

Manipulating accumulative functions by swapping call-time and return-time computations*

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Abstract

Functional languages are suitable for transformational developments of programs. However, accumulative functions, or in particular tail-recursive functions, are known to be less suitable for manipulation. In this paper, we propose a program transformation named “IO swapping” that swaps call-time and return-time computations. It moves computations in accumulative parameters to results and thereby enables interesting transformations. We demonstrate effectiveness of IO swapping by several applications: deforestation, higher order removal, program inversion, and manipulation of circular programs.

1 Introduction

It is well recognized that functional languages are suitable for transformational developments of programs. Nontrivial programs can be derived from simple ones by applying semantic-preserving transformations. For example, consider deforestation (Wadler, 1990). Given the following standard *map* and *lrev* functions

$$\begin{aligned} \text{map } f \ [] &= [] \\ \text{map } f \ (a : x) &= f \ a : \text{map } f \ x \\ \text{lrev } x &= \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \ x \ [] \\ &\text{where } \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \ [] \ h &= h \\ &\text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \ (a : x) \ h &= \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \ x \ (a : h), \end{aligned}$$

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we may reverse a given list after applying some function to each element.

$$lrev (map f x)$$

This program is clear and simple, but not very efficient because of the intermediate list passed between *map* and *lrev*. We remove it by the classic unfolding–folding method (Burstall & Darlington, 1977), in which we develop programs by repeatedly unfolding function calls to their bodies and folding expressions into corresponding function calls. We introduce a new function that denotes the composition of *map* and *lrev*

$$revMap f x = lrev (map f x)$$

and try to simplify this equation as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} revMap f x &= \{ \text{unfolding } revMap \} \\ &\quad lrev (map f x) \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } lrev \} \\ &\quad aux_{lrev} (map f x) [] \end{aligned}$$

The obtained program, $revMap f x = aux_{lrev} (map f x) []$, is not satisfactory. The intermediate list between aux_{lrev} and *map* still exists. As before, we introduce a new function that corresponds to the composition of aux_{lrev} and *map*

$$aux_{revMap} f x h = aux_{lrev} (map f x) h$$

Then we work out its recursive definition. Since *map* and aux_{lrev} are defined based on pattern-matching, we perform a case analysis,

$$\begin{aligned} aux_{revMap} f [] h &= \{ \text{unfolding } aux_{revMap} \} \\ &\quad aux_{lrev} (map f []) h \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } map \text{ and } aux_{lrev} \} \\ &\quad h \\ aux_{revMap} f (a : x) h &= \{ \text{unfolding } aux_{revMap} \} \\ &\quad aux_{lrev} (map f (a : x)) h \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } map \text{ and } aux_{lrev} \} \\ &\quad aux_{lrev} (map f x) (f a : h) \\ &= \{ \text{folding } aux_{revMap} \} \\ &\quad aux_{revMap} f x (f a : h) \end{aligned}$$

In summary, we have developed the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} revMap f x &= aux_{revMap} f x [] \\ \textbf{where } aux_{revMap} f [] h &= h \\ aux_{revMap} f (a : x) h &= aux_{revMap} f x (f a : h) \end{aligned}$$

We have succeeded in eliminating the intermediate list.

We would like to develop many programs in such a transformational way. However, it is known that in general deforestation for accumulative functions is difficult (Chin, 1994; Kühnemann, 1999). In particular, naive unfolding–folding fails to eliminate intermediate structures constructed in accumulative parameters.

To see the difficulty, consider the following slightly different program,

$$\text{map } f \text{ (lrev } x)$$

We expect that $\text{map } f \text{ (lrev } x) = \text{revMap } f \text{ } x$ holds. To confirm this intuition, let us develop a recursive definition of $\text{revMap}' f \text{ } x = \text{map } f \text{ (lrev } x)$ and see whether $\text{revMap}' = \text{revMap}$ holds,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{revMap}' f \text{ } x &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{revMap}' \} \\ &\quad \text{map } f \text{ (lrev } x) \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{lrev} \} \\ &\quad \text{map } f \text{ (aux}_{\text{lrev}} \text{ } x \text{ [])} \end{aligned}$$

We have encountered another composition that consists of map and aux_{lrev} , and therefore we introduce another auxiliary function:

$$\text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ } x \text{ } h = \text{map } f \text{ (aux}_{\text{lrev}} \text{ } x \text{ } h).$$

We go on with the derivation,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ [] } h &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} \} \\ &\quad \text{map } f \text{ (aux}_{\text{lrev}} \text{ [] } h) \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \} \\ &\quad \text{map } f \text{ } h \\ \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ (a : x) } h &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} \} \\ &\quad \text{map } f \text{ (aux}_{\text{lrev}} \text{ (a : x) } h) \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \} \\ &\quad \text{map } f \text{ (aux}_{\text{lrev}} \text{ } x \text{ (a : h))} \\ &= \{ \text{folding } \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} \} \\ &\quad \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ } x \text{ (a : h)} \end{aligned}$$

We have developed the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{revMap}' f \text{ } x &= \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ } x \text{ []} \\ \textbf{where } \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ [] } h &= \text{map } f \text{ } h \\ \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ (a : x) } h &= \text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'} f \text{ } x \text{ (a : h)} \end{aligned}$$

The derived revMap' is different from revMap . In particular, it still uses an intermediate list that is accumulated by $\text{aux}_{\text{revMap}'}$ and then consumed by $\text{map } f$.

As seen, deforestation for accumulative functions is nontrivial. Several solutions have been proposed (Kühnemann, 1998; Correnson *et al.*, 1999; Nishimura, 2004; Voigtländer, 2004; Voigtländer & Kühnemann, 2004; Katsumata & Nishimura, 2008). Here we introduce another method. It is based on a new program transformation named *IO swapping*. From lrev , IO swapping yields another but equivalent function, lrev^\frown .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{lrev}^\frown x &= \textbf{let } (r, []) = \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}}^\frown x \text{ } x \textbf{ in } r \\ \textbf{where } \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}}^\frown [] x &= ([], x) \\ \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}}^\frown (_ : y) x &= \textbf{let } (r, a : x') = \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}}^\frown y \text{ } x \\ &\quad \textbf{in } (a : r, x') \end{aligned}$$

The auxiliary function, aux^\frown , is in the *there-and-back-again* style (Danvy & Goldberg, 2005): It traverses the input list at call time, and then it traverses the input list again at return time. In the definition of lev , the result is accumulated at call time. In the definition of lev^\frown , the result is accumulated at return time.

Now compare lev^\frown to lev carefully. In lev , each list element is shifted to the accumulative parameter, h , on each *call* of aux_{lev} . In lev^\frown , each element is shifted to r , the first component of the result, on each *return* of aux_{lev}^\frown . Here lies the essence of IO swapping: It swaps call-time and return-time computations.

Function lev^\frown leads to a successful deforestation because it constructs the list not in an accumulative parameter but in a return value. We confirm it by developing $revMap^\frown f x = map f (lev^\frown x)$. The main part is to work out the following function,

$$aux_{revMap}^\frown f y x = \mathbf{let} (r, x') = aux^\frown y x \mathbf{in} (map f r, x'),$$

and it is achieved as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} aux_{revMap}^\frown f [] x &= \{ \text{unfolding } aux_{revMap}^\frown \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let} (r, x') = aux_{lev}^\frown [] x \mathbf{in} (map f r, x') \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } aux_{lev}^\frown \} \\ &\quad (map f [], x) \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } map f \} \\ &\quad ([], x) \\ \\ aux_{revMap}^\frown f (_ : y) x &= \{ \text{unfolding } aux_{revMap}^\frown \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let} (r, x') = aux_{lev}^\frown (_ : y) x \mathbf{in} (map f r, x') \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } aux_{lev}^\frown \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let} (r', a : x') = aux_{lev}^\frown y x \mathbf{in} (map f (a : r'), x') \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } map f \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let} (r', a : x') = aux_{lev}^\frown y x \mathbf{in} (f a : map f r', x') \\ &= \{ \text{folding } aux_{revMap}^\frown \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let} (r'', a : x') = aux_{revMap}^\frown y x \mathbf{in} (f a : r'', x') \end{aligned}$$

We have obtained the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} revMap^\frown f x &= \mathbf{let} (r, []) = aux_{revMap}^\frown f x x \mathbf{in} r \\ &\quad \mathbf{where} \quad aux_{revMap}^\frown f [] x = ([], x) \\ &\quad \quad \quad aux_{revMap}^\frown f (_ : y) x = \mathbf{let} (r, a : x') = aux_{revMap}^\frown f y x \\ &\quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \mathbf{in} (f a : r, x') \end{aligned}$$

The $revMap^\frown$ function does not contain construction of intermediate lists; moreover, by applying IO swapping backward to it, we indeed obtain $revMap$.

