# AN OPERATIONAL FOUNDATION FOR DELIMITED CONTINUATIONS IN THE CPS HIERARCHY

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ABSTRACT. We present an abstract machine and a reduction semantics for the lambdacalculus extended with control operators that give access to delimited continuations in the CPS hierarchy. The abstract machine is derived from an evaluator in continuationpassing style (CPS); the reduction semantics (i.e., a small-step operational semantics with an explicit representation of evaluation contexts) is constructed from the abstract machine; and the control operators are the shift and reset family.

We also present new applications of delimited continuations in the CPS hierarchy: finding list prefixes and normalization by evaluation for a hierarchical language of units and products.

#### 1. Introduction

The studies of delimited continuations can be classified in two groups: those that use continuation-passing style (CPS) and those that rely on operational intuitions about control instead. Of the latter, there is a large number proposing a variety of control operators [5,37,40,41,49,52,53,65,70,74,80] which have found applications in models of control, concurrency, and type-directed partial evaluation [8,52,75]. Of the former, there is the work revolving around the family of control operators shift and reset [27–29,32,42,43,55,56,66,80] which have found applications in non-deterministic programming, code generation, partial evaluation, normalization by evaluation, computational monads, and mobile computing [6,7,9,17,22,23,33,34,44,46,48,51,57,59,61,72,77–79].

The original motivation for shift and reset was a continuation-based programming pattern involving several layers of continuations. The original specification of these operators relied both on a repeated CPS transformation and on an evaluator with several layers of continuations (as is obtained by repeatedly transforming a direct-style evaluator into continuation-passing style). Only subsequently have shift and reset been specified operationally, by developing operational analogues of a continuation semantics and of the CPS transformation [32].

 $2000\ ACM\ Subject\ Classification:\ D.1.1;\ F.3.2.$ 

Key words and phrases: Delimited continuations, abstract machines, reduction semantics.



Submitted

Published

Apr. 1, 2005

Nov. 8, 2005

The goal of our work here is to establish a new operational foundation for delimited continuations, using CPS as a guideline. To this end, we start with the original evaluator for shift<sub>1</sub> and reset<sub>1</sub>. This evaluator uses two layers of continuations: a continuation and a meta-continuation. We then defunctionalize it into an abstract machine [1] and we construct the corresponding reduction semantics [36], as pioneered by Felleisen and Friedman [39]. The development scales to shift<sub>n</sub> and reset<sub>n</sub>. It is reusable for any control operators that are compatible with CPS, i.e., that can be characterized with a (possibly iterated) CPS translation or with a continuation-based evaluator. It also pinpoints where operational intuitions go beyond CPS.

This article is structured as follows. In Section 2, we review the enabling technology of our work: Reynolds's defunctionalization, the observation that a defunctionalized CPS program implements an abstract machine, and the observation that Felleisen's evaluation contexts are the defunctionalized continuations of a continuation-passing evaluator; we demonstrate this enabling technology on a simple example, arithmetic expressions. In Section 3, we illustrate the use of shift and reset with the classic example of finding list prefixes, using an ML-like programming language. In Section 4, we then present our main result: starting from the original evaluator for shift and reset, we defunctionalize it into an abstract machine; we analyze this abstract machine and construct the corresponding reduction semantics. In Section 5, we extend this result to the CPS hierarchy. In Section 6, we illustrate the CPS hierarchy with a class of normalization functions for a hierarchical language of units and products.

#### 2. From evaluator to reduction semantics for arithmetic expressions

We demonstrate the derivation from an evaluator to a reduction semantics. The derivation consists of the following steps:

- (1) we start from an evaluator for a given language; if it is in direct style, we CPS-transform it;
- (2) we defunctionalize the CPS evaluator, obtaining a value-based abstract machine;
- (3) we modify the abstract machine to make it term-based instead of value-based; in particular, if the evaluator uses an environment, then so does the corresponding value-based abstract machine, and in that case, making the machine term-based leads us to use substitutions rather than an environment;
- (4) we analyze the transitions of the term-based abstract machine to identify the evaluation strategy it implements and the set of reductions it performs; the result is a reduction semantics.

The first two steps are based on previous work on a functional correspondence between evaluators and abstract machines [1–3,17,26], which itself is based on Reynolds's seminal work on definitional interpreters [71]. The last two steps follow the lines of Felleisen and Friedman's original work on a reduction semantics for the call-by-value  $\lambda$ -calculus extended with control operators [39]. The last step has been studied further by Hardin, Maranget, and Pagano [50] in the context of explicit substitutions and by Biernacka, Danvy, and Nielsen [15, 16, 31].

In the rest of this section, our running example is the language of arithmetic expressions, formed using natural numbers (the values) and additions (the computations):

$$\exp \ni e ::= \lceil m \rceil \mid e_1 + e_2$$

```
• Values:
                      val \ni v ::= m
• Evaluation function:
                                             eval : exp \rightarrow val
                                          \operatorname{eval}\left(\lceil m\rceil\right) \ = \ m
                                     \operatorname{eval}(e_1 + e_2) = \operatorname{eval}(e_1) + \operatorname{eval}(e_2)
```

evaluate :  $exp \rightarrow val$ • Main function: evaluate(e) = eval(e)

Figure 1: A direct-style evaluator for arithmetic expressions

```
• Values:
                   \mathsf{val} \ni v ::= m
• Continuations:
                              cont = val \rightarrow val
• Evaluation function:
                                       eval : \exp \times \operatorname{cont} \rightarrow \operatorname{val}
                \mathsf{eval}\;(\lceil m\rceil,\,k) \;\;=\;\; k\;m
            eval (e_1 + e_2, k) = \text{eval } (e_1, \lambda m_1, \text{eval } (e_2, \lambda m_2, k (m_1 + m_2)))
• Main function: evaluate : exp \rightarrow val
                           evaluate (e) = eval (e, \lambda v. v)
```

Figure 2: A continuation-passing evaluator for arithmetic expressions

- 2.1. The starting point: an evaluator in direct style. We define an evaluation function for arithmetic expressions by structural induction on their syntax. The resulting directstyle evaluator is displayed in Figure 1.
- 2.2. CPS transformation. We CPS-transform the evaluator by naming intermediate results, sequentializing their computation, and introducing an extra functional parameter, the continuation [29, 68, 76]. The resulting continuation-passing evaluator is displayed in Figure 2.
- 2.3. **Defunctionalization.** The generalization of closure conversion [60] to defunctionalization is due to Reynolds [71]. The goal is to represent a functional value with a first-order data structure. The means is to partition the function space into a first-order sum where each summand corresponds to a lambda-abstraction in the program. In a defunctionalized program, function introduction is thus represented as an injection, and function elimination as a call to a first-order apply function implementing a case dispatch. In an ML-like functional language, sums are represented as data types, injections as data-type constructors, and apply functions are defined by case over the corresponding data types [30].

Here, we defunctionalize the continuation of the continuation-passing evaluator in Figure 2. We thus need to define a first-order algebraic data type and its apply function. To this end, we enumerate the lambda-abstractions that give rise to the inhabitants of this function space; there are three: the initial continuation in evaluate and the two continuations in eval. The initial continuation is closed, and therefore the corresponding algebraic constructor is nullary. The two other continuations have two free variables, and therefore

```
• Values: \operatorname{val} \ni v := m
• Defunctionalized continuations: \operatorname{cont} \ni k := [\ ] \mid \operatorname{ADD}_2(e, k) \mid \operatorname{ADD}_1(v, k)
• Functions eval : \operatorname{exp} \times \operatorname{cont} \to \operatorname{val} and \operatorname{apply\_cont} : \operatorname{cont} \times \operatorname{val} \to \operatorname{val}:

\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{eval} (\lceil m \rceil, k) &=& \operatorname{apply\_cont} (k, m) \\ \operatorname{eval} (e_1 + e_2, k) &=& \operatorname{eval} (e_1, \operatorname{ADD}_2(e_2, k)) \end{array}
\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{apply\_cont} ([\ ], v) &=& v \\ \operatorname{apply\_cont} (\operatorname{ADD}_2(e_2, k), v_1) &=& \operatorname{eval} (e_2, \operatorname{ADD}_1(v_1, k)) \\ \operatorname{apply\_cont} (\operatorname{ADD}_1(m_1, k), m_2) &=& \operatorname{apply\_cont} (k, m_1 + m_2) \end{array}
• Main function: \operatorname{evaluate} : \operatorname{exp} \to \operatorname{val}
\operatorname{evaluate} (e) &=& \operatorname{eval} (e, [\ ])
```

Figure 3: A defunctionalized continuation-passing evaluator for arithmetic expressions

the corresponding constructors are binary. As for the apply function, it interprets the algebraic constructors. The resulting defunctionalized evaluator is displayed in Figure 3.

2.4. Abstract machines as defunctionalized continuation-passing programs. Elsewhere [1,26], we have observed that a defunctionalized continuation-passing program implements an abstract machine: each configuration is the name of a function together with its arguments, and each function clause represents a transition. (As a corollary, we have also observed that the defunctionalized continuation of an evaluator forms what is known as an 'evaluation context' [25,30,39].)

Indeed Plotkin's Indifference Theorem [68] states that continuation-passing programs are independent of their evaluation order. In Reynolds's words [71], all the subterms in applications are 'trivial'; and in Moggi's words [64], these subterms are values and not computations. Furthermore, continuation-passing programs are tail recursive [76]. Therefore, since in a continuation-passing program all calls are tail calls and all subcomputations are elementary, a defunctionalized continuation-passing program implements a transition system [69], i.e., an abstract machine.

We thus reformat Figure 3 into Figure 4. The correctness of the abstract machine with respect to the initial evaluator follows from the correctness of CPS transformation and of defunctionalization.

- 2.5. From value-based abstract machine to term-based abstract machine. We observe that the domain of expressible values in Figure 4 can be embedded in the syntactic domain of expressions. We therefore adapt the abstract machine to work on terms rather than on values. The result is displayed in Figure 5; it is a syntactic theory [36].
- 2.6. From term-based abstract machine to reduction semantics. The method of deriving a reduction semantics from an abstract machine was introduced by Felleisen and Friedman [39] to give a reduction semantics for control operators. Let us demonstrate it.

We analyze the transitions of the abstract machine in Figure 5. The second component of *eval*-transitions—the stack representing "the rest of the computation"—has already been identified as the evaluation context of the currently processed expression. We thus read a

- Values: v ::= m
- Evaluation contexts:  $C ::= [] \mid \mathsf{ADD}_2(e, C) \mid \mathsf{ADD}_1(v, C)$
- Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} e & \Rightarrow & \langle e, \, [ \, ] \rangle_{eval} \\ & \langle \ulcorner m \urcorner, \, C \rangle_{eval} & \Rightarrow & \langle C, \, m \rangle_{cont} \\ & \langle e_1 + e_2, \, C \rangle_{eval} & \Rightarrow & \langle e_1, \, \mathsf{ADD}_2 \, (e_2, \, C) \rangle_{eval} \\ & \langle \mathsf{ADD}_2 \, (e_2, \, C), \, v_1 \rangle_{cont} & \Rightarrow & \langle e_2, \, \mathsf{ADD}_1 \, (v_1, \, C) \rangle_{eval} \\ & \langle \mathsf{ADD}_1 \, (m_1, \, C), \, m_2 \rangle_{cont} & \Rightarrow & \langle C, \, m_1 + m_2 \rangle_{cont} \\ & \langle [ \, ], \, v \rangle_{cont} & \Rightarrow & v \end{array}$$

Figure 4: A value-based abstract machine for evaluating arithmetic expressions

- Expressions and values:  $e := v \mid e_1 + e_2$  $v := \lceil m \rceil$
- Evaluation contexts:  $C ::= [] \mid \mathsf{ADD}_2(e, C) \mid \mathsf{ADD}_1(v, C)$
- Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition:

Figure 5: A term-based abstract machine for processing arithmetic expressions

configuration  $\langle e, C \rangle_{eval}$  as a decomposition of some expression into a sub-expression e and an evaluation context C.

