text{bool}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{observe } M : \text{unit}} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau \quad A \leftrightarrow \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \langle e \rangle_E : A}$$

A.2.4 Pure sampling sublanguage.

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma(x) = \tau}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau} \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash r : \text{real}} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{real}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{real}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma \vdash -e : \text{real}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{real}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \cdot e_2 : \text{real}} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{real}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \leq e_2 : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash () : \text{unit}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \sigma \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : \sigma \times \tau} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma \times \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } e : \tau} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma \times \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } e : \tau}
\end{array}$$

A.2.5 Effectful sampling sublanguage.

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{ret } e : \tau} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_1 : \sigma \quad \Gamma, x : \sigma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} e_3 : \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : \tau} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{flip } e : \text{bool}} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2 : \text{real}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{poisson } e : \text{real}} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} M : A \quad A \Leftrightarrow \tau}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} (M)_S : \tau} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_o : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{obs}(e_o, \text{flip } e_1) : \text{unit}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_o : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{obs}(e_o, \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2) : \text{unit}} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_o : \text{real} \quad \Gamma \vdash e : \text{real}}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_{\text{c}} \text{obs}(e_o, \text{poisson } e) : \text{unit}}
\end{array}$$

A.3 Semantics of types

A.3.1 Types.

$\llbracket A \rrbracket$: finite discrete measurable space

$\llbracket \text{unit} \rrbracket$ = the one-point space $\{\star\}$

$\llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ = $\{\top, \perp\}$

$\llbracket A \times B \rrbracket$ = $\llbracket A \rrbracket \times \llbracket B \rrbracket$

$\llbracket \tau \rrbracket$: measurable space

$\llbracket \text{unit} \rrbracket$ = the one-point space $\{\star\}$

$\llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket$ = the discrete two-point space $\{\top, \perp\}$

$\llbracket \text{real} \rrbracket$ = $\mathbb{R}$

$\llbracket \sigma \times \tau \rrbracket$ = $\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket \times \llbracket \tau \rrbracket$

A.3.2 Contexts.

$\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket$: measurable space

$$\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket = \prod_{x \in \text{dom } \Gamma} \llbracket \Gamma(x) \rrbracket$$

$\llbracket \Delta \rrbracket$: finite discrete measurable space

$$\llbracket \Delta \rrbracket = \prod_{X \in \text{dom } \Delta} \llbracket \Delta(X) \rrbracket$$

A.3.3 Convertibility.

LEMMA A.1. If $A \leftrightarrow \tau$ then $\llbracket A \rrbracket = \llbracket \tau \rrbracket$.

PROOF. By induction on $A \leftrightarrow \tau$. □

A.4 Semantics of pure programs

$$\llbracket \Delta \vdash M : A \rrbracket : \llbracket \Delta \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket$$

$$\llbracket X \rrbracket(\delta) = \delta(X)$$

$$\llbracket \text{true} \rrbracket(\delta) = \top$$

$$\llbracket \text{false} \rrbracket(\delta) = \perp$$

$$\llbracket M \wedge N \rrbracket(\delta) = \begin{cases} \top, & \text{if } \llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta) = \llbracket N \rrbracket(\delta) = \top \\ \perp, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\llbracket \neg M \rrbracket(\delta) = \begin{cases} \perp, & \text{if } \llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta) = \top \\ \top, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\llbracket \langle \rangle \rrbracket(\delta) = \star$$

$$\llbracket \langle M, N \rangle \rrbracket(\delta) = (\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta), \llbracket N \rrbracket(\delta))$$

$$\llbracket \text{fst } M \rrbracket(\delta) = \pi_1(\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta))$$

$$\llbracket \text{snd } M \rrbracket(\delta) = \pi_2(\llbracket M \rrbracket(\delta))$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \llbracket \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \rrbracket : \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\text{measurable}} \llbracket \tau \rrbracket \\
& \llbracket x \rrbracket(\gamma) = \gamma(x) \\
& \llbracket \text{true} \rrbracket(\gamma) = \top \\
& \llbracket \text{false} \rrbracket(\gamma) = \perp \\
& \llbracket r \rrbracket(\gamma) = r \\
& \llbracket e_1 + e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma) = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) + \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma) \\
& \llbracket -e \rrbracket(\gamma) = -\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \\
& \llbracket e_1 \cdot e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma) = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \cdot \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma) \\
& \llbracket e_1 \leq e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma) = \begin{cases} \top, & \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \leq \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \perp, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
& \llbracket () \rrbracket(\gamma) = \star \\
& \llbracket (e_1, e_2) \rrbracket(\gamma) = (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma)) \\
& \llbracket \text{fst } e \rrbracket(\gamma) = \pi_1(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma)) \\
& \llbracket \text{snd } e \rrbracket(\gamma) = \pi_2(\llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma))
\end{aligned}$$

A.5 Effectful programs: high-level model

Definition A.2. Let Dist be the distribution monad defined over measurable spaces. Let Dist_w be the writer monad transformer applied to Dist and the monoid $([0, 1], 1)$ of nonnegative reals under multiplication. Concretely, Dist_w sends a measurable space A to the set $\text{Dist}([0, 1] \times A)$. Let $\text{ret } x$ and $x \leftarrow \mu; f(x)$ denote the usual monad operations with respect to Dist_w , and let $\overline{(\cdot)} : \text{Dist}(A) \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w(A)$ be the usual lifting operation. In addition to the usual operations,

- Let $\text{score} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w\{\star\}$ be the function that sends a weight w to the Dirac distribution $\delta_{(w, \star)}$ centered at $(w, \star)$.