We have considered deforestation of accumulative functions. In fact, for several kinds of manipulations besides deforestation, it has been pointed out that accumulative functions are difficult to manipulate. Nontrivial methods have been proposed for dealing with them, including those for automatic theorem proving (Boyer & Moore, 1975; Boyer et al., 1976; Giesl, 2000; Giesl et al., 2007), those for higher order removal (Nishimura, 2003; Katsumata & Nishimura, 2008), and those for program inversion (Glück & Kawabe, 2005; Mogensen, 2006; Matsuda et al., 2010).

$$\begin{array}{ll}
[] ++ y & = y & \text{reverse } [] & = [] \\
(a : x) ++ y & = a : (x ++ y) & \text{reverse } (a : x) & = \text{reverse } x ++ [a] \\
\\
\text{take } 0 \ x & = [] & \text{drop } 0 \ x & = x \\
\text{take } n \ [] & = [] & \text{drop } n \ [] & = [] \\
\text{take } (n + 1) \ (a : x) & = a : \text{take } n \ x & \text{drop } (n + 1) \ (a : x) & = \text{drop } n \ x \\
\\
\text{foldr } f \ e \ [] & = e & \text{foldl } f \ e \ [] & = e \\
\text{foldr } f \ e \ (a : x) & = f \ a \ (\text{foldr } f \ e \ x) & \text{foldl } f \ e \ (a : x) & = \text{foldl } f \ (f \ e \ a) \ x \\
\\
\text{unfoldr } \psi \ v & = \text{case } \psi \ v \ \text{of } \text{Nothing} \rightarrow [] \\
& \quad \text{Just } (a, v') \rightarrow a : \text{unfoldr } \psi \ v'
\end{array}$$

Fig. 1. Definitions of some standard functions.

We show that IO swapping, which we introduce in Section 3, could reduce the difficulty of manipulating accumulative programs. We demonstrate effectiveness of IO swapping through several examples: deforestation (Sections 4 and 7), higher order removal (Section 5), and program inversion (Section 6). In addition, we show manipulation of tree-operating functions in Section 7, and discuss a relationship to circular programs (Bird, 1984) in Section 8. It is worth noting that existing methods are usually stronger than IO swapping. They can deal with most examples presented here; moreover, they may be simpler and may be able to deal with examples that cannot be done by IO swapping. A distinctive feature of IO swapping is that it can be used for several kinds of manipulations.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Basic definitions

We use Haskell (Peyton Jones, 2003) for describing programs. We do not consider undefined values and nonterminating computations. Some standard functions we use are summarized in Figure 1.

We call computations in arguments “call-time computations” and those in return values “return-time computations.” Since we consider lazy semantics, these terminologies may sound slightly odd – all computations are to be performed by need. We will revisit this issue after introducing an IO swapping rule, Theorem 5.

2.2 Shortcut deforestation

Deforestation (Wadler, 1990) (also called fusion) is a method of eliminating intermediate structures that are used for combining functions. Here we introduce *shortcut deforestation* devised by Gill (1996) and Gill *et al.* (1993).

Theorem 1 (foldr/build (Gill et al., 1993))

The following equation holds:

$$\text{foldr } f \ e \ (\text{build } g) = g \ f \ e,$$

where $\text{build} :: (\forall \beta. (A \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow [A]$ is defined by $\text{build } g = g \ (\cdot) \ []$.

Since we know that *foldr* *f e* replaces list constructors (*:*) and *[]* by parameters *f* and *e*, respectively, we can avoid producing the intermediate list once the constructors appearing in the intermediate list are specified. Function *build* certainly captures the constructors, as its polymorphic type guarantees.

There is the dual of the *foldr/build* rule, called the *destroy/unfoldr* rule. It is firstly formulated by Takano and Meijer (1995) and later rephrased by Svenningsson (2002).

Theorem 2 (destroy/unfoldr (Svenningsson, 2002))

The following equation holds:

$$\text{destroy } g \text{ (unfoldr } \psi \text{ e)} = g \ \psi \ \text{e}$$

where $\text{destroy} :: (\forall \alpha. (\alpha \rightarrow \text{Maybe } (B, \alpha)) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow C) \rightarrow [B] \rightarrow C$ is defined below.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{destroy } g \ x &= g \ \text{out } x \\ \mathbf{where} \ \text{out } [] &= \text{Nothing} \\ \text{out } (a : x) &= \text{Just } (a, x) \end{aligned}$$

Function *destroy* specifies how the intermediate list will be consumed. The polymorphic type of *g* guarantees that *out* destructs the intermediate lists. Then, since *unfoldr* regularly generates a list, we can directly calculate the final result from values supplied by ψ .

3 IO swapping

IO swapping is a transformation that turns call-time computations into return-time computations and *vice versa*. We introduce IO swapping rules for four kinds of functions: *foldl*, tail-recursive functions, *foldr*, and list-hylomorphisms (Meijer *et al.*, 1991; Backhouse *et al.*, 1999). We demonstrate their use in the following sections. We recommend those who are interested in examples to go to the next section and refer to this section by need.

The simplest IO swapping rule is that for *foldl*.

Theorem 3 (IO swapping for foldl)

The following function $\widehat{\text{foldl}}$ is equivalent to *foldl*.

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{\text{foldl}} \ f \ e \ x &= \mathbf{let} \ (r, []) = \text{aux}_{\widehat{\text{foldl}}} \ x \ x \ \mathbf{in} \ r \\ \mathbf{where} \ \text{aux}_{\widehat{\text{foldl}}} \ [] \ x &= (e, x) \\ \text{aux}_{\widehat{\text{foldl}}} \ (_ : y) \ x &= \mathbf{let} \ (r, a : x') = \text{aux}_{\widehat{\text{foldl}}} \ y \ x \\ &\mathbf{in} \ (f \ r \ a, x') \end{aligned}$$

Proof

It is sufficient to confirm that the following equation holds for any list *y* that is not strictly longer than *x*, where $|y|$ denotes the length of list *y*.

$$\text{aux}_{\widehat{\text{foldl}}} \ y \ x = (\text{foldl } f \ e \ (\text{take } |y| \ x), \text{drop } |y| \ x)$$

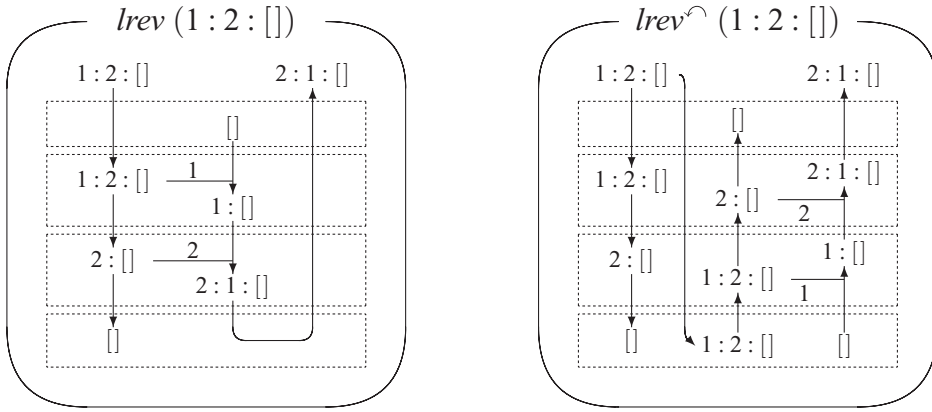


Fig. 2. Outlines of the processes of evaluating $lrev (1 : 2 : [])$ and $lrev^\circ (1 : 2 : [])$: each broken-lined box stands for a computation at a recursive step.