Next, we identify the reduction and decomposition rules in the transitions of the machine. Since a configuration can be read as a decomposition, we compare the left-hand side and the right-hand side of each transition. If they represent the same expression, then the given transition defines a decomposition (i.e., it searches for the next redex according to some evaluation strategy); otherwise we have found a redex. Moreover, reading the decomposition rules from right to left defines a 'plug' function that reconstructs an expression from its decomposition.

Here the decomposition function as read off the abstract machine is total. In general, however, it may be undefined for stuck terms; one can then extend it straightforwardly into a total function that decomposes a term into a context and a potential redex, i.e., an actual redex (as read off the machine), or a stuck redex.

In this simple example there is only one reduction rule. This rule performs the addition of natural numbers:

(add) 
$$C \lceil m_1 \rceil + \lceil m_2 \rceil \rightarrow C \lceil m_1 + m_2 \rceil$$

The remaining transitions decompose an expression according to the left-to-right strategy.

2.7. From reduction semantics to term-based abstract machine. In Section 2.6, we have constructed the reduction semantics corresponding to the abstract machine of Figure 5, as pioneered by Felleisen and Friedman [38, 39]. Over the last few years [15, 16, 24, 31], Biernacka, Danvy, and Nielsen have studied the converse transformation and systematized the construction of an abstract machine from a reduction semantics. The main idea is to short-cut the decompose-contract-plug loop, in the definition of evaluation as the transitive closure of one-step reduction, into a refocus-contract loop. The refocus function is constructed as an efficient (i.e., deforested) composition of plug and decompose that maps a term and a context either to a value or to a redex and a context. The result is a 'pre-abstract machine' computing the transitive closure of the refocus function. This pre-abstract machine can then be simplified into an eval/apply abstract machine.

It is simple to verify that using refocusing, one can go from the reduction semantics of Section 2.6 to the eval/apply abstract machine of Figure 5.

2.8. **Summary and conclusion.** We have demonstrated how to derive an abstract machine out of an evaluator, and how to construct the corresponding reduction semantics out of this abstract machine. In Section 4, we apply this derivation and this construction to the first level of the CPS hierarchy, and in Section 5, we apply them to an arbitrary level of the CPS hierarchy. But first, let us illustrate how to program with delimited continuations.

## 3. Programming with delimited continuations

We present two examples of programming with delimited continuations. Given a list xs and a predicate p, we want

- (1) to find the first prefix of xs whose last element satisfies p, and
- (2) to find all such prefixes of xs.

For example, given the predicate  $\lambda m.m > 2$  and the list [0,3,1,4,2,5], the first prefix is [0,3] and the list of all the prefixes is [[0,3],[0,3,1,4],[0,3,1,4,2,5]].

In Section 3.1, we start with a simple solution that uses a first-order accumulator. This simple solution is in defunctionalized form. In Section 3.2, we present its higher-order counterpart, which uses a functional accumulator. This functional accumulator acts as a delimited continuation. In Section 3.3, we present its direct-style counterpart (which uses shift and reset) and in Section 3.4, we present its continuation-passing counterpart (which uses two layers of continuations). In Section 3.5, we introduce the CPS hierarchy informally. We then mention a typing issue in Section 3.6 and review related work in Section 3.7.

- 3.1. Finding prefixes by accumulating lists. A simple solution is to accumulate the prefix of the given list in reverse order while traversing this list and testing each of its elements:
  - if no element satisfies the predicate, there is no prefix and the result is the empty list:
  - otherwise, the prefix is the reverse of the accumulator.

```
find\_first\_prefix\_a\left(p,\,xs\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} letrec\ visit\left(nil,\,a\right)
                                                    = nil
                                                  | visit(x :: xs, a)
                                                   = let a' = x :: a
                                                       in if px
                                                           then reverse (a', nil)
                                                           else visit (xs, a')
                                             and reverse (nil, xs)
                                                   = xs
                                                  | reverse(x :: a, xs) |
                                                    = reverse(a, x :: xs)
                                           in visit (xs, nil)
\mathit{find\_all\_prefixes\_a}\left(p,\,\mathit{xs}\right) \ \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \\
                                           letrec visit (nil, a)
                                                    = nil
                                                  | visit(x :: xs, a)|
                                                   = let a' = x :: a
                                                       in if px
                                                           then (reverse\ (a',\ nil)) :: (visit\ (xs,\ a'))
                                                           else visit (xs, a')
                                             and reverse (nil, xs)
                                                  \mid reverse(x::a,xs)
                                                    = reverse(a, x :: xs)
                                           in visit (xs, nil)
```

To find the first prefix, one stops as soon as a satisfactory list element is found. To list all the prefixes, one continues the traversal, adding the current prefix to the list of the remaining prefixes.

We observe that the two solutions are in defunctionalized form [30,71]: the accumulator has the data type of a defunctionalized function and reverse is its apply function. We present its higher-order counterpart next [54].

- 3.2. Finding prefixes by accumulating list constructors. Instead of accumulating the prefix in reverse order while traversing the given list, we accumulate a function constructing the prefix:
  - if no element satisfies the predicate, the result is the empty list;
  - otherwise, we apply the functional accumulator to construct the prefix.

```
\mathit{find\_first\_prefix\_c_1}\left(p,\,\mathit{xs}\right) \ \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \\
                                                letrec\ visit\ (nil,\ k)
                                                          = nil
                                                        | visit(x :: xs, k)|
                                                          = let k' = \lambda vs.k (x :: vs)
                                                             in if px
                                                                 then k' nil
                                                                 else visit (xs, k')
                                                 in visit (xs, \lambda vs.vs)
find\_all\_prefixes\_c_1(p, xs) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} letrec\ visit(nil, k)
                                                          = nil
                                                        | visit(x :: xs, k)
                                                          = let k' = \lambda vs.k (x :: vs)
                                                             in if px
                                                                 then (k' \ nil) :: (visit (xs, k'))
                                                                 else visit (xs, k')
                                                 in visit (xs, \lambda vs.vs)
```

To find the first prefix, one applies the functional accumulator as soon as a satisfactory list element is found. To list all such prefixes, one continues the traversal, adding the current prefix to the list of the remaining prefixes.

Defunctionalizing these two definitions yields the two definitions of Section 3.1.

The functional accumulator is a delimited continuation:

- In  $find\_first\_prefix\_c_1$ , visit is written in CPS since all calls are tail calls and all sub-computations are elementary. The continuation is initialized in the initial call to visit, discarded in the base case, extended in the induction case, and used if a satisfactory prefix is found.
- In  $find\_all\_prefixes\_c_1$ , visit is almost written in CPS except that the continuation is composed if a satisfactory prefix is found: it is used twice—once where it is applied to the empty list to construct a prefix, and once in the visit of the rest of the list to construct a list of prefixes; this prefix is then prepended to this list of prefixes.

These continuation-based programming patterns (initializing a continuation, not using it, or using it more than once as if it were a composable function) have motivated the control operators shift and reset [28,29]. Using them, in the next section, we write *visit* in direct style.

3.3. Finding prefixes in direct style. The two following local functions are the direct style counterpart of the two local functions in Section 3.2:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \mathit{find\_first\_prefix\_c_0}\left(p,\,xs\right) & \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} & \mathit{letrec\ visit\ nil} \\ & & = \mathcal{S}k.\mathit{nil} \\ & & |\,\mathit{visit}\left(x :: xs\right) \\ & & = x :: (\mathit{if\ p\ x\ then\ nil\ else\ visit\ xs}) \\ & & \mathit{in\ \langle visit\ xs\rangle} \end{array}
```

```
find\_all\_prefixes\_c_0(p, xs) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} letrec \ visit \ nil
                                                              = Sk.nil
                                                            | visit(x :: xs)|
                                                              = x :: if p x
                                                                        then Sk'.\langle k' \ nil \rangle :: \langle k' \ (visit \ xs) \rangle
                                                                        else visit xs
                                                    in (visit xs)
```

In both cases, visit is in direct style, i.e., it is not passed any continuation. The initial calls to visit are enclosed in the control delimiter reset (noted  $\langle \cdot \rangle$  for conciseness). In the base cases, the current (delimited) continuation is captured with the control operator shift (noted  $\mathcal{S}$ ), which has the effect of emptying the (delimited) context; this captured continuation is bound to an identifier k, which is not used; nil is then returned in the emptied context. In the induction case of find\_all\_prefixes\_ $c_0$ , if the predicate is satisfied, visit captures the current continuation and applies it twice—once to the empty list to construct a prefix, and once to the result of visiting the rest of the list to construct a list of prefixes; this prefix is then prepended to the list of prefixes.

CPS-transforming these two local functions yields the two definitions of Section 3.2 [29].

3.4. Finding prefixes in continuation-passing style. The two following local functions are the continuation-passing counterpart of the two local functions in Section 3.2:

```
find\_first\_prefix\_c_2(p, xs) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} letrec \ visit(nil, k_1, k_2)
                                                           = k_2 nil
                                                         | visit (x :: xs, k_1, k_2)
= let k'_1 = \lambda(vs, k'_2).k_1 (x :: vs, k'_2)
                                                                    then k'_1 (nil, k_2)
                                                                    else visit (xs, k'_1, k_2)
                                                 in visit (xs, \lambda(vs, k_2).k_2 vs, \lambda vs.vs)
```