Definition A.3. For $p \in \mathbb{R}$, let $\text{flip}(p)$ be the Bernoulli distribution with parameter p if $p \in [0, 1]$, and a point mass at $\perp$ otherwise.

Definition A.4. For $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, let $\text{uniform}(a, b)$ be the uniform distribution on the interval $[a, b]$ if $a \leq b$, and a point mass at $\min(a, b)$ otherwise.

Definition A.5. For $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, let $\text{poisson}(\lambda)$ be the Poisson distribution with parameter λ if $\lambda > 0$, and a point mass at 0 otherwise.

A.5.1 Exact sublanguage.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{H}[\![\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A]\!] &: [\![\Gamma]\!] \times [\![\Delta]\!] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w[\![A]\!] \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{ret } M]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{ret}([\![M]\!](\gamma, \delta)) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \left(x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, \delta); \right. \\
&\quad \left. \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, \delta[X \mapsto x]) \right) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \begin{pmatrix} \text{if } [\![e]\!](\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, \delta) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, \delta) \end{pmatrix} \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{flip } e]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{flip}([\![e]\!](\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{observe } M]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(\mathbf{1}_{[\![M]\!](\gamma, \delta)=\top}) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\langle e \rangle_E]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \mathcal{H}[\![e]\!](\gamma, \delta)
\end{aligned}$$

A.5.2 Sampling sublanguage.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{H}[\![\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau]\!] &: [\![\Gamma]\!] \times [\![\Delta]\!] \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w[\![\tau]\!] \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{ret } e]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{ret}([\![e]\!](\gamma)) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \left(x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e_1]\!](\gamma, \delta); \right. \\
&\quad \left. \mathcal{H}[\![e_2]\!](\gamma[x \mapsto x], \delta) \right) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \begin{pmatrix} \text{if } [\![e_1]\!](\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{H}[\![e_2]\!](\gamma, \delta) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{H}[\![e_3]\!](\gamma, \delta) \end{pmatrix} \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{flip } e]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{flip}([\![e]\!](\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{uniform}([\![e_1]\!](\gamma), [\![e_2]\!](\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{poisson } e]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \overline{\text{poisson}([\![e]\!](\gamma))} \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\langle M \rangle_S]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, \delta) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{obs}(e_o, \text{flip } e_1)]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(\text{flip}([\![e_1]\!](\gamma))([\![e_o]\!](\gamma))) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{obs}(e_o, \text{poisson } e_1)]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(\text{poisson}([\![e]\!](\gamma))([\![e_o]\!](\gamma))) \\
\mathcal{H}[\![\text{obs}(e_o, \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2)]\!](\gamma, \delta) &= \text{score}(\text{uniform}([\![e_1]\!](\gamma), [\![e_2]\!](\gamma))([\![e_o]\!](\gamma)))
\end{aligned}$$

A.6 Effectful programs: low-level model

Definition A.6. A *finite conditional probability space* is a triple (Ω, μ, E) where (1) Ω is a nonempty finite prefix of $\mathbb{N}$, (2) $\mu : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a discrete probability distribution, and (3) E is a subset of Ω . Let FCPS be the set of finite conditional probability spaces.

For readability, finite conditional probability spaces (Ω, μ, E) will be written Ω unless disambiguation is needed.

LEMMA A.7. FCPS is a measurable space.

PROOF. There is an injective function $i : \text{FCPS} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \text{list}(\mathbb{R}) \times \mathcal{P}_{\text{fin}}\mathbb{N}$ sending a finite conditional probability space $(\{0, \dots, n-1\}, \mu, E)$ to the triple $(n, [\mu(0), \dots, \mu(n-1)], E)$. The codomain of i is

a measurable space with σ -algebra defined in the standard way, and the image of i is a measurable subset of this space. The injection i identifies the image of i with FCPS, making FCPS a measurable space by taking preimages along i . $\square$

Definition A.8. A map of finite conditional probability spaces $f : (\Omega, \mu, E) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mu', E')$ is a measure-preserving map $f : (\Omega, \mu) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mu')$ such that $E \subseteq f^{-1}(E')$. For two finite conditional probability spaces (Ω, μ, E) and (Ω', μ', E') , let $(\Omega, \mu, E) \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} (\Omega', \mu', E')$ be the set of maps from (Ω, μ, E) to (Ω', μ', E') .

Definition A.9. For every $\mathcal{A}$ and τ let $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\mathbf{M}_{\tau}$ be the following FCPS-indexed families of sets:

$$\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{A}} : \text{FCPS} \rightarrow \text{Set}$$

$$\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{A}}\Omega = \text{Dist}_w \left(\sum_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times (\Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket) \right)$$

$$\mathbf{M}_{\tau} : \text{FCPS} \rightarrow \text{Set}$$

$$\mathbf{M}_{\tau}\Omega = \text{Dist}_w \left(\sum_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times \llbracket \tau \rrbracket \right)$$

PROOF. For these to be well-defined, the arguments to Dist_w must be measurable spaces. Elements of $\sum_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times (\Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket)$ are triples (Ω', f, X) where $\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}$ and f is a map of finite conditional probability spaces and $X : \Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket$. There is a canonical injective function i from this set to the set $\text{FCPS} \times (\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \mathbb{N}) \times (\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket)$ whose elements are triples (Ω', f, X) where $\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}$ and f, X are partial functions of type $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket$ respectively with finite domain. This set is a measurable space by Lemma A.7 and by putting the discrete σ -algebras on $\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket$. The image of i is a measurable subset of this space, making $\sum_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times (\Omega' \rightarrow \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket)$ a measurable space too. The analogous argument also makes $\sum_{\Omega' \in \text{FCPS}} (\Omega' \xrightarrow{\text{FCPS}} \Omega) \times \llbracket \tau \rrbracket$ into a measurable space. $\square$