We prove it by induction. It is obvious when y is $[]$. When y is $b : z$ and is not longer than x , we reason as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 aux_{foldl}^\circ (b : z) x &= \{ \text{definition of } aux_{foldl}^\circ \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let} (r, a : x') = aux_{foldl}^\circ z x \mathbf{in} (f r a, x') \\
 &= \{ \text{induction hypothesis (note that } z \text{ is not longer than } x) \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let} (a : x') = drop |z| x \\
 &\quad \quad r = foldl f e (take |z| x) \\
 &\quad \mathbf{in} (f r a, x') \\
 &= \{ \text{claim: } foldl f e (x ++ [a]) = f (foldl f e x) a \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let} (a : x') = drop |z| x \\
 &\quad \mathbf{in} (foldl f e (take |z| x ++ [a]), x') \\
 &= \{ \text{definitions of } take \text{ and } drop \} \\
 &\quad (foldl f e (take |b : z| x), drop |b : z| x)
 \end{aligned}$$

The claim, $foldl f e (x ++ [a]) = f (foldl f e x) a$, can be straightforwardly proved by structural induction over x . \square

Theorem 3 introduces $foldl^\circ$, that is $foldl$ in the *There And Back Again* (TABA) pattern (Danvy & Goldberg, 2005). TABA is a programming pattern in which a recursive function traverses a data structure in its call time (to get *there*) and then performs another traversal in its return time (to *back again*).

For example, recall the linear-time reverse function, $lrev$. Since $lrev$ is an instance of $foldl$, namely $lrev = foldl (\lambda r a \rightarrow a : r) [],$ Theorem 3 is applicable and results in $lrev^\circ$ as discussed in the Introduction if we inline parameter functions.

Figure 2 depicts the processes of evaluating $lrev (1 : 2 : [])$ and $lrev^\circ (1 : 2 : [])$. The broken-lined boxes stand for a computation at a recursive step, and the whole figures outline stack frames constructed through recursive calls. Down and up arrows denote data flows for accumulative arguments and return values, respectively. It might be helpful to regard these figures as data-flow graphs of attribute grammars. From this viewpoint, down and up arrows, i.e., call-time

and return-time computations, could be, respectively, understood as inherited and synthesized attributes.

Note that the down arrows for *lrev* exactly correspond to the up arrows in $lrev^\wedge$. This shows the main idea of IO swapping. IO swapping is a transformation that swaps call-time computations (down arrows) and return-time computation (up arrows) by reversing stack frames. A technical issue is the estimation of the depth of recursive calls. Since a function usually starts its computation from the top of the recursion, its IO-swapped variant should start from the bottom of the recursion. For this purpose, we adopt the TABA pattern: We traverse the first argument and start computation when it is fully destructed.

IO swapping can be extended to tail-recursive functions. We consider the higher order function *loop* as a general form of tail-recursive functions. It takes five arguments, *k*, *p*, *f*, *e*, and *v*, and until *p v* holds, it continues the iteration with updating iteration variable *v* and result *e* to *k v* and *f e v*, respectively. For example, *lrev* is an instance of *loop*: $lrev\ x = loop\ (\lambda_ : x) \rightarrow x) \text{ null } (\lambda h\ (a : _) \rightarrow a : h) []\ x$, where *null* returns *True* if the given list is empty.

Theorem 4 (IO swapping for tail-recursive functions)

The following two functions *loop* and $loop^\wedge$ are equivalent:

$$\begin{aligned}
 loop &:: (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \\
 loop\ k\ p\ f\ e\ v &= \mathbf{if}\ p\ v\ \mathbf{then}\ e\ \mathbf{else}\ loop\ k\ p\ f\ (f\ e\ v)\ (k\ v) \\
 loop^\wedge &:: (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \\
 loop^\wedge\ k\ p\ f\ e\ v &= \mathbf{let}\ (r, _) = aux_{loop}^\wedge\ v\ v\ \mathbf{in}\ r \\
 &\quad \mathbf{where}\ aux_{loop}^\wedge\ w\ v = \mathbf{if}\ p\ w\ \mathbf{then}\ (e, v) \\
 &\quad \quad \mathbf{else}\ \mathbf{let}\ (r, v') = aux_{loop}^\wedge\ (k\ w)\ v \\
 &\quad \quad \mathbf{in}\ (f\ r\ v', k\ v')
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof

Consider function $pk\ v = \mathbf{if}\ p\ v\ \mathbf{then}\ \mathit{Nothing}\ \mathbf{else}\ \mathit{Just}\ (v, k\ v)$. We prove the theorem by confirming the following two claims:

$$\begin{aligned}
 loop\ k\ p\ f\ e\ v &= \{ \text{claim 1} \} \\
 &\quad foldl\ f\ e\ (unfoldr\ pk\ v) \\
 &= \{ \text{Theorem 3} \} \\
 &\quad foldl^\wedge\ f\ e\ (unfoldr\ pk\ v) \\
 &= \{ \text{claim 2} \} \\
 &\quad loop^\wedge\ k\ p\ f\ e\ v
 \end{aligned}$$

Both claims can be proved by Theorem 2. We show the latter in detail because it is more complex.

In order to use Theorem 2, we work out a *destroy*-form of $foldl^\wedge$. This is not difficult. It is sufficient to abstract out all the destruction (i.e., pattern-matching in

this case) of the input. Then we obtain the following function $foldlD^\wedge$.

$$\begin{aligned} foldlD^\wedge f e \psi x = & \mathbf{let} (r, x') = aux \ x \ x \ \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{case} \ \psi \ x' \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{Nothing} \rightarrow r \\ & \mathbf{where} \ aux \ y \ x = \mathbf{case} \ \psi \ y \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{Nothing} \rightarrow (e, x) \\ & \quad \mathbf{Just} \ (_, y') \rightarrow \mathbf{let} (r, x'') = aux \ y' \ x \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{Just} \ (a, x') = \psi \ x'' \\ & \quad \mathbf{in} \ (f \ r \ a, x') \end{aligned}$$

Note that $destroy (foldlD^\wedge f e) x$ yields the following after inlining the parameters.

$$\begin{aligned} destroy (foldlD^\wedge f e) x = & \mathbf{let} (r, x') = aux \ x \ x \ \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{case} \ x' \ \mathbf{of} \ [] \rightarrow r \\ & \mathbf{where} \ aux \ y \ x = \mathbf{case} \ y \ \mathbf{of} \ [] \rightarrow (e, x) \\ & \quad (_ : y') \rightarrow \mathbf{let} (r, x'') = aux \ y' \ x \\ & \quad \quad a : x' = x'' \\ & \quad \mathbf{in} \ (f \ r \ a, x') \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $foldl^\wedge f e x = destroy (foldlD^\wedge f e) x$ holds. Moreover, $foldlD^\wedge f e$ has the polymorphic type that Theorem 2 requires. Thus, Theorem 2 is applicable,

$$\begin{aligned} & foldl^\wedge f e (unfoldr \ pk \ v) \\ &= \{ \text{destroy form} \} \\ & \quad destroy (foldlD^\wedge f e) (unfoldr \ pk \ v) \\ &= \{ \text{Theorem 2} \} \\ & \quad \mathbf{let} (r, v') = aux \ v \ v \ \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{case} \ p \ v' \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{True} \rightarrow r \\ & \quad \mathbf{where} \ aux \ w \ v = \mathbf{case} \ p \ w \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{True} \rightarrow (e, v) \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{False} \rightarrow \mathbf{let} (r, v') = aux \ (k \ w) \ v \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{case} \ p \ v' \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{False} \rightarrow (f \ r \ v', k \ v') \end{aligned}$$

Now it is sufficient to confirm that the underlined pattern-matching always succeeds.

Let $k^0 v = v$ and $k^{n+1} v = k^n (k v)$. Assume that aux above performs n recursive calls. From the definition, $p (k^{n-1} v) = \mathbf{True}$ and $p (k^m v) = \mathbf{False}$ for all $0 \leq m < n-1$. Now observe the second component of the return value. Starting from the input, v , we repeatedly apply k to it, with confirming that it does not satisfy p , and after $n-1$ times of applications of k , it reaches the top of the recursion and confirms that it satisfies p . This observation proves that all of the underlined pattern-matching succeeds. \square

Although the auxiliary function, aux_{loop}^\wedge , is not in the TABA pattern, the essence of Theorem 4 is very similar to Theorem 3. aux_{loop}^\wedge uses its first argument for moving to the bottom of the recursion, and then it simulates the computation of $loop$ in its return-time computation.

We have seen that call-time computations can be simulated by return-time computations. The following theorem shows that the converse also holds.