```
find\_all\_prefixes\_c_2(p, xs) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} letrec\ visit(nil, k_1, k_2)
                                                           = k_2 nil
                                                        | visit (x :: xs, k_1, k_2)
= let k'_1 = \lambda(vs, k'_2).k_1 (x :: vs, k'_2)
                                                                    then k'_1 (nil, \lambda vs.visit (xs, k'_1, \lambda vss.k_2 (vs :: vss)))
                                                                    else visit (xs, k'_1, k_2)
                                                 in visit (xs, \lambda(vs, k_2).k_2 vs, \lambda vss.vss)
```

CPS-transforming the two local functions of Section 3.2 adds another layer of continuations and restores the syntactic characterization of all calls being tail calls and all subcomputations being elementary.

3.5. The CPS hierarchy. If  $k_2$  were used non-tail recursively in a variant of the examples of Section 3.4, we could CPS-transform the definitions one more time, adding one more layer of continuations and restoring the syntactic characterization of all calls being tail calls and all sub-computations being elementary. We could also map this definition back to direct style, eliminating  $k_2$  but accessing it with shift. If the result were mapped back to direct style one more time,  $k_2$  would then be accessed with a new control operator, shift<sub>2</sub>, and  $k_1$  would be accessed with shift (or more precisely with shift<sub>1</sub>).

All in all, successive CPS-transformations induce a CPS hierarchy [28,32], and abstracting control up to each successive layer is achieved with successive pairs of control operators shift and reset—reset to initialize the continuation up to a level, and shift to capture a delimited continuation up to this level. Each pair of control operators is indexed by the corresponding level in the hierarchy. Applying a captured continuation packages all the current layers on the next layer and restores the captured layers. When a captured continuation completes, the packaged layers are put back into place and the computation proceeds. (This informal description is made precise in Section 4.)

3.6. A note about typing. The type of  $find\_all\_prefixes\_c_1$ , in Section 3.2, is

$$(\alpha \to bool) \times \alpha \ list \to \alpha \ list \ list$$

and the type of its local function *visit* is

$$\alpha \ list \times (\alpha \ list \rightarrow \alpha \ list) \rightarrow \alpha \ list \ list.$$

In this example, the co-domain of the continuation is not the same as the co-domain of visit.

Thus  $find\_all\_prefixes\_c_0$  provides a simple and meaningful example where Filinski's typing of shift [42] does not fit, since it must be used at type

$$((\beta \to ans) \to ans) \to \beta$$

for a given type ans, i.e., the answer type of the continuation and the type of the computation must be the same. In other words, control effects are not allowed to change the types of the contexts. Due to a similar restriction on the type of shift, the example does not fit either in Murthy's pseudo-classical type system for the CPS hierarchy [66] and in Wadler's most general monadic type system [80, Section 3.4]. It however fits in Danvy and Filinski's original type system [27] which Ariola, Herbelin, and Sabry have recently embedded in classical subtractive logic [5].

- 3.7. **Related work.** The example considered in this section builds on the simpler function that unconditionally lists the successive prefixes of a given list. This simpler function is a traditional example of delimited continuations [21,73]:
  - In the Lisp Pointers [21], Danvy presents three versions of this function: a typed continuation-passing version (corresponding to Section 3.2), one with delimited control (corresponding to Section 3.3), and one in assembly language.
  - In his PhD thesis [73, Section 6.3], Sitaram presents two versions of this function: one with an accumulator (corresponding to Section 3.1) and one with delimited control (corresponding to Section 3.3).

In Section 3.2, we have shown that the continuation-passing version mediates the version with an accumulator and the version with delimited control since defunctionalizing the continuation-passing version yields one and mapping it back to direct style yields the other.

3.8. Summary and conclusion. We have illustrated delimited continuations with the classic example of finding list prefixes, using CPS as a guideline. Direct-style programs using shift and reset can be CPS-transformed into continuation-passing programs where some calls may not be tail calls and some sub-computations may not be elementary. One more CPS transformation establishes this syntactic property with a second layer of continuations.

- Terms: term  $\ni t ::= \lceil m \rceil \mid x \mid \lambda x.t \mid t_0 t_1 \mid succ t \mid \langle t \rangle \mid Sk.t$
- Values:  $val \ni v := m \mid f$
- Answers, meta-continuations, continuations and functions:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} & \text{ans} & = & \text{val} \\ k_2 \in \mathsf{cont}_2 & = & \text{val} \to \mathsf{ans} \\ k_1 \in \mathsf{cont}_1 & = & \text{val} \times \mathsf{cont}_2 \to \mathsf{ans} \\ f \in \mathsf{fun} & = & \text{val} \times \mathsf{cont}_1 \times \mathsf{cont}_2 \to \mathsf{ans} \end{array}$$

- Initial continuation and meta-continuation:  $\theta_1 = \lambda(v, k_2). k_2 v$  $\theta_2 = \lambda v. v$
- $\bullet \ \, \text{Environments:} \ \, \operatorname{env} \ni e ::= e_{empty} \ \, | \ \, e[x \mapsto v]$
- ullet Evaluation function: eval : term imes env imes cont $_1$  imes cont $_2$  o ans

```
\begin{array}{lll} \operatorname{eval}\left(\lceil m \rceil,\,e,\,k_1,\,k_2\right) &=& k_1\;(m,\,k_2)\\ &= \operatorname{eval}\left(x,\,e,\,k_1,\,k_2\right) &=& k_1\;(e(x),\,k_2)\\ &= \operatorname{eval}\left(\lambda x.t,\,e,\,k_1,\,k_2\right) &=& k_1\;(\lambda(v,\,k_1',\,k_2').\operatorname{eval}\left(t,\,e[x\mapsto v],\,k_1',\,k_2'\right),\,k_2)\\ &= \operatorname{eval}\left(t_0\,t_1,\,e,\,k_1,\,k_2\right) &=& \operatorname{eval}\left(t_0,\,e,\,\lambda(f,\,k_2').\operatorname{eval}\left(t_1,\,e,\,\lambda(v,\,k_2'').\,f\;(v,\,k_1,\,k_2''),\,k_2\right)\\ &= \operatorname{eval}\left(succ\;t,\,e,\,k_1,\,k_2\right) &=& \operatorname{eval}\left(t,\,e,\,\lambda(m,\,k_2').\,k_1\;(m+1,\,k_2'),\,k_2\right)\\ &= \operatorname{eval}\left(\langle t\rangle,\,e,\,k_1,\,k_2\right) &=& \operatorname{eval}\left(t,\,e,\,\theta_1,\,\lambda v.\,k_1\;(v,\,k_2)\right)\\ &= \operatorname{eval}\left(\mathcal{S}k.t,\,e,\,k_1,\,k_2\right) &=& \operatorname{eval}\left(t,\,e[k\mapsto c],\,\theta_1,\,k_2\right)\\ &= \operatorname{eval}\left(t,\,e[k\mapsto c],\,\theta_1,\,k_2\right)\\ &=
```

Figure 6: An environment-based evaluator for the first level of the CPS hierarchy

Further CPS transformations provide the extra layers of continuation that are characteristic of the CPS hierarchy.

In the next section, we specify the  $\lambda$ -calculus extended with shift and reset.

### 4. From evaluator to reduction semantics for delimited continuations

We derive a reduction semantics for the call-by-value  $\lambda$ -calculus extended with shift and reset, using the method demonstrated in Section 2. First, we transform an evaluator into an environment-based abstract machine. Then we eliminate the environment from this abstract machine, making it substitution-based. Finally, we read all the components of a reduction semantics off the substitution-based abstract machine.

Terms consist of integer literals, variables,  $\lambda$ -abstractions, function applications, applications of the successor function, reset expressions, and shift expressions:

$$t ::= \lceil m \rceil \mid x \mid \lambda x.t \mid t_0 t_1 \mid succ t \mid \langle t \rangle \mid \mathcal{S}k.t$$

Programs are closed terms.

This source language is a subset of the language used in the examples of Section 3. Adding the remaining constructs is a straightforward exercise and does not contribute to our point here.

4.1. An environment-based evaluator. Figure 6 displays an evaluator for the language of the first level of the CPS hierarchy. This evaluation function represents the original call-by-value semantics of the  $\lambda$ -calculus with shift and reset [28], augmented with integer literals and applications of the successor function. It is defined by structural induction over the syntax of terms, and it makes use of an environment e, a continuation  $k_1$ , and a meta-continuation  $k_2$ .

The evaluation of a terminating program that does not get stuck (i.e., a program where no ill-formed applications occur in the course of evaluation) yields either an integer, a function representing a  $\lambda$ -abstraction, or a captured continuation. Both evaluate and eval are partial functions to account for non-terminating or stuck programs. The environment stores previously computed values of the free variables of the term under evaluation.

The meta-continuation intervenes to interpret reset expressions and to apply captured continuations. Otherwise, it is passively threaded through the evaluation of literals, variables,  $\lambda$ -abstractions, function applications, and applications of the successor function. (If it were not for shift and reset, and if eval were curried,  $k_2$  could be eta-reduced and the evaluator would be in ordinary continuation-passing style.)

The reset control operator is used to delimit control. A reset expression  $\langle t \rangle$  is interpreted by evaluating t with the initial continuation and a meta-continuation on which the current continuation has been "pushed." (Indeed, and as will be shown in Section 4.2, defunctionalizing the meta-continuation yields the data type of a stack [30].)

The shift control operator is used to abstract (delimited) control. A shift expression Sk.t is interpreted by capturing the current continuation, binding it to k, and evaluating t in an environment extended with k and with a continuation reset to the initial continuation. Applying a captured continuation is achieved by "pushing" the current continuation on the meta-continuation and applying the captured continuation to the new meta-continuation. Resuming a continuation is achieved by reactivating the "pushed" continuation with the corresponding meta-continuation.

4.2. **An environment-based abstract machine.** The evaluator displayed in Figure 6 is already in continuation-passing style. Therefore, we only need to defunctionalize its expressible values and its continuations to obtain an abstract machine. This abstract machine is displayed in Figure 7.

The abstract machine consists of three sets of transitions: eval for interpreting terms,  $cont_1$  for interpreting the defunctionalized continuations (i.e., the evaluation contexts), and  $cont_2$  for interpreting the defunctionalized meta-continuations (i.e., the meta-contexts). The set of possible values includes integers, closures and captured contexts. In the original

$$C_1 ::= [] | C_1[[](t,e)] | C_1[succ []] | C_1[v []]$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The grammar of evaluation contexts in Figure 7 is isomorphic to the grammar of evaluation contexts in the standard inside-out notation:

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ To build on Peyton Jones's terminology [62], this abstract machine is therefore in 'eval/apply/meta-apply' form.

evaluator, the latter two were represented as higher-order functions, but defunctionalizing expressible values of the evaluator has led them to be distinguished.

This eval/apply/meta-apply abstract machine is an extension of the CEK machine [39], which is an eval/apply machine, with the meta-context  $C_2$  and its two transitions, and the two transitions for shift and reset.  $C_2$  intervenes to process reset expressions and to apply captured continuations. Otherwise, it is passively threaded through the processing of literals, variables,  $\lambda$ -abstractions, function applications, and applications of the successor function. (If it were not for shift and reset,  $C_2$  and its transitions could be omitted and the abstract machine would reduce to the CEK machine.)

Given an environment e, a context  $C_1$ , and a meta-context  $C_2$ , a reset expression  $\langle t \rangle$  is processed by evaluating t with the same environment e, the empty context  $\bullet$ , and a meta-context where  $C_1$  has been pushed on  $C_2$ .

Given an environment e, a context  $C_1$ , and a meta-context  $C_2$ , a shift expression  $\mathcal{S}k.t$  is processed by evaluating t with an extension of e where k denotes  $C_1$ , the empty context [], and a meta-context  $C_2$ . Applying a captured context  $C'_1$  is achieved by pushing the current context  $C_1$  on the current meta-context  $C_2$  and continuing with  $C'_1$ . Resuming a context  $C_1$  is achieved by popping it off the meta-context  $C_2 \cdot C_1$  and continuing with  $C_1$ .

The correctness of the abstract machine with respect to the evaluator is a consequence of the correctness of defunctionalization. In order to express it formally, we define a partial function  $eval^e$  mapping a term t to a value v whenever the environment-based machine, started with t, stops with v. The following theorem states this correctness by relating observable results:

**Theorem 1.** For any program t and any integer value m, evaluate (t) = m if and only if eval<sup>e</sup> (t) = m.

*Proof.* The theorem follows directly from the correctness of defunctionalization [10,67].  $\square$ 

The environment-based abstract machine can serve both as a foundation for implementing functional languages with control operators for delimited continuations and as a stepping stone in theoretical studies of shift and reset. In the rest of this section, we use it to construct a reduction semantics of shift and reset.

4.3. A substitution-based abstract machine. The environment-based abstract machine of Figure 7, on which we want to base our development, makes a distinction between terms and values. Since a reduction semantics is specified by purely syntactic operations (it gives meaning to terms by specifying their rewriting strategy and an appropriate notion of reduction, and is indeed also referred to as 'syntactic theory'), we need to embed the domain of values back into the syntax. To this end we transform the environment-based abstract machine into the substitution-based abstract machine displayed in Figure 8. The transformation is standard, except that we also need to embed evaluation contexts in the syntax; hence the substitution-based machine operates on terms where "quoted" (in the sense of Lisp) contexts can occur. (If it were not for shift and reset,  $C_2$  and its transitions could be omitted and the abstract machine would reduce to the CK machine [39].)

We write  $t\{v/x\}$  to denote the result of the usual capture-avoiding substitution of the value v for x in t.

Formally, the relationship between the two machines is expressed with the following simulation theorem, where evaluation with the substitution-based abstract machine is captured by the partial function eval<sup>s</sup>, defined analogously to eval<sup>e</sup>.

- Terms:  $t ::= \lceil m \rceil \mid x \mid \lambda x.t \mid t_0 t_1 \mid succ t \mid \langle t \rangle \mid Sk.t$
- Values (integers, closures, and captured continuations):  $v := m \mid [x, t, e] \mid C_1$
- Environments:  $e := e_{empty} \mid e[x \mapsto v]$
- Evaluation contexts:  $C_1 ::= [] \mid \mathsf{ARG}((t,e),C_1) \mid \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1) \mid \mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1)$
- Meta-contexts:  $C_2 := \bullet \mid C_2 \cdot C_1$
- Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition:

$$t \Rightarrow \langle t, e_{empty}, [\,], \bullet \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle \ulcorner m \urcorner, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, m, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

$$\langle x, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, e(x), C_2 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

$$\langle \lambda x.t, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, [x, t, e], C_2 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

$$\langle t_0 t_1, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t_0, e, \mathsf{ARG}((t_1, e), C_1), C_2 \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle succ \ t, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t, e, \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1), C_2 \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle \{t\}, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t, e, [], C_2 \cdot C_1 \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle Sk.t, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t, e[k \mapsto C_1], [], C_2 \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle [], v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle C_2, v \rangle_{cont_2}$$

$$\langle \mathsf{ARG}((t, e), C_1), v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle t, e, \mathsf{FUN}(v, C_1), C_2 \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1), m, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle t, e, \mathsf{FUN}(v, C_1), C_2 \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle \mathsf{FUN}([x, t, e], C_1), v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle t, e[x \mapsto v], C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval}$$

$$\langle \mathsf{FUN}(C_1', C_1), v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle C_1', v, C_2 \cdot C_1 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

$$\langle \mathsf{C}_2 \cdot C_1, v \rangle_{cont_2} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

$$\langle \mathsf{C}_1, v \rangle_{cont_2} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

$$\langle \mathsf{C}_2 \cdot C_1, v \rangle_{cont_2} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

Figure 7: An environment-based abstract machine for the first level of the CPS hierarchy

**Theorem 2.** For any program t, either both  $\operatorname{eval}^{\mathsf{s}}(t)$  and  $\operatorname{eval}^{\mathsf{e}}(t)$  are undefined, or there exist values v, v' such that  $\operatorname{eval}^{\mathsf{s}}(t) = v$ ,  $\operatorname{eval}^{\mathsf{e}}(t) = v'$  and  $\mathcal{T}(v') = v$ . The function  $\mathcal{T}$  relates a semantic value with its syntactic representation and is defined as follows:<sup>3</sup>

 $<sup>{}^{3}\</sup>mathcal{T}$  is a generalization of Plotkin's function Real [68].

- Terms and values:  $t := v \mid x \mid t_0 t_1 \mid succ t \mid \langle t \rangle \mid Sk.t$  $v := \lceil m \rceil \mid \lambda x.t \mid C_1$
- Evaluation contexts:  $C_1 ::= [] \mid \mathsf{ARG}(t, C_1) \mid \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1) \mid \mathsf{FUN}(v, C_1)$
- Meta-contexts:  $C_2 := \bullet \mid C_2 \cdot C_1$
- Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition:

Figure 8: A substitution-based abstract machine for the first level of the CPS hierarchy

*Proof.* We extend the translation function  $\mathcal{T}$  to meta-contexts and configurations, in the expected way, e.g.,

$$\mathcal{T}(\langle t, e, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval}) = \langle t\{\mathcal{T}(e(x_1))/x_1\} \dots \{\mathcal{T}(e(x_n))/x_n\}, \mathcal{T}(C_1), \mathcal{T}(C_2) \rangle_{eval}$$
  
where  $FV(t) = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ 

Then it is straightforward to show that the two abstract machines operate in lock step with respect to the translation. Hence, for any program t, both machines diverge or they both stop (after the same number of transitions) with the values v and  $\mathcal{T}(v)$ , respectively.

We now proceed to analyze the transitions of the machine displayed in Figure 8. We can think of a configuration  $\langle t, C_1, C_2 \rangle_{eval}$  as the following decomposition of the initial term into a meta-context  $C_2$ , a context  $C_1$ , and an intermediate term t:

$$C_2 \# C_1[t]$$

where # separates the context and the meta-context. Each transition performs either a reduction, or a decomposition in search of the next redex. Let us recall that a decomposition is performed when both sides of a transition are partitions of the same term; in that case, depending on the structure of the decomposition  $C_2 \# C_1[t]$ , a subpart of the term is chosen

to be evaluated next, and the contexts are updated accordingly. We also observe that evaltransitions follow the structure of t,  $cont_1$ -transitions follow the structure of  $C_1$  when the term has been reduced to a value, and  $cont_2$ -transitions follow the structure of  $C_2$  when a value in the empty context has been reached.

Next we specify all the components of the reduction semantics based on the analysis of the abstract machine.

- 4.4. A reduction semantics. A reduction semantics provides a reduction relation on expressions by defining values, evaluation contexts, and redexes [36, 38, 39, 82]. In the present case.
  - the values are already specified in the (substitution-based) abstract machine:

$$v ::= \lceil m \rceil \mid \lambda x.t \mid C_1$$

• the evaluation contexts and meta-contexts are already specified in the abstract machine, as the data-type part of defunctionalized continuations;

$$\begin{split} C_1 &::= [ \ ] \ \mid \ \mathsf{ARG}(t,C_1) \ \mid \ \mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1) \ \mid \ \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1) \\ C_2 &::= \bullet \ \mid \ C_2 \cdot C_1 \end{split}$$

• we can read the redexes off the transitions of the abstract machine:

$$r ::= succ \lceil m \rceil \mid (\lambda x.t) v \mid \mathcal{S}k.t \mid C_1' v \mid \langle v \rangle$$

Based on the distinction between decomposition and reduction, we single out the following reduction rules from the transitions of the machine:

$$\begin{array}{llll} (\delta) & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[succ \ \ulcorner m \urcorner] & \to & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[\ulcorner m+1 \urcorner] \\ (\beta_{\lambda}) & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[(\lambda x.t) \ v] & \to & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[t\{v/x\}] \\ (\mathcal{S}_{\lambda}) & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[\mathcal{S}k.t] & \to & C_2 \ \# \ [t\{C_1/k\}] \\ (\beta_{ctx}) & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[C_1' \ v] & \to & C_2 \cdot C_1 \ \# \ C_1'[v] \\ (\text{Reset}) & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[\langle v \rangle] & \to & C_2 \ \# \ C_1[v] \end{array}$$

 $(\beta_{\lambda})$  is the usual call-by-value  $\beta$ -reduction; we have renamed it to indicate that the applied term is a  $\lambda$ -abstraction, since we can also apply a captured context, as in  $(\beta_{ctx})$ .  $(S_{\lambda})$  is plausibly symmetric to  $(\beta_{\lambda})$  — it can be seen as an application of the abstraction  $\lambda k.t$  to the current context. Moreover,  $(\beta_{ctx})$  can be seen as performing both a reduction and a decomposition: it is a reduction because an application of a context with a hole to a value is reduced to the value plugged into the hole; and it is a decomposition because it changes the meta-context, as if the application were enclosed in a reset. Finally, (Reset) makes it possible to pass the boundary of a context when the term inside this context has been reduced to a value.

The  $\beta_{ctx}$ -rule and the  $S_{\lambda}$ -rule give a justification for representing a captured context  $C_1$  as a term  $\lambda x. \langle C_1[x] \rangle$ , as found in other studies of shift and reset [55, 56, 66]. In particular, the need for delimiting the captured context is a consequence of the  $\beta_{ctx}$ -rule.

Finally, we can read the decomposition function off the transitions of the abstract machine:

```
\begin{array}{rcl} decompose(t) & = & decompose'\left(t,\,[\,\,],\,\bullet\right)\\ decompose'\left(t_0\,t_1,\,C_1,\,C_2\right) & = & decompose'\left(t_0,\,\mathsf{ARG}(t_1,C_1),\,C_2\right)\\ decompose'\left(succ\,t,\,C_1,\,C_2\right) & = & decompose'\left(t,\,\mathsf{SUCC}(C_1),\,C_2\right)\\ decompose'\left(\langle t\rangle,\,C_1,\,C_2\right) & = & decompose'\left(t,\,[\,\,],\,C_2\cdot C_1\right)\\ decompose'\left(v,\,\mathsf{ARG}(t,C_1),\,C_2\right) & = & decompose'\left(t,\,\mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1),\,C_2\right) \end{array}
```

In the remaining cases either a value or a redex has been found:

An inverse of the *decompose* function, traditionally called *plug*, reconstructs a term from its decomposition:

```
\begin{array}{rcl} plug\left( \bullet \ \# \left[ t \right] \right) & = & t \\ plug\left( C_2 \cdot C_1 \ \# \left[ t \right] \right) & = & plug\left( C_2 \ \# \left. C_1 [\langle t \rangle] \right) \\ plug\left( C_2 \ \# \left( \mathsf{ARG}(t', C_1))[t] \right) & = & plug\left( C_2 \ \# \left. C_1 [t \ t'] \right) \\ plug\left( C_2 \ \# \left( \mathsf{FUN}(v, C_1))[t] \right) & = & plug\left( C_2 \ \# \left. C_1 [v \ t] \right) \\ plug\left( C_2 \ \# \left( \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1) \right)[t] \right) & = & plug\left( C_2 \ \# \left. C_1 [succ \ t] \right) \\ \end{array}
```

In order to talk about unique decomposition, we need to define the set of potential redexes (i.e., the disjoint union of actual redexes and stuck redexes). The grammar of potential redexes reads as follows:

```
p ::= succ \ v \mid v_0 \ v_1 \mid \mathcal{S}k.t \mid \langle v \rangle
```

**Lemma 1** (Unique decomposition). A program t is either a value v or there exist a unique context  $C_1$ , a unique meta-context  $C_2$  and a potential redex p such that  $t = plug(C_2 \# C_1[p])$ . In the former case  $decompose(t) = \bullet \# [v]$  and in the latter case either  $decompose(t) = C_2 \# C_1[p]$  if p is an actual redex, or decompose(t) is undefined.

*Proof.* The first part follows by induction on the structure of t. The second part follows from the equation  $decompose(plug(C_2 \# C_1[r])) = C_2 \# C_1[r]$  which holds for all  $C_2$ ,  $C_1$  and r.

It is evident that evaluating a program either using the derived reduction rules or using the substitution-based abstract machine yields the same result.

**Theorem 3.** For any program t and any value v,  $eval^s(t) = v$  if and only if  $t \to^* v$ , where  $\to^*$  is the reflexive, transitive closure of the one-step reduction defined by the relation  $\to$ .

*Proof.* When evaluating with the abstract machine, each contraction is followed by decomposing the contractum in the current context and meta-context. When evaluating with the reduction rules, however, each contraction is followed by plugging the contractum and decomposing the resulting term. Therefore, the theorem follows from the equation

$$\mathit{decompose}'\left(t,\,C_{1},\,C_{2}\right) = \mathit{decompose}\left(\mathit{plug}\left(C_{2} \; \text{\# } C_{1}[t]\right)\right)$$

which holds for any  $C_2$ ,  $C_1$  and t.

We have verified that using refocusing [16,31], one can go from this reduction semantics to the abstract machine of Figure 8.

4.5. **Beyond CPS.** Alternatively to using the meta-context to compose delimited continuations, as in Figure 7, we could compose them by concatenating their representation [41]. Such a concatenation function is defined as follows:

$$\begin{split} [\;] \star C_1' &= C_1' \\ (\mathsf{ARG}((t,e),C_1)) \star C_1' &= \mathsf{ARG}((t,e),C_1 \star C_1') \\ (\mathsf{SUCC}(C_1)) \star C_1' &= \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1 \star C_1') \\ (\mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1)) \star C_1' &= \mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1 \star C_1') \end{split}$$

(The second clause would read  $(\mathsf{ARG}(t,C_1)) \star C_1' = \mathsf{ARG}(t,C_1 \star C_1')$  for the contexts of Figure 8.)

Then, in Figures 7 and 8, we could replace the transition

$$\langle \mathsf{FUN}(C_1', C_1), v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle C_1', v, C_2 \cdot C_1 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

by the following one:

$$\langle \mathsf{FUN}(C_1', C_1), v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle C_1' \star C_1, v, C_2 \rangle_{cont_1}$$

This replacement changes the control effect of shift to that of Felleisen et al.'s  $\mathcal{F}$  operator [37]. Furthermore, the modified abstract machine is in structural correspondence with Felleisen et al.'s abstract machine for  $\mathcal{F}$  and # [37,41].

This representation of control (as a list of 'stack frames') and this implementation of composing delimited continuations (by concatenating these lists) are at the heart of virtually all non-CPS-based accounts of delimited control. However, the modified environment-based abstract machine does not correspond to a defunctionalized continuation-passing evaluator because it is not in the range of defunctionalization [30] since the first-order representation of functions should have a single point of consumption. Here, the constructors of contexts are not solely consumed by the  $cont_1$  transitions of the abstract machine as in Figures 7 and 8, but also by  $\star$ . Therefore, the abstract machine that uses  $\star$  is not in the range of Reynolds's defunctionalization and it thus does not immediately correspond to a higher-order, continuation-passing evaluator. In that sense, control operators using  $\star$  go beyond CPS.

Elsewhere [18], we have rephrased the modified abstract machine to put it in defunctionalized form, and we have exhibited the corresponding higher-order evaluator and the corresponding 'dynamic' continuation-passing style. This dynamic CPS is not just plain CPS but is a form of continuation+state-passing style where the threaded state is a list of intermediate delimited continuations. Unexpectedly, it is also in structural correspondence with the architecture for delimited control recently proposed by Dybvig, Peyton Jones, and Sabry on other operational grounds [35].

4.6. Static vs. dynamic delimited continuations. Irrespectively of any new dynamic CPS and any new architecture for delimited control, there seems to be remarkably few examples that actually illustrate the expressive power of dynamic delimited continuations. We have recently presented one, breadth-first traversal [19], and we present another one below.

The two following functions traverse a given list and return another list. The recursive call to *visit* is abstracted into a delimited continuation, which is applied to the tail of the list:

```
 foo \ xs \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \ letrec \ visit \ nil \\ = nil \\ | \ visit \ (x :: xs) \\ = \ visit \ (\mathcal{S}k.x :: (k \ xs)) \\ in \ \langle visit \ xs \rangle   bar \ xs \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \ letrec \ visit \ nil \\ = nil \\ | \ visit \ (x :: xs) \\ | \ visit \ (x :: xs) \\ = \ visit \ (\mathcal{F}k.x :: (k \ xs))   in \ \langle visit \ xs \rangle   in \ \langle visit \ xs \rangle
```

On the left, foo uses S and on the right, bar uses F; for the rest, the two definitions are identical. Given an input list, foo copies it and bar reverses it.

To explain this difference and to account for the extended source language, we need to expand the grammar of evaluation contexts, e.g., with a production to account for calls to the list constructor:

$$C_1 ::= [] \mid \mathsf{ARG}(t, C_1) \mid \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1) \mid \mathsf{FUN}(v, C_1) \mid \mathsf{CONS}(v, C_1) \mid \dots$$

Similarly, we need to expand the definition of concatenation as follows:

$$(CONS(v, C_1)) \star C'_1 = CONS(v, C_1 \star C'_1)$$

Here is a trace of the two computations in the form of the calls to and returns from visit for the input list 1::2::nil:

foo: Every time the captured continuation is resumed, its representation is kept separate from the current context. The meta-context therefore grows whereas the captured context solely consists of FUN(visit, []) throughout (writing visit in the context for simplicity):

bar: Every time the captured continuation is resumed, its representation is concatenated to the current context. The meta-context therefore remains the same whereas the context changes dynamically. The first captured context is FUN(visit, []); concatenating it to CONS(1, []) yields CONS(1, FUN(visit, [])), which is the second captured context:

```
C_2 \# C_1[\langle visit \ (1::2::nil) \rangle]
C_2 \cdot C_1 \# [visit \ (1::2::nil)]
C_2 \cdot C_1 \# (\mathsf{CONS}(1,[]))[visit \ (2::nil)]
C_2 \cdot C_1 \# (\mathsf{CONS}(2,\mathsf{CONS}(1,[])))[visit \ nil]
C_2 \cdot C_1 \# (\mathsf{CONS}(2,\mathsf{CONS}(1,[])))[nil]
C_2 \cdot C_1 \# (\mathsf{CONS}(2,[]))[1::nil]
C_2 \cdot C_1 \# [2::1::nil]
C_2 \# C_1[2::1::nil]
```

4.7. Summary and conclusion. We have presented the original evaluator for the  $\lambda$ -calculus with shift and reset; this evaluator uses two layers of continuations. From this call-by-value evaluator we have derived two abstract machines, an environment-based one and a substitution-based one; each of these machines uses two layers of evaluation contexts. Based on the substitution-based machine we have constructed a reduction semantics for the  $\lambda$ -calculus with shift and reset; this reduction semantics, by construction, is sound with respect to CPS. Finally, we have pointed out the difference between the static and dynamic delimited control operators at the level of the abstract machine and we have presented a simple but meaningful example illustrating their differing behavior.

#### 5. From evaluator to reduction semantics for the CPS hierarchy

We construct a reduction semantics for the call-by-value  $\lambda$ -calculus extended with shift<sub>n</sub> and reset<sub>n</sub>. As in Section 4, we go from an evaluator to an environment-based abstract machine, and from a substitution-based abstract machine to a reduction semantics. Because of the regularity of CPS, the results can be generalized from level 1 to higher levels without repeating the actual construction, based only on the original specification of the hierarchy [28]. In particular, the proofs of the theorems generalize straightforwardly from level 1.

5.1. An environment-based evaluator. At the *n*th level of the hierarchy, the language is extended with operators shift<sub>i</sub> and reset<sub>i</sub> for all *i* such that  $1 \le i \le n$ . The evaluator for this language is shown in Figures 9 and 10. If n = 1, it coincides with the evaluator displayed in Figure 6.

The evaluator uses n+1 layers of continuations. In the five first clauses (literal, variable,  $\lambda$ -abstraction, function application, and application of the successor function), the continuations  $k_2, \ldots, k_{n+1}$  are passive: if the evaluator were curried, they could be eta-reduced. In the clauses defining shift<sub>i</sub> and reset<sub>i</sub>, the continuations  $k_{i+2}, \ldots, k_{n+1}$  are also passive. Each pair of control operators is indexed by the corresponding level in the hierarchy: reset<sub>i</sub> is used to "push" each successive continuation up to level i onto level i+1 and to reinitialize

- Terms  $(1 \le i \le n)$ : term  $\ni t ::= \lceil m \rceil \mid x \mid \lambda x.t \mid t_0 t_1 \mid succ t \mid \langle t \rangle_i \mid S_i k.t$
- Values:  $val \ni v ::= m \mid f$
- Answers, continuations and functions  $(1 \le i \le n)$ :

• Initial continuations  $(1 \le i \le n)$ :

$$\theta_i = \lambda(v, k_{i+1}, k_{i+2}, ..., k_{n+1}). k_{i+1} (v, k_{i+2}, ..., k_{n+1})$$
  
$$\theta_{n+1} = \lambda v. v$$

- $\bullet \ \ \text{Environments:} \ \ \operatorname{env} \ni e ::= e_{empty} \ \mid \ e[x \mapsto v]$
- Evaluation function: see Figure 10

Figure 9: An environment-based evaluator for the CPS hierarchy at level n

```
• Evaluation function (1 \le i \le n): eval<sub>n</sub>: term × env × cont<sub>1</sub> × ... × cont<sub>n+1</sub> → ans eval<sub>n</sub> (\lceil m \rceil, e, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) = k_1 (m, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) eval<sub>n</sub> (x, e, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) = k_1 (e(x), k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) eval<sub>n</sub> (\lambda x.t, e, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) = k_1 (\lambda (v, k'_1, k'_2, ..., k'_{n+1}). eval<sub>n</sub> (t, e[x \mapsto v], k'_1, k'_2, ..., k'_{n+1}), k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) eval<sub>n</sub> (t_0, t_1, e, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) = \text{eval}_n (t_0, e, \lambda(v, k''_2, ..., k''_{n+1}). f (v, k_1, k''_2, ..., k''_{n+1}), k'_2, ..., k'_{n+1}), eval<sub>n</sub> (succ\ t, e, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) = \text{eval}_n (t, e, \lambda(m, k'_2, ..., k'_{n+1}). k<sub>1</sub> (m+1, k'_2, ..., k'_{n+1}), k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) eval<sub>n</sub> (\langle t \rangle_i, e, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) = \text{eval}_n (t, e, \theta_1, ..., \theta_i, \lambda(v, k'_{i+2}, ..., k'_{n+1}). k<sub>1</sub> (v, k_2, ..., k_{i+1}, k'_{i+2}, ..., k'_{n+1}), k_{i+2}, ..., k_{n+1}) eval<sub>n</sub> (\langle t \rangle_i, e, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}) = \text{eval}_n (t, e[k \mapsto c_i], \theta_1, ..., \theta_i, k_{i+1}, ..., k_{n+1}) eval<sub>n</sub> (\langle t \rangle_i, ..., k'_{n+1}). k<sub>1</sub> (v, k_2, ..., k_{n+1}). k<sub>1</sub> (v, k_2, ..., k'_{n+1}). k<sub>1</sub> (v', k'_2, ..., k'_
```

Figure 10: An environment-based evaluator for the CPS hierarchy at level n, ctd.

them with  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_i$ , which are the successive CPS counterparts of the identity function; shift<sub>i</sub> is used to abstract control up to level *i* into a delimited continuation and to reinitialize the successive continuations up to level *i* with  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_i$ .

Applying a delimited continuation that was abstracted up to level i "pushes" each successive continuation up to level i onto level i+1 and restores the successive continuations that were captured in a delimited continuation. When such a delimited continuation completes, and when an expression delimited by reset<sub>i</sub> completes, the successive continuations that were pushed onto level i+1 are "popped" back into place and the computation proceeds.

5.2. An environment-based abstract machine. Defunctionalizing the evaluator of Figures 9 and 10 yields the environment-based abstract machine displayed in Figures 11 and 12. If n = 1, it coincides with the abstract machine displayed in Figure 7.

The abstract machine consists of n+2 sets of transitions: eval for interpreting terms and  $cont_1, \ldots, cont_{n+1}$  for interpreting the successive defunctionalized continuations. The set of possible values includes integers, closures and captured contexts.

This abstract machine is an extension of the abstract machine displayed in Figure 7 with n+1 contexts instead of 2 and the corresponding transitions for shift<sub>i</sub> and reset<sub>i</sub>. Each meta<sub>i+1</sub>-context intervenes to process reset<sub>i</sub> expressions and to apply captured continuations. Otherwise, the successive contexts are passively threaded to process literals, variables,  $\lambda$ -abstractions, function applications, and applications of the successor function.

Given an environment e and a series of successive contexts, a reset<sub>i</sub> expression  $\langle t \rangle_i$  is processed by evaluating t with the same environment e, i empty contexts, and a meta<sub>i+1</sub>-context over which all the intermediate contexts have been pushed on.

Given an environment e and a series of successive contexts, a shift expression  $S_ik.t$  is processed by evaluating t with an extension of e where k denotes a composition of the i surrounding contexts, i empty contexts, and the remaining outer contexts. Applying a captured context is achieved by pushing all the current contexts on the next outer context, restoring the composition of the captured contexts, and continuing with them. Resuming a composition of captured contexts is achieved by popping them off the next outer context and continuing with them.

In order to relate the resulting abstract machine to the evaluator, we define a partial function  $eval_n^e$  mapping a term t to a value v whenever the machine for level n, started with

- Terms  $(1 \le i \le n)$ :  $t := \lceil m \rceil \mid x \mid \lambda x.t \mid t_0 t_1 \mid succ t \mid \langle t \rangle_i \mid S_i k.t$
- Values  $(1 \le i \le n)$ :  $v := m \mid [x, t, e] \mid C_i$
- Evaluation contexts  $(2 \le i \le n+1)$ :

$$\begin{array}{lll} C_1 ::= [ \ ] & | & \mathsf{ARG}((t,e),C_1) & | & \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1) & | & \mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1) \\ C_i ::= [ \ ] & | & C_i \cdot C_{i-1} \end{array}$$

- Environments:  $e ::= e_{empty} \mid e[x \mapsto v]$
- Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition: see Figure 12

Figure 11: An environment-based abstract machine for the CPS hierarchy at level n

• Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition  $(1 \le i \le n, \ 2 \le j \le n)$ :