Definition A.10. For two finite conditional probability spaces (Ω, μ, E) and (Ω', μ', E') , their *tensor product*, written $(\Omega, \mu, E) \otimes (\Omega', \mu', E')$, is $(f(\Omega \times \Omega'), \nu \circ f^{-1}, f(E \times E'))$ where $\nu : \Omega \times \Omega' \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is the measure $\nu(\omega, \omega') = \mu(\omega)\mu'(\omega')$ and f is an arbitrary isomorphism $\Omega \times \Omega' \rightarrow \{1, \dots, |\Omega||\Omega'|\}$ (such as $f(\omega, \omega') = |\Omega'|\omega + \omega'$). There are canonical projection maps

$$\pi_1 : (\Omega, \mu, E) \otimes (\Omega', \mu', E') \rightarrow (\Omega, \mu, E) \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_2 : (\Omega, \mu, E) \otimes (\Omega', \mu', E') \rightarrow (\Omega', \mu', E').$$

The tensor product has a unit, written emp , defined as $(\Omega_{\text{emp}}, \mu_{\text{emp}}, E_{\text{emp}})$ where $\Omega_{\text{emp}} = E_{\text{emp}} = \{0\}$ and $\mu(0) = 1$.

Definition A.11. To model sampling from finite conditional probability spaces,

- For any nonempty set Ω , let $\text{zero}_{\Omega} : \text{Dist}_w(\Omega)$ be the Dirac distribution at $(0, \nu) : [0, 1] \times \Omega$ where ν is an arbitrary element of Ω .
- For any finite conditional probability space (Ω, μ, E) , let $\mu|_E : \text{Dist}_w(\Omega)$ be zero_{Ω} if $\mu(E) = 0$, and the lifting of the conditional distribution of μ given E if $\mu(E) > 0$.

A.6.1 Exact sublanguage.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{L}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A](\Omega) : [\Gamma] \times (\Omega \rightarrow [\Delta]) \rightarrow \mathbf{M}_A(\Omega) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{ret } M](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, [M] \circ D) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} (\Omega_1, f_1, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[M](\Omega)(\gamma, D); \\ (\Omega_2, f_2, Y) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[N](\Omega_1)(\gamma, (D \circ f_1)[X \mapsto X]); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega_2, f_1 \circ f_2, Y) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } [e](\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{L}[M](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{L}[N](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{flip } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} p := \text{if } [e](\gamma) \in [0, 1] \text{ then } [e](\gamma) \text{ else } 0; \\ \Omega_{\text{flip}} := (\{0, 1\}, \mu, \{0, 1\}) \text{ where } \mu(1) = p; \\ \Omega' := \Omega \otimes \Omega_{\text{flip}}; \\ X := \omega' \mapsto \text{if } \pi_2(\omega') = 1 \text{ then } \top \text{ else } \perp; \\ \text{ret}(\Omega', \pi_1, X) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{observe } M](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} F := ([M](\Omega)(D))^{-1}(\top); \\ \text{score}(\mu|_E(F)); \\ \text{ret}((\Omega, \mu, E \cap F), \text{id}, \star) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\langle e \rangle_E](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} (\Omega', f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[e](\Omega)(\gamma, D); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega', f, _ \mapsto x) \end{array} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

A.6.2 Sampling sublanguage.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{L}[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau](\Omega) : [\Gamma] \times (\Omega \rightarrow [\Delta]) \rightarrow \mathbf{M}_\tau(\Omega) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{ret } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, [e](\gamma)) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} (\Omega_1, f_1, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[e_1](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ (\Omega_2, f_2, y) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[e_2](\Omega_1)(\gamma[x \mapsto x], D \circ f_1) \\ \text{ret}(\Omega_2, f_1 \circ f_2, y) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } [e_1](\gamma) \\ \text{then } \mathcal{L}[e_2](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ \text{else } \mathcal{L}[e_3](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{flip } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \overline{\text{flip}([e](\gamma))} \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, x) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \overline{\text{uniform}([e_1](\gamma), [e_2](\gamma))} \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, x) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{poisson } e](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \overline{\text{poisson}([e](\gamma))} \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, x) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{flip } e_1)](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} w := \text{flip}([e_1](\gamma)) ([e_o](\gamma)) \\ \text{score}(w); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \star) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2)](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} w := \text{uniform}([e_1](\gamma), [e_2](\gamma)) ([e_o](\gamma)) \\ \text{score}(w); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \star) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[\text{obs}(e_o, \text{poisson } e_1)](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} w := \text{poisson}([e_1](\gamma)) ([e_o](\gamma)) \\ \text{score}(w); \\ \text{ret}(\Omega, \text{id}, \star) \end{array} \right) \\
& \mathcal{L}[(M)_S](\Omega)(\gamma, D) = \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[M](\Omega)(\gamma, D) \\ x \leftarrow (\omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \text{ret}(X(\omega'))) \\ \text{ret}((\Omega', \mu', E' \cap X^{-1}(x)), f, x) \end{array} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

A.7 Soundness

Definition A.12. Two computations $\mu, \nu : \text{Dist}_w A$ are *equal as importance samplers*, written $\mu \simeq \nu$, if for all bounded integrable $k : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ it holds that $\mathbb{E}_{(a,x) \sim \mu}[a \cdot k(x)] = \mathbb{E}_{(b,y) \sim \nu}[b \cdot k(y)]$.