Theorem 5 (IO swapping for foldr)

The following function $foldr^\wedge$ is equivalent to $foldr$.

$$\begin{aligned} foldr^\wedge f e x = & \mathbf{let} (r, []) = aux_{foldr}^\wedge \ x \ x \ e \ \mathbf{in} \ r \\ & \mathbf{where} \ aux_{foldr}^\wedge \ [] \ x \ h = (h, x) \\ & \quad aux_{foldr}^\wedge \ (_ : y) \ x \ h = \mathbf{let} (r, a : x') = aux_{foldr}^\wedge \ y \ x \ (f \ a \ h) \\ & \quad \mathbf{in} \ (r, x') \end{aligned}$$

Proof

First, note that $foldr\ f\ e\ x$ is equivalent to $foldl\ (flip\ f)\ e\ (reverse\ x)$, where $flip\ f\ x\ y = f\ y\ x$. Bird and Wadler (1988) call it the third duality theorem. Now we reason as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} foldr\ f\ e\ x &= \{ \text{third duality theorem} \} \\ &\quad foldl\ (flip\ f)\ e\ (reverse\ x) \\ &= \{ reverse = lrev = lrev^\wedge \} \\ &\quad foldl\ (flip\ f)\ e\ (lrev^\wedge\ x) \\ &= \{ \text{definition of } lrev^\wedge \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (r, []) = aux_{lrev}^\wedge\ x\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ foldl\ (flip\ f)\ e\ r \\ &= \{ \text{claim: } (\mathbf{let}\ (r, x') = aux_{lrev}^\wedge\ y\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ (foldl\ (flip\ f)\ h\ r, x')) \\ &\quad = aux_{foldr}^\wedge\ y\ x\ h \} foldr^\wedge\ f\ e\ x \end{aligned}$$

We prove the claim by structural induction over y . The claim obviously holds when y is $[]$. When $y = _ : z$, we reason as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} aux_{foldr}^\wedge\ (_ : z)\ x\ h &= \{ \text{definition of } aux_{foldr}^\wedge \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (r, a : x') = aux_{foldr}^\wedge\ z\ x\ (f\ a\ h)\ \mathbf{in}\ (r, x') \\ &= \{ \text{induction hypothesis} \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (r', a : x') = aux_{lrev}^\wedge\ z\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ (foldl\ (flip\ f)\ (f\ a\ h)\ r', x') \\ &= \{ \text{definitions of } foldl\ \text{ and } flip \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (r', a : x') = aux_{lrev}^\wedge\ z\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ (foldl\ (flip\ f)\ h\ (a : r'), x') \\ &= \{ \text{definition of } aux_{lrev}^\wedge \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (a : r', x') = aux_{lrev}^\wedge\ (_ : z)\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ (foldl\ (flip\ f)\ h\ (a : r'), x') \end{aligned}$$

Finally, we confirm the termination of $foldr^\wedge$. Note that aux_{foldr}^\wedge is a circular program (Bird, 1984): It uses a part of the second component of its result, a , for computing its third argument. Circularity may lead to nontermination in general, but it is not harmful in this case, because the second component of the result can be calculated without knowing the third argument. \square

Like $foldl^\wedge$, the auxiliary function of $foldr^\wedge$ uses the TABA pattern: It moves to the bottom of the recursion by using the first argument, and then it starts consuming the input lists and accumulates its result in its third argument.

Because $foldr^\wedge$ is a circular program, we should take much care of how their computations go so as to avoid nontermination (Bird, 1984). Yet, now that we know that $foldr^\wedge$ terminates, it is safe to see the effect of IO swapping from the perspective of attribute grammars, as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3 compares two identity functions, $foldr\ (:)\ []$ and $foldr^\wedge\ (:)\ []$. The left picture is standard, and the right one describes the data flow that $foldr^\wedge\ (:)\ []$ composes. Note that down and up arrows correspond to call-time and return-time computations, respectively. Actually, we have so defined “call-time” and “return-time” that they are functional synonyms of “inherited” and “synthesized” in attribute grammars.

Now, like the case of Figure 2, we could find a correspondence between two pictures: The down and up arrows in the left picture, respectively, correspond to the up and down arrows in the center of the right picture; the order of the broken-lined

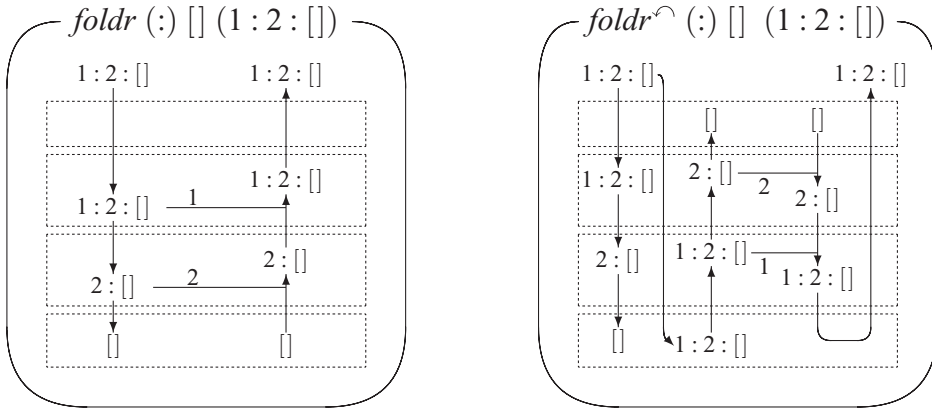


Fig. 3. Outlines of the processes of evaluating $foldr (\cdot) [] (1 : 2 : [])$ and $foldr^{\wedge} (\cdot) [] (1 : 2 : [])$: each broken-lined box stands for a set of data-flow dependencies that a recursive step imposes.

boxes are reverted. Therefore, we can see that $foldr^{\wedge}$ simulates the computation of $foldr$ in its call-time.

Like an extension from Theorem 3 to Theorem 4, we can generalize Theorem 5. We consider functions called list-hylomorphisms (Meijer *et al.*, 1991; Backhouse *et al.*, 1999). List hylomorphisms are captured by the following function $hylo$ that takes five arguments: k , p , f , e , and v . Their roles are similar to those of $loop$. k , p , and v take charge of the iteration, and f and e calculate the final result.

Theorem 6 (IO swapping for list-hylomorphisms)

The following two functions $hylo$ and $hylo^{\wedge}$ are equivalent.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &hylo :: (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \\
 &hylo\ k\ p\ f\ e\ v = \text{if } p\ v\ \text{then } e\ \text{else } f\ v\ (hylo\ k\ p\ f\ e\ (k\ v)) \\
 &hylo^{\wedge} :: (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \\
 &hylo^{\wedge}\ k\ p\ f\ e\ v = \text{let } (r, _) = aux\ v\ v\ e\ \text{in } r \\
 &\quad \text{where } aux\ w\ v\ h = \text{if } p\ w\ \text{then } (h, v) \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \text{else let } (r, v') = aux\ (k\ w)\ v\ (f\ v'\ h) \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \text{in } (r, k\ v')
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof

The proof is very similar to that of Theorem 4: We split $hylo$ into $foldr$ and $unfoldr$, introduce $foldr^{\wedge}$ by Theorem 5, apply the $destroy/unfoldr$ -rule, and confirm that constraints introduced by pattern-matching hold. In addition, we note that aux is terminating, although it is circular. \square

As with Theorem 5, Theorem 6 derives a function that simulates return-time computations at call time by using circularity.

On one hand, Theorems 3 and 4 derive nonaccumulative functions from $foldl$ and $loop$ that are accumulative, and thus possibly improve manipulability. We

demonstrate their effect in Sections 4–7. On the other hand, foldr^\frown and hylo^\frown introduced in Theorems 5 and 6 seem not suitable for manipulation because they are accumulative and moreover have circularity. Therefore, we use them backward, i.e., we derive foldr or hylo from their IO-swapped variants, in Section 8.

We remark on the computational costs of functions IO-swapping derives. As Figures 2 and 3 indicate, the IO-swapped variant does very similar computation to the original, and therefore, their asymptotic time complexities are usually the same.¹ For example, if f and e can be evaluated in constant time, $\text{foldl}^\frown f e x$ runs in time proportional to the length of x . However, IO-swapped variants are usually slower and consume more spaces. They may be non-tail-recursive, although the original ones are tail-recursive. They do multiple traversals over the input; in particular, Theorems 4 and 6 derive functions that invoke k twice as many as the original, which could make the IO-swapped variant twice as slow when k is very costly. Moreover, they are slower because of the additional accumulative parameters and/or return values, and the circularity.

4 Deforesting accumulative functions

Gray code (reflected binary code) is a representation of binary numbers. It is useful for reducing signal errors because two successive numbers differ in only one bit. For example, by three-bits Gray codes, integers from 0 to 7 are respectively represented as 000, 001, 011, 010, 110, 111, 101, and 100.