```
t \Rightarrow \langle t, e_{empty}, [], [], ..., [] \rangle_{eval}
                                           \langle \lceil m \rceil, e, C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, m, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont}
                                               \langle x, e, C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, e(x), C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont}
                                         \langle \lambda x.t, e, C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, [x, t, e], C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_1}
                                          \langle t_0 t_1, e, C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t_0, e, \mathsf{ARG}((t_1, e), C_1), C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval}
                                      \langle succ\ t, e, C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t, e, SUCC(C_1), C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval}
                                          \langle \langle t \rangle_i, e, C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t, e, [], ..., [], C_{i+1} \cdot (...(C_2 \cdot C_1)...), C_{i+2}, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval}
                                        \langle S_i k.t, e, C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval} \Rightarrow \langle t, e[k \mapsto C_i \cdot (...(C_2 \cdot C_1)...)], [], ..., [], C_{i+1}, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval}
                                                    \langle [\,], v, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle C_2, v, C_3, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_2}
                           \langle \mathsf{ARG}((t,e),C_1),\,v,\,C_2,\,...,\,C_{n+1}\rangle_{cont} \Rightarrow \langle t,\,e,\,\mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1),\,C_2,\,...,\,C_{n+1}\rangle_{enal}
                                 \langle SUCC(C_1), m, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, m+1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_1}
                      \langle \mathsf{FUN}([x, t, e], C_1), v, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_1} \Rightarrow \langle t, e[x \mapsto v], C_1, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{eval}
\langle \mathsf{FUN}(C_i' \cdot (...(C_2' \cdot C_1')...), C_1), \, v, \, C_2, \, ..., \, C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_1} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \langle C_1', \, v, \, C_2', \, ..., \, C_i', \, C_{i+1} \cdot (...(C_2 \cdot C_1)...), \, C_{i+2}, \, ..., \, C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_1}
                                                \langle [], v, C_{j+1}, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_i} \Rightarrow \langle C_{j+1}, v, C_{j+2}, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_{i+1}}
               \langle C_i \cdot (...(C_2 \cdot C_1)...), v, C_{i+1}, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_i} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, v, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_i}
                                     \langle C_{n+1} \cdot (...(C_2 \cdot C_1)...), v \rangle_{cont_{n+1}} \Rightarrow \langle C_1, v, C_2, ..., C_{n+1} \rangle_{cont_n}
                                                                           \langle [\,], v \rangle_{cont_{n+1}} \Rightarrow v
```

Figure 12: An environment-based abstract machine for the CPS hierarchy at level n, ctd.

t, stops with v. The correctness of the machine with respect to the evaluator is ensured by the following theorem:

**Theorem 4.** For any program t and any integer value m, evaluate<sub>n</sub> (t) = m if and only if eval<sup>e</sup><sub>n</sub> (t) = m.

5.3. A substitution-based abstract machine. In the same fashion as in Section 4.3, we construct the substitution-based abstract machine corresponding to the environment-based abstract machine of Section 5.2. The result is displayed in Figures 13 and 14. If n = 1, it coincides with the abstract machine displayed in Figure 8.

The *n*th level contains n + 1 evaluation contexts and each context  $C_i$  can be viewed as a stack of non-empty contexts  $C_{i-1}$ . Terms are decomposed as

$$C_{n+1} \#_n C_n \#_{n-1} C_{n-1} \#_{n-2} \cdots \#_2 C_2 \#_1 C_1[t],$$

where each  $\#_i$  represents a context delimiter of level i. All the control operators that occur at the jth level (with j < n) of the hierarchy do not use the contexts  $j + 2, \ldots, n + 1$ . The functions decompose and its inverse plug can be read off the machine, as for level 1.

The transitions of the machine for level j are "embedded" in the machine for level j+1; the extra components are threaded but not used.

We define a partial function  $\operatorname{eval}_n^{\mathsf{s}}$  capturing the evaluation by the substitution-based abstract machine for an arbitrary level n, analogously to the definition of  $\operatorname{eval}_n^{\mathsf{e}}$ . Now we can relate evaluation with the environment-based and the substitution-based abstract machines for level n.

**Theorem 5.** For any program t, either both  $\operatorname{eval}_n^{\mathsf{s}}(t)$  and  $\operatorname{eval}_n^{\mathsf{e}}(t)$  are undefined, or there exist values v, v' such that  $\operatorname{eval}_n^{\mathsf{s}}(t) = v$ ,  $\operatorname{eval}_n^{\mathsf{e}}(t) = v'$  and  $\mathcal{T}_n(v') = v$ .

The definition of  $\mathcal{T}_n$  extends that of  $\mathcal{T}$  from Theorem 2 in such a way that it is homomorphic for all the contexts  $C_i$ , with  $2 \leq i \leq n$ .

- 5.4. A reduction semantics. Along the same lines as in Section 4.4, we construct the reduction semantics for the CPS hierarchy based on the abstract machine of Figures 13 and 14. For an arbitrary level n we obtain the following set of reduction rules, for all
  - Terms and values  $(1 \le i \le n)$ :  $t := v \mid x \mid t_0 t_1 \mid succ t \mid \langle t \rangle_i \mid \mathcal{S}_i k.t$  $v := \lceil m \rceil \mid \lambda x.t \mid C_i$
  - Evaluation contexts  $(2 \le i \le n+1)$ :

$$\begin{array}{lll} C_1 ::= [ \ ] & | & \mathsf{ARG}(t,C_1) & | & \mathsf{SUCC}(C_1) & | & \mathsf{FUN}(v,C_1) \\ C_i ::= [ \ ] & | & C_i \cdot C_{i-1} \end{array}$$

• Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition: see Figure 14

Figure 13: A substitution-based abstract machine for the CPS hierarchy at level n

• Initial transition, transition rules, and final transition  $(1 \le i \le n, 2 \le j \le n)$ :

Figure 14: A substitution-based abstract machine for the the CPS hierarchy at level n, ctd.

 $1 \le i \le n$ ; they define the actual redexes:

$$(\delta) \qquad C_{n+1} \sharp_n \cdots \sharp_1 C_1[succ \lceil m \rceil] \to_n C_{n+1} \sharp_n \cdots \sharp_1 C_1[\lceil m+1 \rceil]$$

$$(\beta_{\lambda})$$
  $C_{n+1} \#_n \cdots \#_1 C_1[(\lambda x.t) v] \to_n C_{n+1} \#_n \cdots \#_1 C_1[t\{v/x\}]$ 

$$(S_{\lambda}^{i}) \qquad C_{n+1} \sharp_{n} \cdots \sharp_{1} C_{1}[S_{i}k.t] \to_{n} \\ C_{n+1} \sharp_{n} \cdots \sharp_{i+1} C_{i+1} \sharp_{i} [] \dots \sharp_{1} [t\{C_{i} \cdot (\dots (C_{2} \cdot C_{1}) \dots)/k\}]$$

(Reset<sup>i</sup>) 
$$C_{n+1} \#_n \cdots \#_1 C_1[\langle v \rangle_i] \to_n C_{n+1} \#_n \cdots \#_1 C_1[v]$$

Each level contains all the reductions from lower levels, and these reductions are compatible with additional layers of evaluation contexts. In particular, at level 0 there are only  $\delta$ - and  $\beta_{\lambda}$ -reductions.

The values and evaluation contexts are already specified in the abstract machine. Moreover, the potential redexes are defined according to the following grammar:

$$p_n ::= succ \ v \mid v_0 v_1 \mid \mathcal{S}_i k.t \mid \langle v \rangle_i \quad (1 \leq i \leq n)$$

**Lemma 2** (Unique decomposition for level n). A program t is either a value or there exists a unique sequence of contexts  $C_1, \ldots, C_{n+1}$  and a potential redex  $p_n$  such that  $t = plug(C_{n+1} \#_n \cdots \#_1 C_1[p_n])$ .

Evaluating a term using either the derived reduction rules or the substitution-based abstract machine from Section 5.3 yields the same result:

**Theorem 6.** For any program t and any value v,  $\operatorname{eval}_n^{\mathsf{s}}(t) = v$  if and only if  $t \to_n^* v$ , where  $\to_n^*$  is the reflexive, transitive closure of  $\to_n$ .

As in Section 4.4, using refocusing, one can go from a given reduction semantics of Section 5.4 into a pre-abstract machine and the corresponding eval/apply abstract machine of Figures 13 and 14.

- 5.5. Beyond CPS. As in Section 4.5, one can define a family of concatenation functions over contexts and use it to implement composable continuations in the CPS hierarchy, giving rise to a family of control operators  $\mathcal{F}_n$  and  $\#_n$ . Again the modified environment-based abstract machine does not immediately correspond to a defunctionalized continuation-passing evaluator. Such control operators go beyond traditional CPS.
- 5.6. Static vs. dynamic delimited continuations. As in Section 4.6, one can illustrate the difference between static and dynamic delimited continuations in the CPS hierarchy. For example, replacing shift<sub>2</sub> and reset<sub>2</sub> respectively by  $\mathcal{F}_2$  and  $\#_2$  in Danvy and Filinski's version of Abelson and Sussman's generator of triples [28, Section 3] yields a list in reverse order.<sup>4</sup>
- 5.7. **Summary and conclusion.** We have generalized the results presented in Section 4 from level 1 to the whole CPS hierarchy of control operators shift<sub>n</sub> and reset<sub>n</sub>. Starting from the original evaluator for the  $\lambda$ -calculus with shift<sub>n</sub> and reset<sub>n</sub> that uses n + 1 layers of continuations, we have derived two abstract machines, an environment-based one and a substitution-based one; each of these machines use n + 1 layers of evaluation contexts.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Thanks are due to an anonymous reviewer for pointing this out.

Based on the substitution-based machine we have obtained a reduction semantics for the  $\lambda$ -calculus extended with shift<sub>n</sub> and reset<sub>n</sub> which, by construction, is sound with respect to CPS.

## 6. Programming in the CPS Hierarchy

To finish, we present new examples of programming in the CPS hierarchy. The examples are normalization functions. In Sections 6.1 and 6.2, we first describe normalization by evaluation and we present the simple example of the free monoid. In Section 6.3, we present a function mapping a proposition into its disjunctive normal form; this normalization function uses delimited continuations. In Section 6.4, we generalize the normalization functions of Sections 6.2 and 6.3 to a hierarchical language of units and products, and we express the corresponding normalization function in the CPS hierarchy.

6.1. **Normalization by evaluation.** Normalization by evaluation is a 'reduction-free' approach to normalizing terms. Instead of reducing a term to its normal form, one evaluates this term into a non-standard model and reifies its denotation into its normal form [34]:

$$eval: term \rightarrow value$$
 $reify: value \rightarrow term^{nf}$ 
 $normalize: term \rightarrow term^{nf}$ 
 $normalize = reify \circ eval$ 

Normalization by evaluation has been developed in intuitionistic type theory [20, 63], proof theory [12,13], category theory [4], and partial evaluation [22,23], where it has emerged as a new field of application for delimited continuations [9, 23, 34, 44, 48, 51, 78].

6.2. **The free monoid.** A source term in the free monoid is either a variable, the unit element, or the product of two terms:

$$term \ni t ::= x \mid \varepsilon \mid t \star t'$$

The product is associative and the unit element is neutral. These properties justify the following conversion rules:

$$t \star (t' \star t'') \quad \leftrightarrow \quad (t \star t') \star t''$$

$$t \star \varepsilon \quad \leftrightarrow \quad t$$

$$\varepsilon \star t \quad \leftrightarrow \quad t$$

We aim (for example) for list-like flat normal forms:

$$term^{\mathrm{nf}} \ \ni \ \widehat{t} \ ::= \ \varepsilon^{\mathrm{nf}} \ \mid \ x \star^{\mathrm{nf}} \widehat{t}$$

In a reduction-based approach to normalization, one would orient the conversion rules into reduction rules and one would apply these reduction rules until a normal form is obtained:

$$t \star (t' \star t'') \leftarrow (t \star t') \star t''$$
$$\varepsilon \star t \rightarrow t$$

In a reduction-free approach to normalization, one defines a normalization function as the composition of a non-standard evaluation function and a reification function. Let us state such a normalization function. The non-standard domain of values is the transformer

$$value = term^{nf} \rightarrow term^{nf}$$
.

The evaluation function is defined by induction over the syntax of source terms, and the reification function inverts it:

$$eval \ x = \lambda t.x \star^{\text{nf}} t$$

$$eval \ \varepsilon = \lambda t.t$$

$$eval \ (t \star t') = (eval \ t) \circ (eval \ t')$$

$$reify \ v = v \varepsilon^{\text{nf}}$$

$$normalize \ t = reify \ (eval \ t)$$

In effect, eval is a homomorphism from the source monoid to the monoid of transformers (unit is mapped to unit and products are mapped to products) and the normalization function hinges on the built-in associativity of function composition. Beylin, Dybjer, Coquand, and Kinoshita have studied its theoretical content [14, 20, 58]. From a (functional) programming standpoint, the reduction-based approach amounts to flattening a tree iteratively by reordering it, and the reduction-free approach amounts to flattening a tree with an accumulator.

6.3. A language of propositions. A source term, i.e., a proposition, is either a variable, a literal (true or false), a conjunction, or a disjunction:

$$term \ni t ::= x \mid true \mid t \land t' \mid false \mid t \lor t'$$

Conjunction and disjunction are associative and distribute over each other; *true* is neutral for conjunction and absorbant for disjunction; and *false* is neutral for disjunction and absorbant for conjunction.

We aim (for example) for list-like disjunctive normal forms:

Our normalization function is the result of composing a non-standard evaluation function and a reification function. We state them below without proof.

Given the domains of transformers

$$\begin{array}{cccc} F_1 & = & term_{\rm c}^{\rm nf} & \rightarrow & term_{\rm c}^{\rm nf} \\ F_2 & = & term_{\rm d}^{\rm nf} & \rightarrow & term_{\rm d}^{\rm nf} \end{array}$$

the non-standard domain of values is  $ans_1$ , where

$$\begin{array}{rcl} ans_2 & = & F_2 \\ ans_1 & = & (F_1 \ \rightarrow \ ans_2) \ \rightarrow \ ans_2. \end{array}$$

The evaluation function is defined by induction over the syntax of source terms, and the reification function inverts it:

```
\begin{array}{lll} eval_0 \ x \ k \ d &= k \ (\lambda c.x \wedge^{\mathrm{nf}} c) \ d \\ eval_0 \ true \ k \ d &= k \ (\lambda c.c) \ d \\ eval_0 \ (t \wedge t') \ k \ d &= eval_0 \ t \ (\lambda f_1.eval_0 \ t' \ (\lambda f_1'.k \ (f_1 \circ f_1'))) \ d \\ eval_0 \ false \ k \ d &= d \\ eval_0 \ (t \vee t') \ k \ d &= eval_0 \ t \ k \ (eval_0 \ t' \ k \ d) \\ reify_0 \ v &= v \ (\lambda f_1.\lambda d.(f_1 \ true^{\mathrm{nf}}) \ \vee^{\mathrm{nf}} \ d) \ false^{\mathrm{nf}} \\ normalize \ t &= reify_0 \ (eval_0 \ t) \end{array}
```

This normalization function uses a continuation k, an accumulator d to flatten disjunctions, and another one c to flatten conjunctions. The continuation is delimited: the three first clauses of  $eval_0$  are in CPS; in the fourth, k is discarded (accounting for the fact that false is absorbant for conjunction); and in the last, k is duplicated and used in non-tail position (achieving the distribution of conjunctions over disjunctions). The continuation and the accumulators are initialized in the definition of  $reify_0$ .

Uncurrying the continuation and mapping  $eval_0$  and  $reify_0$  back to direct style yield the following definition, which lives at level 1 of the CPS hierarchy:

$$eval_1 \ x \ d = (\lambda c.x \wedge^{\text{nf}} c, \ d)$$

$$eval_1 \ true \ d = (\lambda c.c, \ d)$$

$$eval_1 \ (t \wedge t') \ d = let \ (f_1, \ d) = eval_1 \ t \ d$$

$$in \ let \ (f'_1, \ d) = eval_1 \ t' \ d$$

$$in \ (f_1 \circ f'_1, \ d)$$

$$eval_1 \ false \ d = Sk.d$$

$$eval_1 \ (t \vee t') \ d = Sk.k \ (eval_1 \ t \ \langle k \ (eval_1 \ t' \ d) \rangle)$$

$$reify_1 \ v = \langle let \ (f_1, \ d) = v \ false^{\text{nf}}$$

$$in \ (f_1 \ true^{\text{nf}}) \vee^{\text{nf}} \ d \rangle$$

$$normalize \ t = reify_1 \ (eval_1 \ t)$$

The three first clauses of  $eval_1$  are in direct style; the two others abstract control with shift. In the fourth clause, the context is discarded; and in the last clause, the context is duplicated and composed. The context and the accumulators are initialized in the definition of  $reify_1$ .

This direct-style version makes it even more clear than the CPS version that the accumulator for the disjunctions in normal form is a threaded state. A continuation-based, state-based version (or better, a monad-based one) can therefore be written—but it is out of scope here.

6.4. A hierarchical language of units and products. We consider a generalization of propositional logic where a source term is either a variable, a unit in a hierarchy of units, or a product in a hierarchy of products:

$$term \ni t ::= x \mid \varepsilon_i \mid t \star_i t'$$

$$where 1 < i < n.$$

All the products are associative. All units are neutral for products with the same index.

**The free monoid:** The language corresponds to that of the free monoid if n = 1, as in Section 6.2.

**Boolean logic:** The language corresponds to that of propositions if n=2, as in Section 6.3:  $\varepsilon_1$  is true,  $\star_1$  is  $\wedge$ ,  $\varepsilon_2$  is false, and  $\star_2$  is  $\vee$ .

**Multi-valued logic:** In general, for each n > 2 we can consider a suitable n-valued logic [47]; for example, in case n = 4, the language corresponds to that of Belnap's bilattice  $\mathcal{FOUR}$  [11]. It is also possible to modify the normalization function to work for less regular logical structures (e.g., other bilattices).

Monads: In general, the language corresponds to that of layered monads [64]: each unit element is the unit of the corresponding monad, and each product is the 'bind' of the corresponding monad. In practice, layered monads are collapsed into one for programming consumption [43], but prior to this collapse, all the individual monad operations coexist in the computational soup.

In the remainder of this section, we assume that all the products, besides being associative, distribute over each other, and that all units, besides being neutral for products with the same index, are absorbant for products with other indices. We aim (for example) for a generalization of disjunctive normal forms:

$$term_{n}^{nf} \ni \widehat{t} ::= t_{n}$$

$$term_{n}^{nf} \ni t_{n} ::= \varepsilon_{n}^{nf} \mid t_{n-1} \star_{n}^{nf} t_{n}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$term_{1}^{nf} \ni t_{1} ::= \varepsilon_{1}^{nf} \mid t_{0} \star_{1}^{nf} t_{1}$$

$$term_{0}^{nf} \ni t_{0} ::= x$$

For presentational reasons, in the remainder of this section we arbitrarily fix n to be 5.

Our normalization function is the result of composing a non-standard evaluation function and a reification function. We state them below without proof. Given the domains of transformers

the non-standard domain of values is  $ans_1$ , where

$$\begin{array}{rcl} ans_5 & = & F_5 \\ ans_4 & = & (F_4 \rightarrow ans_5) \rightarrow ans_5 \\ ans_3 & = & (F_3 \rightarrow ans_4) \rightarrow ans_4 \\ ans_2 & = & (F_2 \rightarrow ans_3) \rightarrow ans_3 \\ ans_1 & = & (F_1 \rightarrow ans_2) \rightarrow ans_2. \end{array}$$

The evaluation function is defined by induction over the syntax of source terms, and the reification function inverts it:

This normalization function uses four delimited continuations  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ ,  $k_3$ ,  $k_4$  and five accumulators  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ ,  $t_3$ ,  $t_4$ ,  $t_5$  to flatten each of the successive products. In the clause of each  $\varepsilon_i$ , the continuations  $k_1, \ldots, k_{i-1}$  are discarded, accounting for the fact that  $\varepsilon_i$  is absorbant for  $\star_1, \ldots, \star_{i-1}$ , and the identity function is passed to  $k_i$ , accounting for the fact that  $\varepsilon_i$  is neutral for  $\star_i$ . In the clause of each  $\star_{i+1}$ , the continuations  $k_1, \ldots, k_i$  are duplicated and used in non-tail position, achieving the distribution of  $\star_{i+1}$  over  $\star_1, \ldots, \star_i$ . The continuations and the accumulators are initialized in the definition of  $reify_0$ .

This normalization function lives at level 0 of the CPS hierarchy, but we can express it at a higher level using shift and reset. For example, uncurrying  $k_3$  and  $k_4$  and mapping  $eval_0$  and  $reify_0$  back to direct style twice yield the following intermediate definition, which lives at level 2:

```
\begin{array}{lll} eval_{2} \ \varepsilon_{4} \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5} &=& S_{1} k_{3}. (\lambda t_{4}.t_{4}, t_{5}) \\ eval_{2} \ (t \star_{4} \ t') \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5} &=& S_{1} k_{3}. let \ (f_{4}, \ t_{5}) = \langle k_{3} \ (eval_{2} \ t \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5}) \rangle_{1} \\ & & in \ let \ (f'_{4}, \ t_{5}) = \langle k_{3} \ (eval_{2} \ t' \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5}) \rangle_{1} \\ & & in \ (f_{4} \circ f'_{4}, \ t_{5}) \\ eval_{2} \ \varepsilon_{5} \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5} &=& S_{2} k_{4}.t_{5} \\ eval_{2} \ (t \star_{5} \ t') \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5} &=& S_{1} k_{3}.S_{2} k_{4}. let \ t_{5} = \langle k_{4} \ \langle k_{3} \ (eval_{2} \ t' \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5}) \rangle_{1} \rangle_{2} \\ & & in \ \langle k_{4} \ \langle k_{3} \ (eval_{2} \ t' \ k_{1} \ k_{2} \ t_{5}) \rangle_{1} \rangle_{2} \\ & & reify_{2} \ v &=& \langle let \ (f_{4}, \ t_{5}) = \langle let \ (f_{3}, \ t_{5}) = v \ (\lambda f_{1}.\lambda k_{2}.k_{2} \ (\lambda t_{2}.(f_{1} \ \varepsilon_{1}^{nf}) \ \star_{2}^{nf} \ t_{2})) \\ & & (\lambda f_{2}.\lambda t_{3}.(f_{2} \ \varepsilon_{2}^{nf}) \ \star_{3}^{nf} \ t_{3}) \\ & \varepsilon_{5} \\ & in \ (\lambda f_{4}.(f_{3} \ \varepsilon_{3}^{nf}) \ \star_{4}^{nf} \ t_{4}, \ t_{5}) \rangle_{1} \\ & in \ (f_{4} \ \varepsilon_{4}^{nf}) \ \star_{5}^{nf} \ t_{5} \rangle_{2} \\ & normalize \ t = reify_{2} \ (eval_{2} \ t) \end{array}
```

Whereas  $eval_0$  had four layered continuations,  $eval_2$  has only two layered continuations since it has been mapped back to direct style twice. Where  $eval_0$  accesses  $k_3$  as one of its parameters,  $eval_2$  abstracts the first layer of control with shift<sub>1</sub>, and where  $eval_0$  accesses  $k_4$  as one of its parameters,  $eval_2$  abstracts the first and the second layer of control with shift<sub>2</sub>.

Uncurrying  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  and mapping  $eval_2$  and  $reify_2$  back to direct style twice yield the following direct-style definition, which lives at level 4 of the CPS hierarchy:

```
eval_4 x t_5 = (\lambda t_1.x \star_1^{\text{nf}} t_1, t_5)
           eval_4 \, \varepsilon_1 \, t_5 = (\lambda t_1.t_1, \, t_5)
eval_4(t \star_1 t') t_5 = let(f_1, t_5) = eval_4 t t_5
                                        in let (f'_1, t_5) = eval_4 t' t_5
                                              in (f_1 \circ f_1', t_5)
           eval_4 \varepsilon_2 t_5 = S_1 k_1.(\lambda t_2.t_2, t_5)
eval_4 (t \star_2 t') t_5 = S_1 k_1 . let (f_2, t_5) = \langle k_1 (eval_4 t t_5) \rangle_1
                                                    in let (f'_2, t_5) = \langle k_1 (eval_4 t' t_5) \rangle_1
                                                         in (f_2 \circ f_2', t_5)
          eval_4 \, \varepsilon_3 \, t_5 = \mathcal{S}_2 k_2.(\lambda t_3.t_3, t_5)
eval_4(t \star_3 t') t_5 = S_1 k_1 . S_2 k_2 . let(f_3, t_5) = \langle k_2 \langle k_1 (eval_4 t t_5) \rangle_1 \rangle_2
                                                              in let (f_3', t_5) = \langle k_2 \langle k_1 (eval_4 t' t_5) \rangle_1 \rangle_2
                                                                     in (f_3 \circ f_3', t_5)
           eval_4 \, \varepsilon_4 \, t_5 = \mathcal{S}_3 k_3 . (\lambda t_4 . t_4, \, t_5)
eval_4 (t \star_4 t') t_5 = S_1 k_1 \cdot S_2 k_2 \cdot S_3 k_3 \cdot let (f_4, t_5) = \langle k_3 \langle k_2 \langle k_1 (eval_4 t t_5) \rangle_1 \rangle_2 \rangle_3
                                                                         in let (f_4', t_5) = \langle k_3 \langle k_2 \langle k_1 (eval_4 t' t_5) \rangle_1 \rangle_2 \rangle_3
                                                                               in (f_4 \circ f_4', t_5)
           eval_4 \varepsilon_5 t_5 = S_4 k_4 . t_5
eval_4 (t \star_5 t') t_5 = \mathcal{S}_1 k_1 \cdot \mathcal{S}_2 k_2 \cdot \mathcal{S}_3 k_3 \cdot \mathcal{S}_4 k_4 \cdot let t_5 = \langle k_4 \langle k_3 \langle k_2 \langle k_1 (eval_4 t' t_5) \rangle_1 \rangle_2 \rangle_3 \rangle_4
                                                                                     in \langle k_4 \langle k_3 \langle k_2 \langle k_1 (eval_4 t t_5) \rangle_1 \rangle_2 \rangle_3 \rangle_4
```

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{reify}_4 \, v \, &= \, \big\langle \textit{let} \, (f_4, \, t_5) = \big\langle \textit{let} \, (f_3, \, t_5) = \big\langle \textit{let} \, (f_2, \, t_5) = \big\langle \textit{let} \, (f_1, \, t_5) = v \, \varepsilon_5 \\ &\quad \quad in \, \big( \lambda f_2. (f_1 \, \varepsilon_1^{\text{nf}}) \, \star_2^{\text{nf}} \, t_2, \, t_5 \big) \big\rangle_1 \\ &\quad \quad in \, \big( \lambda f_3. (f_2 \, \varepsilon_2^{\text{nf}}) \, \star_3^{\text{nf}} \, t_3, \, t_5 \big) \big\rangle_2 \\ &\quad \quad in \, \big( \lambda f_4. (f_3 \, \varepsilon_3^{\text{nf}}) \, \star_4^{\text{nf}} \, t_4, \, t_5 \big) \big\rangle_3 \\ &\quad \quad in \, \big( f_4 \, \varepsilon_4^{\text{nf}} \big) \, \star_5^{\text{nf}} \, t_5 \big\rangle_4 \end{aligned}$$

 $normalize t = reify_4 (eval_4 t)$ 

Whereas  $eval_2$  had two layered continuations,  $eval_4$  has none since it has been mapped back to direct style twice. Where  $eval_2$  accesses  $k_1$  as one of its parameters,  $eval_4$  abstracts the first layer of control with shift<sub>1</sub>, and where  $eval_2$  accesses  $k_2$  as one of its parameters,  $eval_4$  abstracts the first and the second layer of control with shift<sub>2</sub>. Where  $eval_2$  uses reset<sub>1</sub> and shift<sub>1</sub>,  $eval_4$  uses reset<sub>3</sub> and shift<sub>3</sub>, and where  $eval_2$  uses reset<sub>2</sub> and shift<sub>2</sub>,  $eval_4$  uses reset<sub>4</sub> and shift<sub>4</sub>.

6.5. A note about efficiency. We have implemented all the definitions of Section 6.4 as well as the intermediate versions  $eval_1$  and  $eval_3$  in ML [32]. We have also implemented hierarchical normalization functions for other values than 5.

For high products (i.e., in Section 6.4, for source terms using  $\star_3$  and  $\star_4$ ), the normalization function living at level 0 of the CPS hierarchy is the most efficient one. On the other hand, for low products (i.e., in Section 6.4, for source terms using  $\star_1$  and  $\star_2$ ), the normalization functions living at a higher level of the CPS hierarchy are the most efficient ones. These relative efficiencies are explained in terms of resources:

- Accessing to a continuation as an explicit parameter is more efficient than accessing to it through a control operator.
- On the other hand, the restriction of  $eval_4$  to source terms that only use  $\varepsilon_1$  and  $\star_1$  is in direct style, whereas the corresponding restrictions of  $eval_2$  and  $eval_0$  pass a number of extra parameters. These extra parameters penalize performance.

The better performance of programs in the CPS hierarchy has already been reported for level 1 in the context of continuation-based partial evaluation [61], and it has been reported for a similar "pay as you go" reason: a program that abstracts control relatively rarely is run more efficiently in direct style with a control operator rather than in continuation-passing style.

6.6. Summary and conclusion. We have illustrated the CPS hierarchy with an application of normalization by evaluation that naturally involves successive layers of continuations and that demonstrates the expressive power of  $shift_n$  and  $reset_n$ .

The application also suggests alternative control operators that would fit better its continuation-based programming pattern. For example, instead of representing a delimited continuation as a function and apply it as such, we could represent it as a continuation and apply it with a 'throw' operator as in MacLisp and Standard ML of New Jersey. For another example, instead of throwing a value to a continuation, we could specify the continuation of a computation, e.g., with a  $reflect_i$  special form. For a third example, instead of abstracting control up to a layer n, we could give access to each of the successive layers up to n, e.g., with a  $\mathcal{L}_n$  operator. Then instead of

$$eval_{4} (t \star_{4} t') t_{5} = \mathcal{S}_{1}k_{1}.\mathcal{S}_{2}k_{2}.\mathcal{S}_{3}k_{3}.let (f_{4}, t_{5}) = \langle k_{3} \langle k_{2} \langle k_{1} (eval_{4} t t_{5}) \rangle_{1} \rangle_{2} \rangle_{3}$$
$$in \ let (f'_{4}, t_{5}) = \langle k_{3} \langle k_{2} \langle k_{1} (eval_{4} t' t_{5}) \rangle_{1} \rangle_{2} \rangle_{3}$$
$$in (f_{4} \circ f'_{4}, t_{5})$$

one could write

$$eval_{4}(t \star_{4} t') t_{5} = \mathcal{L}_{3}(k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3}).let(f'_{4}, t_{5}) = reflect_{3}(eval_{4} t t_{5}, k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3})$$
 $in \ let(f'_{4}, t_{5}) = reflect_{3}(eval_{4} t' t_{5}, k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3})$ 
 $in \ (f_{4} \circ f'_{4}, t_{5}).$ 

Such alternative control operators can be more convenient to use, while being compatible with CPS.

#### 7. Conclusion and issues

We have used CPS as a guideline to establish an operational foundation for delimited continuations. Starting from a call-by-value evaluator for  $\lambda$ -terms with shift and reset, we have mechanically derived the corresponding abstract machine. From this abstract machine, it is straightforward to obtain a reduction semantics of delimited control that, by construction, is compatible with CPS—both for one-step reduction and for evaluation. These results can also be established without the guideline of CPS, but less easily.

The whole approach generalizes straightforwardly to account for the shift<sub>n</sub> and reset<sub>n</sub> family of delimited-control operators and more generally for any control operators that are compatible with CPS. These results would be non-trivial to establish without the guideline of CPS.

Defunctionalization provides a key for connecting continuation-passing style and operational intuitions about control. Indeed most of the time, control stacks and evaluation contexts are the defunctionalized continuations of an evaluator. Defunctionalization also provides a key for identifying where operational intuitions about control go beyond CPS (see Section 4.5).

We do not know whether CPS is the ultimate answer, but the present work shows yet another example of its usefulness. It is like nothing can go wrong with CPS.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to Mads Sig Ager, Julia Lawall, Jan Midtgaard, and the referees of CW'04 and of LMCS for their comments. The third author would also like to thank Samuel Lindley for our joint initial study of the normalization functions of Section 6.

This work is partially supported by the ESPRIT Working Group APPSEM II (http://www.appsem.org), by the Danish Natural Science Research Council, Grant no. 21-02-0474 (for the two first authors) and Grant no. 21-03-0545 (for the third author), and by BRICS (Basic Research in Computer Science (http://www.brics.dk), funded by the Danish National Research Foundation).

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