LEMMA A.13. *The equivalence relation $\simeq$ is a congruence for the monad Dist_w : if $\mu \simeq \nu : \text{Dist}_w A$ and $f, g : A \rightarrow \text{Dist}_w B$ with $f(x) \simeq g(x)$ for all x in A then $(x \leftarrow \mu; f(x)) \simeq (x \leftarrow \nu; g(x))$.*

PROOF. If $k : B \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ bounded integrable then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{(c,y) \sim (x \leftarrow \mu; f(x))} [ck(y)] &= \mathbb{E}_{(a,x) \sim \mu} \left[\mathbb{E}_{(b,y) \sim f(x)} [a \cdot b \cdot k(y)] \right] \stackrel{(1)}{=} \mathbb{E}_{(a,x) \sim \mu} \left[\mathbb{E}_{(b,y) \sim g(x)} [a \cdot b \cdot k(y)] \right] \\ &\stackrel{(2)}{=} \mathbb{E}_{(a,x) \sim \nu} \left[\mathbb{E}_{(b,y) \sim g(x)} [a \cdot b \cdot k(y)] \right] = \mathbb{E}_{(c,y) \sim (x \leftarrow \nu; g(x))} [ck(y)] \end{aligned}$$

where (1) follows from $f(x) \simeq g(x)$ and (2) from $\mu \simeq \nu$, using linearity of expectation throughout as needed. $\square$

LEMMA A.14. If $(\Omega, \mu, E) \in \text{FCPS}$ and $F \subseteq \Omega$ then $\mu|_E|_F = \mu|_{E \cap F}$.

PROOF. If $\mu(E \cap F) = 0$ then both sides are the zero measure. Otherwise for all G have $(\mu|_E|_F)(G) = \mu|_E(F \cap G)/\mu|_E(F) = \mu(E \cap F \cap G)/\mu(E \cap F) = \mu|_{E \cap F}(G)$. $\square$

LEMMA A.15. If $(\Omega, \mu, E) \in \text{FCPS}$ then $\begin{pmatrix} \text{score}(\mu(E)); \\ \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{ret } \omega \end{pmatrix} \simeq \begin{pmatrix} \omega \leftarrow \mu; \\ \text{score}(\mathbf{1}_{\omega \in E}); \\ \text{ret } \omega \end{pmatrix}$.

PROOF. For all $k : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{(a,\omega) \sim \text{LHS}} [k(\omega)] &= \mathbb{E}_{\omega \sim \mu|_E} [\mu(E)k(\omega)] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mu|_E(\omega) \mu(E)k(\omega) = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mu(\omega \cap E)k(\omega) \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mathbf{1}_{\omega \in E} \mu(\omega)k(\omega) = \mathbb{E}_{(a,\omega) \sim \text{RHS}} [a \cdot k(\omega)]. \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

LEMMA A.16. If $(\Omega, \mu, E) \in \text{FCPS}$ and $X : \Omega \rightarrow A$ with A finite then

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \leftarrow (\omega \leftarrow \mu; \text{ret}(X\omega)); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu|_{X^{-1}(x)}; \\ \text{ret}(x, \omega) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \omega' \leftarrow \mu; \\ \text{ret}(X\omega', \omega') \end{pmatrix}.$$

PROOF. All distributions involved are discrete, so it suffices to show LHS and RHS give the same probability to pairs (a, b) .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS}(a, b) &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \mu(\omega) \sum_{\omega' \in \Omega} \mu|_{X^{-1}(X\omega)}(\omega') \mathbf{1}_{(X\omega, \omega')=(a,b)} = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega, \omega' \in \Omega, X\omega=a, \omega'=b} \mu(\omega) \mu|_{X^{-1}(X\omega)}(\omega') \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega, X\omega=a} \mu(\omega) \mu|_{X^{-1}(a)}(b) = \mu|_{X^{-1}(a)}(b) \mu(X^{-1}(a)) = \mu(X^{-1}(a) \cap b) = \text{RHS}(a, b) \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

THEOREM A.17. The following hold:

(1) If $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c M : A$ then the following holds for all $\Omega, \mu, E, \gamma, D$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![M]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{pmatrix} \simeq \begin{pmatrix} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{pmatrix}$$

(2) If $\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau$ then the following holds for all $\Omega, \mu, E, \gamma, D$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![e]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{pmatrix} \simeq \begin{pmatrix} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{pmatrix}$$

PROOF. By induction on the typing rules.