Consider encoding natural numbers to Gray code. We can naturally develop a function, say itog , for this purpose by composing two functions itoa and grayCode : itoa calculates the binary representation of a given natural number with the highest bit first and the lowest bit last; grayCode transforms it to Gray code by taking exclusive disjunctions between each bit and its previous bit (the bit preceding the first bit is 0). In the resulting list, the initial occurrences of 0s are omitted. Therefore, applying itog to 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 yields [], [1], [1, 1], [1, 0], [1, 1, 0], [1, 1, 1], [1, 0, 1], and [1, 0, 0], respectively.

```

itog n = grayCode (itoa n)
  where itoa v = i2a v []
        i2a v s = if v ≡ 0 then s else i2a (div v 2) (mod v 2 : s)
        grayCode s = gc s 0
        gc [] _     = []
        gc (a : s) f = xor a f : gc s a

```

Here xor calculates an exclusive disjunction, and div and mod respectively calculate the quotient and the remainder of the integer division.

¹ Their asymptotic time complexities can be different. For instance, the head function written by foldr runs in $O(1)$ time by virtue of the lazy evaluation, but its IO-swapped variant requires time proportional to the length of the input list.

Our goal is to deforest the intermediate list passed between *itoa* and *grayCode*. However, naive unfolding–folding cannot deforest it

$$\begin{aligned}
 itog\ n &= \{ \text{unfolding } itog \text{ and } itoa \} \\
 &\quad grayCode\ (i2a\ n\ []) \\
 &= \{ \text{let } i2g^*\ v\ s = grayCode\ (i2a\ v\ s), \text{ and folding } i2g^* \} \\
 &\quad i2g^*\ n\ [] \\
 i2g^*\ v\ s &= \{ \text{unfolding } i2g^* \text{ and } i2a \} \\
 &\quad grayCode\ (\mathbf{if}\ v \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then}\ s \ \mathbf{else}\ i2a\ (div\ v\ 2)\ (mod\ v\ 2 : s)) \\
 &= \{ \text{distributing } grayCode \text{ to each branch} \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{if}\ v \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then}\ grayCode\ s \ \mathbf{else}\ grayCode\ (i2a\ (div\ v\ 2)\ (mod\ v\ 2 : s)) \\
 &= \{ \text{folding } i2g^* \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{if}\ v \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then}\ grayCode\ s \ \mathbf{else}\ i2g^*\ (div\ v\ 2)\ (mod\ v\ 2 : s)
 \end{aligned}$$

We have got the following program. The intermediate list still remains,

$$\begin{aligned}
 itog\ n &= i2g^*\ n\ [] \\
 &\quad \mathbf{where}\ i2g^*\ v\ s = \mathbf{if}\ v \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then}\ grayCode\ s \ \mathbf{else}\ i2g^*\ (div\ v\ 2)\ (mod\ v\ 2 : s)
 \end{aligned}$$

The situation is similar to *revMap'* in the Introduction. Though several methods have been proposed for this problem (Kühnemann, 1998; Correnson *et al.*, 1999; Nishimura, 2004; Voigtländer, 2004; Voigtländer & Kühnemann, 2004; Katsumata & Nishimura, 2008), we use IO swapping. We apply Theorem 4 to *itoa* and obtain its IO-swapped variant, say *itoa*[∧].

$$\begin{aligned}
 itoa^\wedge\ v &= \mathbf{let}\ (r, _) = i2a^\wedge\ v\ v \ \mathbf{in}\ r \\
 &\quad \mathbf{where}\ i2a^\wedge\ w\ v = \mathbf{if}\ w \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then}\ ([], v) \\
 &\quad \quad \mathbf{else}\ \mathbf{let}\ (r, v') = i2a^\wedge\ (div\ w\ 2)\ v \\
 &\quad \quad \mathbf{in}\ (mod\ v'\ 2 : r, div\ v'\ 2)
 \end{aligned}$$

IO swapping moves the list construction from the call-time to the return-time; then we can deforest it by unfolding–folding,

$$\begin{aligned}
 itog\ n &= \{ \text{unfolding } itog \} \\
 &\quad grayCode\ (itoa\ n) \\
 &= \{ \text{Theorem 4} \} \\
 &\quad grayCode\ (itoa^\wedge\ n) \\
 &= \{ \text{unfolding } grayCode \text{ and } itoa^\wedge \} \\
 &\quad gc\ (\mathbf{let}\ (r, _) = i2a^\wedge\ n\ n \ \mathbf{in}\ r)\ 0 \\
 &= \{ \text{let } i2g\ w\ v\ f = \mathbf{let}\ (r, v') = i2a^\wedge\ w\ v \ \mathbf{in}\ (gc\ r\ f, v'), \text{ and folding } i2g \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (r, _) = i2g\ n\ n\ 0 \ \mathbf{in}\ r
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
i2g \ w \ v \ f &= \{ \text{unfolding } i2g \text{ and } i2a^\frown \} \\
&\quad \mathbf{if} \ w \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then} \ (gc \ [] \ f, v) \\
&\quad \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{let} \ (r, v') = i2a^\frown \ (\text{div } w \ 2) \ v \ \mathbf{in} \ (gc \ (\text{mod } v' \ 2 : r) \ f, \text{div } v' \ 2) \\
&= \{ \text{unfolding } gc \} \\
&\quad \mathbf{if} \ w \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then} \ ([], v) \\
&\quad \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{let} \ (r, v') = i2a^\frown \ (\text{div } w \ 2) \ v \\
&\quad \quad \mathbf{in} \ (xor \ (\text{mod } v' \ 2) \ f : gc \ r \ (\text{mod } v' \ 2), \text{div } v' \ 2) \\
&= \{ \text{folding } i2g \} \\
&\quad \mathbf{if} \ w \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then} \ ([], v) \\
&\quad \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{let} \ (r', v') = i2g \ (\text{div } w \ 2) \ v \ (\text{mod } v' \ 2) \\
&\quad \quad \mathbf{in} \ (xor \ (\text{mod } v' \ 2) \ f : r', \text{div } v' \ 2)
\end{aligned}$$

We have obtained the following program that does not construct any intermediate list:

$$\begin{aligned}
itog \ n &= \mathbf{let} \ (r, _) = i2g \ n \ n \ 0 \ \mathbf{in} \ r \\
&\quad \mathbf{where} \ i2g \ w \ v \ f = \mathbf{if} \ w \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then} \ ([], v) \\
&\quad \quad \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{let} \ (r', v') = i2g \ (\text{div } w \ 2) \ v \ (\text{mod } v' \ 2) \\
&\quad \quad \quad \mathbf{in} \ (xor \ (\text{mod } v' \ 2) \ f : r', \text{div } v' \ 2)
\end{aligned}$$

Note that $i2g$ is a circular program: from the second component of its result, v' , which retains the inputted decimal number, it calculates its third argument, $\text{mod } v' \ 2$, which will be used to calculate the next bit. This circularity does not introduce nontermination, because the third argument is unnecessary for calculating the second result. It was pointed out (Nishimura, 2003; Nishimura, 2004; Voigtländer, 2004) that introduction of circularities enables us to deforest accumulative functions. Indeed, IO swapping derived a circular program.

5 Removing higher order value in accumulation

Next, we consider a cooperation between IO swapping and the shortcut deforestation.

We rewrite *grayCode* and *itoa* using *foldr* and *build*, respectively.

$$\begin{aligned}
grayCode \ s &= foldr \ (\lambda a \ r \ f \rightarrow xor \ a \ f : r \ a) \ (\lambda _ \rightarrow []) \ s \ 0 \\
itoa \ v &= build \ (\lambda c \ n \rightarrow i2a' \ v \ n \ c) \\
&\quad \mathbf{where} \ i2a' \ v \ s \ c = \mathbf{if} \ v \equiv 0 \ \mathbf{then} \ s \ \mathbf{else} \ i2a' \ (\text{div } v \ 2) \ (c \ (\text{mod } v \ 2) \ s) \ c
\end{aligned}$$

Then we can apply the shortcut deforestation.

$$\begin{aligned}
itog \ v &= \{ foldr/build \ \text{forms} \} \\
&\quad foldr \ (\lambda a \ r \ f \rightarrow xor \ a \ f : r \ a) \ (\lambda _ \rightarrow []) \ (build \ (\lambda c \ n \rightarrow i2a' \ v \ n \ c)) \ 0 \\
&= \{ \text{Theorem 1} \} \\
&\quad i2a' \ v \ (\lambda _ \rightarrow []) \ (\lambda a \ r \ f \rightarrow xor \ a \ f : r \ a) \ 0
\end{aligned}$$

After inlining the parameter functions, we obtain the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} itog\ n = & i2g'\ n\ (\lambda_ \rightarrow [])\ 0 \\ & \mathbf{where}\ i2g'\ v\ s = \mathbf{if}\ v \equiv 0\ \mathbf{then}\ s \\ & \quad \mathbf{else}\ i2g'\ (div\ v\ 2)\ (\lambda f \rightarrow xor\ (mod\ v\ 2)\ f : s\ (mod\ v\ 2)) \end{aligned}$$

The intermediate list is eliminated. However, instead of it, $i2g'$ accumulates a rather complicated function closure.