(1)

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{ret } M : A)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![\text{ret } M]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \text{ret}((\Omega, \mu, E), \text{id}, [\![M]\!] \circ D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, [\![M]\!](D\omega)) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![\text{ret } M]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N : B)$ In this case we work backwards, rearranging RHS into LHS:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![\text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, y) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, D\omega[X \mapsto x]); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, y) \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} (\delta, x) \leftarrow \\ \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, \delta[X \mapsto x]); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, y) \end{array} \right) \stackrel{\text{IH}}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} (\delta, x) \leftarrow \\ ((\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![M]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega_1 \leftarrow \mu_1|_{E_1}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega_1)), X\omega_1) \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, \delta[X \mapsto x]); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, y) \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![M]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega_1 \leftarrow \mu_1|_{E_1}; \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, ((D \circ f_1)[X \mapsto X])(\omega_1)); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, y) \end{array} \right) \\
 &\stackrel{\text{IH}}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1), f_1, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![M]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ ((\Omega_2, \mu_2, E_2), f_2, Y) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![N]\!](\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1)(\gamma, (D \circ f_1)[X \mapsto X]); \\ \omega_2 \leftarrow \mu_2|_{E_2}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f_1(f_2(\omega))), Y\omega_2) \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, Z) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![\text{let } X \text{ be } M \text{ in } N]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), Z\omega') \end{array} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N : A)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left(((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![\text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \right. \\
 & \quad \left. \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \right. \\
 & \quad \left. \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \\ \quad \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \quad \text{then } \mathcal{L}[\![M]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \quad \text{else } \mathcal{L}[\![N]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \text{ then} \\ \quad ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![M]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \quad \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \quad \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \\ \text{else} \\ \quad ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![N]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \quad \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \quad \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) \\
 & \stackrel{\text{IH} \times 2}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \text{ then} \\ \quad \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \quad x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \quad \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \\ \text{else} \\ \quad \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \quad x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \quad \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \\ \quad \text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \quad \text{then } \mathcal{H}[\![M]\!](\gamma, D\omega) \\ \quad \text{else } \mathcal{H}[\![N]\!](\gamma, D\omega) \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![\text{if } e \text{ then } M \text{ else } N]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{flip } e : \text{bool})$ Let $p = (\text{if } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \in [0, 1] \text{ then } \llbracket e \rrbracket(\gamma) \text{ else } 0)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left(((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![\text{flip } e]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \right. \\
 & \quad \left. \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \right. \\
 & \quad \left. \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} (\omega, b) \leftarrow (\mu \otimes \text{flip}(p))|_{E \times \llbracket \text{bool} \rrbracket}; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, b) \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ b \leftarrow \text{flip}(p); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, b) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![\text{flip } e]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{observe } M : \text{unit})$ Let F be the subset $(\llbracket M \rrbracket (\Omega, \mu, E) \circ D)^{-1}(\top)$ of Ω .

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket \text{observe } M \rrbracket (\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D)]; \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{score}(\mu|_E(F)); \\ \omega \leftarrow \mu|_{E \cap F}; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, \star) \end{array} \right) \\ & \stackrel{\text{Lemma A.14}}{=} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{score}(\mu|_E(F)); \\ \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E|_F; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, \star) \end{array} \right) \stackrel{\text{Lemma A.15}}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{score}(\mathbf{1}_{\omega \in F}); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, \star) \end{array} \right) \\ & = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{score}(\mathbf{1}_{\llbracket M \rrbracket (D\omega) = \top}); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, \star) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket \text{observe } M \rrbracket (\gamma, D\omega)]; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c (\text{e})_E : A)$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket (\text{e})_E \rrbracket (\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D)]; \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) \\ & = \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket \text{e} \rrbracket (\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D)]; \\ \text{ret}((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, _ \mapsto x) \end{array} \right); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) \\ & = \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket \text{e} \rrbracket (\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D)]; \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\ & \stackrel{\text{IH}}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket \text{e} \rrbracket (\gamma, D\omega)]; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket (\text{e})_E \rrbracket (\gamma, D\omega)]; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) \end{aligned}$$

(2)

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{ret } e : \tau)$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket \text{ret } e \rrbracket (\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D)]; \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\ & = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, \llbracket e \rrbracket (\gamma)) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket \text{ret } e \rrbracket (\gamma, D\omega)]; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau)$ In this case we work backwards, rearranging RHS into LHS:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![\text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e_1]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e_2]\!](\gamma[x \mapsto x], D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, y) \end{array} \right) \\
& = \left(\begin{array}{l} (\delta, x) \leftarrow \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e_1]\!](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right); \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e_2]\!](\gamma[x \mapsto x], \delta); \\ \text{ret}(\delta, y) \end{array} \right) \stackrel{\text{IH}}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} (\delta, x) \leftarrow \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1), f_1, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![e_1]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega_1 \leftarrow \mu_1|_{E_1}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f_1(\omega_1)), X\omega_1) \end{array} \right); \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e_2]\!](\gamma[x \mapsto x], \delta); \\ \text{ret}(\delta, y) \end{array} \right) \\
& = \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1), f_1, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![e_1]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega_1 \leftarrow \mu_1|_{E_1}; \\ \delta := D(f_1(\omega_1)); \\ y \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\![e_2]\!](\gamma[x \mapsto x], \delta); \\ \text{ret}(\delta, y) \end{array} \right) \\
& \stackrel{\text{IH}}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1), f_1, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![e_1]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ ((\Omega_2, \mu_2, E_2), f_2, y) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![e_2]\!](\Omega_1, \mu_1, E_1)(\gamma[x \mapsto x], D \circ f_1); \\ \omega_2 \leftarrow \mu_2|_{E_2}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f_1(f_2(\omega_2))), y) \end{array} \right) \\
& = \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, z) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\![\text{let } x \text{ be } e_1 \text{ in } e_2]\!](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), z) \end{array} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& (\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : \tau) \\
& \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\
& = \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \\ \quad \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \quad \text{then } \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \quad \text{else } \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_3 \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \text{ then} \\ \quad ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \quad \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \quad \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \\ \text{else} \\ \quad ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e_3 \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \quad \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \quad \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\
& \stackrel{\text{IH} \times 2}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \text{ then} \\ \quad \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \quad x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \quad \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \\ \text{else} \\ \quad \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \quad x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket e_3 \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \quad \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \\ \quad \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma) \\ \quad \text{then } \mathcal{H}[\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega) \\ \quad \text{else } \mathcal{H}[\llbracket e_3 \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega) \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) \\
& = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c e : \tau \text{ for } e = \text{flip } e_1 \text{ or } e = \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2 \text{ or } e = \text{poisson } e_1)$

If $e = \text{flip } e_1$ for some e_1 , then let ν be the distribution $\text{flip}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))$.

If $e = \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2$ then let ν be the distribution $\text{uniform}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma))$.

If $e = \text{poisson } e_1$ for some e_1 , then let ν be the distribution $\text{poisson}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))$.

In all cases,

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \\ \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \bar{\nu}; \\ \text{ret}((\Omega, \mu, E), \text{id}, x) \end{array} \right); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu'|_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\
& = \left(\begin{array}{l} x \leftarrow \bar{\nu}; \\ \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket e \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \text{obs}(e_o, e) : \text{unit} \text{ for } e = \text{flip } e_1 \text{ or } e = \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2 \text{ or } e = \text{poisson } e_1)$

If $e = \text{flip } e_1$ for some e_1 , then let ν be the distribution $\text{flip}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))$.

If $e = \text{uniform } e_1 \ e_2$ then let ν be the distribution $\text{uniform}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma), \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket(\gamma))$.

If $e = \text{poisson } e_1$ for some e_1 , then let ν be the distribution $\text{poisson}(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket(\gamma))$.

In all cases,

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket \text{obs}(e_o, e) \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu' |_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{score}(\bar{\nu}(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma))); \\ \omega \leftarrow \mu |_E; \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, \star) \end{array} \right)$$

CONT's score does not effect the FCPS and we commute with $\mu|_E$,

$$\stackrel{\text{comm}}{=} \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ \text{score}(\bar{\nu}(\llbracket e_o \rrbracket(\gamma))); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, \star) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket e \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right)$$

$(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash_c \llbracket M \rrbracket_s : \tau)$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket \llbracket M \rrbracket_s \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu' |_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\ &= \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, x) \leftarrow \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket M \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D) \\ x \leftarrow (\omega' \leftarrow \mu' |_{E'}; \text{ret}(X\omega')) \\ \text{ret}((\Omega', \mu', E' \cap X^{-1}(x)), x) \end{array} \right) \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu' |_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\ &= \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), f, X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket M \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D) \\ x \leftarrow (\omega' \leftarrow \mu' |_{E'}; \text{ret}(X\omega')) \\ E'' := E' \cap X^{-1}(x); \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu' |_{E''}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), x) \end{array} \right) \\ &\stackrel{\text{Lemmas A.14 and A.16}}{=} \left(\begin{array}{l} ((\Omega', \mu', E'), X) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket M \rrbracket](\Omega, \mu, E)(\gamma, D) \\ \omega' \leftarrow \mu' |_{E'}; \\ \text{ret}(D(f(\omega')), X\omega') \end{array} \right) \\ &\stackrel{\text{IH}}{\cong} \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket M \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{l} \omega \leftarrow \mu|_E; \\ x \leftarrow \mathcal{H}[\llbracket \llbracket M \rrbracket_s \rrbracket](\gamma, D\omega); \\ \text{ret}(D\omega, x) \end{array} \right) \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition A.18. For a closed program $\cdot; \vdash_c e : \tau$, let $\text{eval}_{\mathcal{L}}(e)$ be the computation

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} (_, _, x) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\llbracket e \rrbracket](\text{emp})(\emptyset, \emptyset); \\ \text{ret } x \end{array} \right) : \text{Dist}_w[\llbracket \tau \rrbracket]$$

where $\emptyset$ denotes the empty substitution. Let $\text{eval}_{\mathcal{H}}(e)$ be the computation $\mathcal{H}[\llbracket e \rrbracket](\emptyset, \emptyset) : \text{Dist}_w[\llbracket \tau \rrbracket]$.

THEOREM A.19 (CONT SOUNDNESS). If $\cdot; \vdash_c e : \tau$ then $\text{eval}_{\mathcal{L}}(e) \simeq \text{eval}_{\mathcal{H}}(e)$.

PROOF. Apply Theorem A.17. □

A.8 Evaluation details

In this section, we include three example programs from our evaluation to showcase the syntax of our implementation. These include the 15-node arrival model with tree-topology, the 9-node reachability model with grid topology.

We additionally provide our evaluations, inclusive of standard error over the 100 runs.

Listing 3. REACHABILITY-9

```

1  exact {
2    let x00 = flip 1.0 / 3.0 in
3    let x01 = if x00 then flip 1.0 / 4.0 else flip 1.0 / 5.0 in
4    let x10 = if x00 then flip 1.0 / 4.0 else flip 1.0 / 5.0 in
5    let diag = sample {
6      x02 ~ if x01 then bern(1.0 / 4.0) else bern(1.0 / 5.0);
7      x20 ~ if x10 then bern(1.0 / 4.0) else bern(1.0 / 5.0);
8      x11 ~ if x10 && x01 then bern(1.0 / 6.0)
9            else if x10 && !x01 then bern(1.0 / 7.0)
10           else if !x10 && x01 then bern(1.0 / 8.0)
11                else bern(1.0 / 9.0);
12      (x20, x11, x02)
13    } in
14    let x20 = diag[0] in
15    let x11 = diag[1] in
16    let x02 = diag[2] in
17
18    let x12 = if x11 && x02 then flip 1.0 / 6.0
19              else if x11 && !x02 then flip 1.0 / 7.0
20              else if !x11 && x02 then flip 1.0 / 8.0
21                    else flip 1.0 / 9.0 in
22    let x21 = if x20 && x11 then flip 1.0 / 6.0
23              else if x20 && !x11 then flip 1.0 / 7.0
24              else if !x20 && x11 then flip 1.0 / 8.0
25                    else flip 1.0 / 9.0 in
26    let x22 = if x21 && x12 then flip 1.0 / 6.0
27              else if x21 && !x12 then flip 1.0 / 7.0
28              else if !x21 && x12 then flip 1.0 / 8.0
29                    else flip 1.0 / 9.0 in
30    observe x22 in
31    ( x00, x01, x02
32      , x10, x11, x12
33      , x20, x21, x22
34    )
35  }