There are transformations that eliminate such function closures and thereby obtain a simpler program (Nishimura, 2003; Nishimura, 2004; Katsumata & Nishimura, 2008). We demonstrate that IO swapping can eliminate the closure.

Since $i2g'$ is tail-recursive, Theorem 4 is applicable and yields the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} itog\ n = & \mathbf{let}\ (r, _) = i2g'^{\frown}\ n\ n\ \mathbf{in}\ r\ 0 \\ & \mathbf{where}\ i2g'^{\frown}\ v\ n = \mathbf{if}\ v \equiv 0\ \mathbf{then}\ ((\lambda_ \rightarrow []), n) \\ & \quad \mathbf{else}\ \mathbf{let}\ (s, v') = i2g'^{\frown}\ (div\ v\ 2)\ n \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{in}\ ((\lambda f \rightarrow xor\ (mod\ v'\ 2)\ f : s\ (mod\ v'\ 2)), div\ v'\ 2) \end{aligned}$$

For removing the function closure in the result, we consider another function $ai2g^{\frown}$ that supplies an additional argument to $i2g'^{\frown}$.

$$ai2g^{\frown}\ w\ v\ f = \mathbf{let}\ (r, s) = i2g'^{\frown}\ w\ v\ \mathbf{in}\ (r\ f, s)$$

Then, $itog\ n = \mathbf{let}\ (r, _) = ai2g^{\frown}\ n\ n\ 0\ \mathbf{in}\ r$ holds. Moreover, $ai2g^{\frown}$ does not require function closures. In fact, $ai2g^{\frown}$ is $i2g$ that we derived in the previous section, as the following calculation shows:

$$\begin{aligned} ai2g^{\frown}\ w\ v\ f &= \{ \text{unfolding } ai2g^{\frown} \text{ and } i2g'^{\frown} \} \\ & \mathbf{if}\ w \equiv 0\ \mathbf{then}\ ([], v) \\ & \quad \mathbf{else}\ \mathbf{let}\ (s, v') = i2g'^{\frown}\ (div\ w\ 2)\ v \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{in}\ (xor\ (mod\ v'\ 2)\ f : s\ (mod\ v'\ 2), div\ v'\ 2) \\ &= \{ \text{folding } ai2g^{\frown} \} \\ & \mathbf{if}\ w \equiv 0\ \mathbf{then}\ ([], v) \\ & \quad \mathbf{else}\ \mathbf{let}\ (s', v') = ai2g^{\frown}\ (div\ w\ 2)\ v\ (mod\ v'\ 2) \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{in}\ (xor\ (mod\ v'\ 2)\ f : s', div\ v'\ 2) \end{aligned}$$

The underlying observation is that higher order results can be removed by supplying additional arguments, and therefore we can remove higher order accumulations by transforming them to higher order results. Indeed we did it by using IO swapping.

As another example, we consider the summation in the continuation-passing style.

$$\begin{aligned} sumCPS\ x = & sumC\ x\ (\lambda v \rightarrow v) \\ & \mathbf{where}\ sumC\ []\ k = k\ 0 \\ & \quad sumC\ (a : x)\ k = sumC\ x\ (\lambda v \rightarrow k\ (a + v)) \end{aligned}$$

Note that $sumCPS\ x = foldl\ (\lambda k\ a\ v \rightarrow k\ (a+v))\ (\lambda v \rightarrow v)\ x\ 0$. Therefore, Theorem 3 is applicable and yields the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} sumCPS^{\wedge}\ x &= \mathbf{let}\ (k, []) = sumC^{\wedge}\ x\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ k\ 0 \\ &\quad \mathbf{where}\ sumC^{\wedge}\ []\ x = (\lambda v \rightarrow v, x) \\ &\quad\quad sumC^{\wedge}\ (_ : y)\ x = \mathbf{let}\ (k, a : x') = sumC^{\wedge}\ y\ x \\ &\quad\quad\quad \mathbf{in}\ (\lambda v \rightarrow k\ (a + v), x') \end{aligned}$$

Now we can remove the higher order result by supplying an additional argument

$$sumC'^{\wedge}\ y\ x\ v = \mathbf{let}\ (k, x') = sumC^{\wedge}\ y\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ (k\ v, x')$$

We calculate a recursive definition of $sumC'^{\wedge}$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} sumC'^{\wedge}\ []\ x\ v &= \{ \text{unfolding } sumC'^{\wedge} \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (k, x') = sumC^{\wedge}\ []\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ (k\ v, x') \\ &= \{ \text{unfolding } sumC^{\wedge} \} \\ &\quad (v, x) \\ sumC'^{\wedge}\ (_ : y)\ x\ v &= \{ \text{unfolding } sumC'^{\wedge}\ \text{ and } sumC^{\wedge} \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (k, a : x') = sumC^{\wedge}\ y\ x\ \mathbf{in}\ (k\ (a + v), x') \\ &= \{ \text{folding } sumC'^{\wedge} \} \\ &\quad \mathbf{let}\ (r, a : x') = sumC'^{\wedge}\ y\ x\ (a + v)\ \mathbf{in}\ (r, x') \end{aligned}$$

We have developed the following first-order program:

$$\begin{aligned} sumCPS'^{\wedge}\ x &= \mathbf{let}\ (r, []) = sumC'^{\wedge}\ x\ x\ 0\ \mathbf{in}\ r \\ &\quad \mathbf{where}\ sumC'^{\wedge}\ []\ x\ v = (v, x) \\ &\quad\quad sumC'^{\wedge}\ (_ : y)\ x\ v = \mathbf{let}\ (r, a : x') = sumC'^{\wedge}\ y\ x\ (a + v) \\ &\quad\quad\quad \mathbf{in}\ (r, x') \end{aligned}$$

This is also a terminating circular program. Nevertheless, it is different from the familiar summation function. We will revisit it in Section 8.

6 Inverting accumulative function

The next transformation is program inversion, which generates a program that takes an output and returns the input of the original program. We consider *parse* that parses expressions written in the reverse Polish notation. For example, $parse\ [“21”, “5”, “36”, “+”, “*”] = Op\ “*”\ (Val\ “21”) (Op\ “+”\ (Val\ “5”) (Val\ “36”))$. The following is a program for *parse*, in which we use predicate *isOp* that checks for operators

$$\begin{aligned} parse\ x &= \mathbf{let}\ [e] = ps\ x\ []\ \mathbf{in}\ e \\ &\quad \mathbf{where}\ ps\ []\ st = st \\ &\quad\quad ps\ (a : x)\ st = \mathbf{if}\ isOp\ a\ \mathbf{then}\ \mathbf{let}\ (e_1 : e_2 : st') = st \\ &\quad\quad\quad \mathbf{in}\ ps\ x\ (Op\ a\ e_2\ e_1 : st') \\ &\quad\quad\quad \mathbf{else}\ ps\ x\ (Val\ a : st) \end{aligned}$$

We would like to derive its inverse, *unparse*, such that $\text{unparse} (\text{parse } x) = x$. But it is nontrivial. Consider the following reasoning:

$$\text{unparse} (\text{parse } x) = x \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{assume that } x = a : x' \text{ and } \neg(\text{isOp } a); \text{ unfolding } \\ \text{unparse } (ps \ x' \ [Val \ a]) \mid \neg(\text{isOp } a) = a : x' \end{array} \right\}$$

Here we get stuck. It is unclear what $ps \ x' \ [Val \ a]$ will result in, and therefore we cannot know when *unparse* should result in $a : x'$. Several methods have been proposed (Glück & Kawabe, 2005; Mogensen, 2006; Matsuda *et al.*, 2010) for solving this problem.