```

Fig. 16. The network reachability program for the 9-node grid topology

Listing 4. ARRIVAL-15

```

1  exact fn network () -> Bool {
2    let n30r = true in
3    let n20r = if n30r then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
4    let n31r = if !n20r then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
5
6    let n10r = if n20r then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
7    let n21r = if !n10r then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
8    let n32r = if n21r then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
9    let n33r = if !n21r then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
10
11   let n0   = n10r in
12
13   let n10l = if n0   then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
14
15   let n20l = if n10l then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
16   let n21l = if !n10l then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
17
18   let n30l = if n20l then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
19   let n31l = if !n20l then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
20   let n32l = if n21l then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
21   let n33l = if !n21l then flip 1.0 / 2.0 else false in
22   observe n32l in
23   n0
24 }
25
26 sample {
27   ix ~ poisson(3.0);
28   npackets <- 0;
29   while ix > 0 {
30     traverses <- exact(network());
31     npackets <- if traverses { npackets + 1 } else { npackets };
32     ix <- ix - 1;
33     true
34   };
35   npackets
36 }

```

Fig. 17. The network reachability program for the 9-node grid topology

Listing 5. Gossip-4

```

1  sample fn forward(ix : Int) -> Int {
2    s ~ discrete(1.0 / 3.0, 1.0 / 3.0, 1.0 / 3.0);
3    if s < ix { s } else { s + 1 }
4  }
5
6  exact fn node(nid : Int) -> (Int, Int) {
7    let p1 = sample(forward(nid)) in
8    let p2 = sample(forward(nid)) in
9    (p1, p2)
10 }
11
12 exact fn network_step(
13   n0 : Bool, n1 : Bool, n2: Bool, n3 : Bool, next : Int
14 ) -> (Bool, Bool, Bool, Bool, Int, Int) {
15   let n0 = n0 || (next == 0) in
16   let n1 = n1 || (next == 1) in
17   let n2 = n2 || (next == 2) in
18   let n3 = n3 || (next == 3) in
19   let fwd = node(next) in
20   (n0, n1, n2, n3, fwd[0], fwd[1])
21 }
22
23 sample fn as_num(b : Bool) -> Float {
24   if (b) { 1.0 } else { 0.0 }
25 }
26
27 sample {
28   p <- exact(node(0));
29   p1 <- p[0]; p2 <- p[1];
30   i0 <- true; i1 <- false; i2 <- false; i3 <- false;
31   q <- []; q <- push(q, p1); q <- push(q, p2);
32   num_steps ~ discrete(0.25,0.25,0.25,0.25);
33   num_steps <- num_steps + 4;
34   while (num_steps > 0) {
35     nxt <- head(q);
36     q <- tail(q);
37     state <- exact(network_step(i0, i1, i2, i3, nxt));
38     i0 <- state[0]; i1 <- state[1]; i2 <- state[2]; i3 <- state[3];
39     q <- push(q, state[4]);
40     q <- push(q, state[5]);
41     num_steps <- num_steps - 1;
42     true
43   };
44   n0 <- as_num(i0);
45   n1 <- as_num(i1);
46   n2 <- as_num(i2);
47   n3 <- as_num(i3);
48   (n0 + n1 + n2 + n3)
49 }

```

Fig. 18. The network reachability program for the 9-node grid topology

Model	PSI		Pyro		MULTIPPL (CONT)		MULTIPPL	
	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)
arrival/tree-15	—	—	0.365 ± 0.004	12.713 ± 0.025	0.355 ± 0.004	0.247 ± 0.001	0.337 ± 0.003	0.349 ± 0.002
arrival/tree-31	—	—	0.216 ± 0.002	26.366 ± 0.054	0.218 ± 0.002	0.561 ± 0.004	0.179 ± 0.002	0.754 ± 0.002
arrival/tree-63	—	—	0.118 ± 0.002	53.946 ± 0.086	0.120 ± 0.002	1.469 ± 0.003	0.093 ± 0.002	1.912 ± 0.004
alarm	t/o	t/o	1.290 ± 0.056	16.851 ± 0.024	1.173 ± 0.049	0.433 ± 0.002	0.364 ± 0.015	14.444 ± 0.008
insurance	t/o	t/o	0.149 ± 0.008	13.724 ± 0.020	0.144 ± 0.007	1.104 ± 0.012	0.099 ± 0.006	11.406 ± 0.015
gossip/4	—	—	0.119 ± 0.002	6.734 ± 0.027	0.119 ± 0.001	0.720 ± 0.002	0.118 ± 0.002	0.812 ± 0.014
gossip/10	—	—	0.533 ± 0.003	6.786 ± 0.009	0.531 ± 0.003	1.561 ± 0.006	0.524 ± 0.003	1.373 ± 0.004
gossip/20	—	—	0.747 ± 0.003	7.064 ± 0.010	0.745 ± 0.003	3.565 ± 0.005	0.750 ± 0.003	2.888 ± 0.003

Fig. 19. Empirical results of our benchmarks of the arrival, hybrid Bayesian network, and gossip tasks. “MULTIPPL (CONT)” shows the evaluation of a baseline CONT program with no boundary crossings into [Disc](#), evaluations under the “MULTIPPL” column performs interoperation. “t/o” indicates a timeout beyond 30 minutes, and “—” indicates that the problem is not expressible in PSJ because of an unbounded loop.

# Nodes	PSI Time(s)	MULTIPPL (Disc)		Pyro		MULTIPPL (CONT)		MULTIPPL	
		Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1	Time(s)	L1
9	546.748 ± 8.018	0.001 ± 0.000	0.080 ± 0.002	3.827 ± 0.008	0.079 ± 0.002	0.067 ± 0.001	0.033 ± 0.001	0.098 ± 0.001	
36	t/o	0.089 ± 0.002	1.812 ± 0.009	14.952 ± 0.025	0.309 ± 0.004	0.277 ± 0.002	0.055 ± 0.002	1.169 ± 0.004	
81	t/o	40.728 ± 0.276	7.814 ± 0.017	33.199 ± 0.049	0.680 ± 0.005	0.887 ± 0.002	0.079 ± 0.002	81.300 ± 0.278	

Fig. 20. Exact and approximate results for models performing approximate inference

B Comparison with Nested Inference

It is interesting to contemplate the relationship between the nested inference approach and MULTIPPL. A crisp comparison — for instance, a formal expressivity result establishing that it is not possible to represent our multi-language interoperation using nested inference — is difficult, due to (1) the large variety of different approaches to nested inference, and (2) the fact that such expressivity results are very hard even for very restricted languages, let alone rich general-purpose probabilistic programming languages. It would be very interesting to investigate the relative expressivity of multi-language interoperation and nested inference, but such an investigation is beyond the scope of this paper.

At the very least, what we can say is that MULTIPPL’s low-level denotational semantics, and hence also its inference strategy, is markedly different from the standard measure-theoretic semantics of nested inference, such as Staton [54]’s model of nested queries. In Staton [54], probabilistic computations denote measure-theoretic kernels. The computation $\text{normalize}(t)$ represents a nested query: it takes in a probabilistic computation t of type A and produces a deterministic computation that can yield one of three possible outcomes:

- (1) a tuple $(1, (e, d))$ consisting of a normalizing constant e and a distribution d over elements of type A ,
- (2) a tuple $(2, ())$ signalling that the normalizing constant was zero,
- (3) or a tuple $(3, ())$ signalling that the normalizing constant was infinity.

Soundness of nested inference is then justified by the following equational reasoning principle, reproduced here from Staton [54]:

$$\llbracket t \rrbracket = \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{case } \text{normalize}(t) \text{ of } (1, (e, d)) \Rightarrow \text{score}(e); \text{sample}(d) \\ \quad \mid (2, ()) \Rightarrow \text{score}(0); t \\ \quad \mid (3, ()) \Rightarrow t \end{array} \right] \quad (7)$$

Disregarding the edge cases where the normalizing constant is zero or infinity, Eq. (7) says that running a probabilistic computation t is the same as (1) computing a representation of the distribution of t , either by exact inference or by “freezing a simulation” and examining “a histogram that has been built” in the words of Staton [54], and then (2) resampling from this distribution and scoring by the normalizing constant.

There are a number of points that prevent this model of nested inference from being applied directly to justify correctness of MULTIPPL, which may help to clarify the difference between nested inference and MULTIPPL’s inference interoperation:

- It is about a kernel-based model where programs take deterministic values as input, but MultiPPL’s **Disc** programs take random variables as input. This is an important difference: because **Disc** programs take random variables as input, a **Disc** program that simply makes use of a free variable in context produces a random variable, not a fixed deterministic value. In contrast, such a program always denotes a deterministic point mass under a kernel-based semantics.
- MULTIPPL’s semantics of **Disc** programs is stateful, and this is necessary to model how exact inference works in our implementation. Contrastingly, the kernel-based model of Staton [54] is not stateful in this way, and so would not have been sufficient for establishing our main soundness theorem.
- Because the model of Staton [54] is not stateful, it can’t account for the stateful updates to the probability space that MULTIPPL performs in order to ensure sample consistency.
- Finally, Eq. (7) suggests to use importance reweighting via score to ensure sound nesting of exact inference within an approximate-inference context, by properly taking the normalizing

constant produced by the nested query into account. This is quite different from how MULTIPPL's $(-)_S$ boundary form handles the nesting of **Disc** subterms in **Cont** contexts — as shown in Fig. 10, the low-level semantics of $(-)_S$ does not perform importance reweighting. Instead, importance reweighting occurs in the semantics of **Disc**-observe statements. Thus Eq. (7) does not explain MULTIPPL's importance reweighting scheme.

Together, these points show that multi-language inference is distinct enough from nested inference that the standard measure-theoretic model of nested queries from Staton [54] cannot be used directly to justify key aspects of MULTIPPL's inference strategy, such as the need for sample consistency and when importance reweighting is performed. Though Staton [54] is just one approach to modelling nested inference, it being a relatively well-established approach suggests that there are indeed fundamental differences between nested inference and MULTIPPL's multilanguage inference.