By swapping the accumulative parameter and the result, IO swapping makes it apparent what kinds of outputs are generated from each branch and thereby makes inversion easier. Let us see its effect. First, we decompose *parse* as $\text{parse } x = \text{unwrap} (ps \ x \ [])$ where $\text{unwrap} [r] = r$. Since *ps* is an instance of *foldl*, Theorem 3 is applicable and results in the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{parse } x &= \mathbf{let} (r', []) = ps^\frown x \ x \ \mathbf{in} \ \text{unwrap } r' \\ &\quad \mathbf{where} \ ps^\frown [] \ x = ([], x) \\ ps^\frown (_ : y) \ x &= \mathbf{let} (st, a : x') = ps^\frown y \ x \\ &\quad \mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{if} \ \text{isOp } a \ \mathbf{then} \ \mathbf{let} (e_1 : e_2 : st') = st \\ &\quad \quad \quad \mathbf{in} \ (\text{Op } a \ e_2 \ e_1 : st', x') \\ &\quad \mathbf{else} \ (\text{Val } a : st, x') \end{aligned}$$

The derived function may appear to be unsuitable for inversion because ps^\frown discards its first argument and therefore is not injective. This is not a problem. Recall that IO swapping introduces the first argument only for counting the depth of the recursion. In other words, the first argument is not important for inversion. Therefore, we work out function *ups* that satisfies the following equation

$$\text{ups} (ps^\frown y \ x) = x$$

It is indeed sufficient for our purpose, as the following calculation confirms:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{unparse} (\text{parse } x) = x &\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{unfolding } \text{parse} \} \\ &\quad \text{unparse} (\mathbf{let} (r', []) = ps^\frown x \ x \ \mathbf{in} \ \text{unwrap } r') = x \\ &\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{definition of } \text{ups} \} \\ &\quad \text{unparse} (\mathbf{let} (r', []) = ps^\frown x \ x \ \mathbf{in} \ \text{unwrap } r') = \text{ups} (ps^\frown x \ x) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{definition of } \text{unwrap} \text{ and simplification} \} \\ &\quad \text{unparse } r = \text{ups} ([r], []) \end{aligned}$$

Now let us develop a recursive definition of *ups*.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ups} (ps^\frown [] \ x) &= x \Leftrightarrow \{ \text{unfolding } ps^\frown \} \\ &\quad \text{ups} ([], x) = x \\ \text{ups} (ps^\frown (_ : y) \ x) &= x \\ &\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{definition of } \text{ups} \} \\ &\quad \text{ups} (ps^\frown (_ : y) \ x) = \text{ups} (ps^\frown y \ x) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{assume } (e_1 : e_2 : st', a : x') = ps^\frown y \ x \text{ and } \text{isOp } a; \text{ unfolding } ps^\frown \} \\ &\quad \text{ups} (\text{Op } a \ e_2 \ e_1 : st', x') \mid \text{isOp } a = \text{ups} (e_1 : e_2 : st', a : x') \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{ups } (ps^\frown (_ : y) x) = x \\
& \Leftrightarrow \{ \text{definition of ups } \} \\
& \text{ups } (ps^\frown (_ : y) x) = \text{ups } (ps^\frown y x) \\
& \Leftrightarrow \{ \text{assume } (st, a : x') = ps^\frown y x \text{ and } \neg(\text{isOp } a); \text{ unfolding } ps^\frown \} \\
& \text{ups } (\text{Val } a : st, x') \mid \neg(\text{isOp } a) = \text{ups } (st, a : x')
\end{aligned}$$

We have obtained the following program:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{unparse } r &= \text{ups } ([r], []) \\
\text{where ups } ([], x) &= x \\
&\text{ups } (\text{Op } a e_2 e_1 : st', x') \mid \text{isOp } a = \text{ups } (e_1 : e_2 : st', a : x') \\
&\text{ups } (\text{Val } a : st, x') \mid \neg(\text{isOp } a) = \text{ups } (st, a : x')
\end{aligned}$$

This is certainly an unparsing program for the reverse Polish notation.

7 IO swapping applied to tree-traversing functions

So far we have considered linearly recursive functions because IO swapping is only applicable to them. By linearizing the recursion (Wand, 1980; Boiten, 1992), we can apply IO swapping to nonlinearly recursive functions. Although linearization usually yields complicated programs, this approach sometimes leads to successful manipulations.

As an example, let us fuse $\text{revflat} = \text{lrev} \circ \text{flatten}$. Function lrev is that seen in the Introduction, and flatten gathers leaves in a tree,

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{flatten } t &= \text{flat } t [] \\
\text{where flat } (\text{Leaf } a) h &= a : h \\
\text{flat } (\text{Fork } l r) h &= \text{flat } l (\text{flat } r h)
\end{aligned}$$

Since both lrev and flatten are accumulative, their fusion is nontrivial. The situation is very similar to grayCode discussed in Sections 4 and 5: unfolding cannot deforest the intermediate list, and the foldr/build rule yields a program that accumulates complicated closures, whereas more sophisticated methods (Kühnemann, 1998; Correnson et al., 1999; Nishimura, 2003; Nishimura, 2004; Voigtländer, 2004; Voigtländer & Kühnemann, 2004; Katsumata & Nishimura, 2008) can deal with it.

We linearize flat by introducing a stack

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{flatten } t &= \text{flat}_1 [t] [] \\
\text{where flat}_1 [] h &= h \\
\text{flat}_1 (\text{Leaf } a : st) h &= \text{flat}_1 st (a : h) \\
\text{flat}_1 (\text{Fork } l r : st) h &= \text{flat}_1 (r : l : st) h
\end{aligned}$$

Now that flat_1 is a linear tail-recursive function, IO swapping can deforest the intermediate list. We apply Theorem 4 for removing the accumulative computation.

For clarity, we introduce two additional auxiliary functions, *addVal* and *nextStack*.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{flatten } t &= \mathbf{let} (r, _) = \text{flat}_1^\wedge [t] [t] \mathbf{in} r \\
 \mathbf{where} \text{flat}_1^\wedge [] t' &= ([], t') \\
 \text{flat}_1^\wedge (s' : st') t' &= \mathbf{let} (h, s : st) = \text{flat}_1^\wedge (\text{nextStack } s' st') t' \\
 &\quad \mathbf{in} (\text{addVal } s h, \text{nextStack } s st) \\
 \text{addVal } (\text{Leaf } a) k &= a : k \\
 \text{addVal } (\text{Fork } l r) k &= k \\
 \text{nextStack } (\text{Leaf } a) st &= st \\
 \text{nextStack } (\text{Fork } l r) st &= r : l : st
 \end{aligned}$$

Then, we fuse *lrev* with *flatten* by using the unfolding–folding method.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{revflat } t &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{revflat}, \text{ lrev}, \text{ and } \text{flatten} \} \\
 &\quad \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} (\mathbf{let} (r, _) = \text{flat}_1^\wedge [t] [t] \mathbf{in} r) [] \\
 &= \{ \mathbf{let} rf \text{ } st' t' k = (\mathbf{let} (r, st) = \text{flat}_1^\wedge st' t' \mathbf{in} (\text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} r k, st)), \\
 &\quad \text{and folding } rf \} \mathbf{let} (r, _) = rf [t] [t] [] \mathbf{in} r \\
 rf [] t' k &= \{ \text{unfolding } rf \text{ and } \text{flat}_1^\wedge \} \\
 &\quad (\text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} [] k, t') \\
 &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \} \\
 &\quad (k, t') \\
 rf (s' : st') t' k &= \{ \text{unfolding } rf, \text{flat}_1^\wedge, \text{ and } \text{addVal} \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let} (h, s : st) = \text{flat}_1^\wedge (\text{nextStack } s' st') t' \\
 &\quad \mathbf{in} \mathbf{case} s \mathbf{of} \text{Fork } l r \rightarrow (\text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} h k, \text{nextStack } s st) \\
 &\quad \quad \text{Leaf } a \rightarrow (\text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} (a : h) k, \text{nextStack } s st) \\
 &= \{ \text{unfolding } \text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let} (h, s : st) = \text{flat}_1^\wedge (\text{nextStack } s' st') t' \\
 &\quad \mathbf{in} \mathbf{case} s \mathbf{of} \text{Fork } l r \rightarrow (\text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} h k, \text{nextStack } s st) \\
 &\quad \quad \text{Leaf } a \rightarrow (\text{aux}_{\text{lrev}} h (a : k), \text{nextStack } s st) \\
 &= \{ \text{folding } rf \text{ and } \text{addVal} \} \\
 &\quad \mathbf{let} (h', s : st) = rf (\text{nextStack } s' st') t' (\text{addVal } s k) \\
 &\quad \mathbf{in} (h', \text{nextStack } s st)
 \end{aligned}$$

We have developed the following program:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{revflat } t &= \mathbf{let} (r, _) = rf [t] [t] [] \mathbf{in} r \\
 \mathbf{where} rf [] t' k &= (k, t') \\
 rf (s' : st') t' k &= \mathbf{let} (h', s : st) = rf (\text{nextStack } s' st') t' (\text{addVal } s k) \\
 &\quad \mathbf{in} (h', \text{nextStack } s st)
 \end{aligned}$$

As expected, the derived program does not have any intermediate list except for the stack. Note that *rf* is circular: its accumulative argument, *addVal s k*, uses its return value, *s*. As in the case of *itog*, we obtained a circular function by fusing accumulative functions.

8 Manipulating circular functions

In the previous section, we have performed deforestation and obtained a program for *revflat*. However, it is not satisfactory. The program traverses the input tree twice, and moreover it has a circularity. We would like to develop a simpler program.

Note that *revflat* is an instance of $hylo^\frown$ in Theorem 6. Therefore, we can eliminate the circularity by transforming *revflat* to its equivalent *hylo* form. Theorem 6 yields the following simpler program that contains no circularity:

$$\begin{aligned} revflat\ t &= rf_1^\frown [t] \\ \text{where } rf_1^\frown [] &= [] \\ rf_1^\frown (s : st) &= addVal\ s\ (rf_1^\frown (nextStack\ s\ st)) \end{aligned}$$

This circularity removal is not magic. A circularity is a situation where an argument depends on a return value. Then by swapping call-time and return-time computations, IO swapping transforms a circularity to a situation where a return value depends on an argument.

As another example, recall $sumCPS'^\frown$ is discussed in Section 5. $sumCPS'^\frown$ is an instance of $foldr^\frown$ in Theorem 5, and therefore the theorem enables us to remove the circularity and results in the following usual summation function:

$$\begin{aligned} sum\ [] &= 0 \\ sum\ (a : x) &= a + sum\ x \end{aligned}$$

Nevertheless, IO swapping often fails to transform circular programs to noncircular ones. For instance, recall *itog* that we derived in Sections 4 and 5. We repeat the program for convenience,

$$\begin{aligned} itog\ n &= \mathbf{let}\ (r, _)\ =\ i2g\ n\ n\ 0\ \mathbf{in}\ r \\ &\quad \mathbf{where}\ i2g\ w\ v\ f\ =\ \mathbf{if}\ w\ \equiv\ 0\ \mathbf{then}\ ([], v) \\ &\quad\quad \mathbf{else}\ \mathbf{let}\ (r, v')\ =\ i2g\ (div\ w\ 2)\ v\ (mod\ v'\ 2) \\ &\quad\quad\quad \mathbf{in}\ (xor\ (mod\ v'\ 2)\ f\ : r, div\ v'\ 2) \end{aligned}$$

It has a circularity: in the argument of $i2g, mod\ v'\ 2$, uses a part of the return value.

None of the IO swapping rules are applicable for this program. Even so we can consider swapping call-time and return-time computations based on the core idea of IO swapping. Observe that the first argument of $i2g$ is only used for moving to the bottom of the recursion. Then it starts the computation by using the initial input as if it simulates computations in arguments at return time. Based on this observation we may think of the following $i2g^\dagger$, which is in fact equivalent to $i2g$

$$\begin{aligned} itog\ n &= \mathbf{let}\ (r', _)\ =\ i2g^\dagger\ n\ []\ \mathbf{in}\ r' \\ &\quad \mathbf{where}\ i2g^\dagger\ v'\ r\ =\ \mathbf{if}\ v'\ \equiv\ 0\ \mathbf{then}\ (r, 0) \\ &\quad\quad \mathbf{else}\ \mathbf{let}\ (r', f)\ =\ i2g^\dagger\ (div\ v'\ 2)\ (xor\ (mod\ v'\ 2)\ f\ : r) \\ &\quad\quad\quad \mathbf{in}\ (r', mod\ v'\ 2) \end{aligned}$$

Now function *mod* uses an argument rather than a return value. However, $i2g^\dagger$ is a circular program. Result f is used in an argument. This is because IO swapping derives a circularity from a situation where a return value depends on an argument.

9 Related work and concluding remarks

We introduced IO swapping that swaps call-time and return-time computations and demonstrated its usefulness for manipulating accumulative, in particular, tail-recursive functions.

IO swapping originates from the TABA programming pattern devised by Danvy and Goldberg (2005). While usual recursive functions traverse data structures in the call time, those in the TABA pattern do in the return time. Several interesting programs could be developed by using the TABA pattern, including $lrev^{\frown}$, $foldl^{\frown}$, $foldr^{\frown}$, $sumCPS'^{\frown}$, and $revflat$. More examples could be found in the paper by Danvy and Goldberg (2005) and in a textbook by Roy and Haridi (2004) (Exercise 16).

We originally formulated IO swapping rules for systematically developing non-trivial programs in the TABA pattern (Moriyama *et al.*, 2006). Indeed, the original IO swapping rule, Theorem 3, relies on the TABA pattern. Later, we noticed that its core idea, swapping call-time and return-time computations, could have further impacts: traversals of data structures are not essential (Theorem 4); we can relate usual programs to circular programs (Theorems 5 and 6); and furthermore, deriving the TABA-like programming patterns is sometimes effective for manipulating accumulative programs. Such possibilities were partially suggested in the preliminary report (Moriyama *et al.*, 2006). In this paper, we demonstrated the effect of IO swapping in program manipulations.

The first author's (Moriyama, 2006) Master's thesis contains other applications of IO swapping, including developments of programs in the TABA pattern and deforestation for circular programs. In addition, it contains a more generic IO-swapping rule that can derive $i2g^{\dagger}$ from $i2g$. The generic rule requires a nontrivial precondition and its proof is intricate; moreover, it seems that there are few interesting applications in practice. Therefore, we have introduced simpler rules in Section 3 together with their proofs in a transformational manner. It is worth noting that Theorems 4 and 6 specify the functions whose IO-swapped variant has no circularities; thus, they are sufficient for eliminating circularities.

As mentioned in the Introduction, accumulative functions are known to be less suitable for program manipulations, and several methods have been proposed. IO swapping is neither more powerful nor simpler than the existing methods. However, though they have been developed independently, IO swapping enables us to uniformly apply several kinds of manipulations.

Wadler (1990) proposed a deforestation method based on the unfolding–folding. It often fails to deforest intermediate structures produced in accumulative parameters (Chin, 1994; Kühnemann, 1999). In order to resolve this issue, Kühnemann (1998) and Correnson *et al.* (1999) proposed deforestation methods that first translate functional programs to attribute grammars and then apply a method of composing attribute grammars. Voigtländer (2004) and Voigtländer and Kühnemann (2004) developed more direct methods that avoid the translation to attribute grammars. Essentially, they could deal with all the deforestation examples presented here if we neglect technical differences caused by their formalisms. In particular, they could

derive $i2g^\dagger$ seen in Section 8 for *grayCode*. Moreover, they are much simpler, especially when dealing with nonlinear recursive functions. It is worth noting that we also borrowed some intuition from attribute grammars, as seen in Figure 2, and proposed IO swapping that swaps the roles of inherited and synthesized attributes and thereby making them more equally manipulable.

Another well-known method of deforestation is shortcut deforestation (Gill *et al.*, 1993; Takano & Meijer, 1995; Gill, 1996; Svenningsson, 2002). Applying shortcut deforestation to a composition of two accumulative functions has the problem of yielding functions that construct complicated function closures. Nishimura (2003, 2004) and Katsumata and Nishimura (2008) tackled this problem and formulated higher order removal methods. Their methods could derive $i2g^\dagger$ and *sum* from $i2g'$ and *sumCPS*, respectively, if we additionally apply a kind of copy propagation; unfortunately, its connections to the reverse CPS transformation were not noticed.

Accumulative functions are harder to apply inversion. Glück and Kawabe (2005) and Matsuda *et al.* (2010) proposed parsing-based methods for dealing with them. Our inversion can be seen as a variant of the method by Mogensen (2006) who considered a loop combinator and introduced a rule for inverting it.

Circular programs were first invented by Bird (1984), and their manipulation is a topic of active research (Voigtländer, 2004; Fernandes *et al.*, 2007; Fernandes & Saraiva, 2007; Katsumata & Nishimura, 2008; Pardo *et al.*, 2009; Fernandes *et al.*, 2011). Most of them consider developing circular programs from composition of functions, or eliminating circularities by decomposing functions, while IO swapping only concerns one function.

It is known that mechanical reasoning about accumulative programs is difficult (Boyer & Moore, 1975; Boyer *et al.*, 1976; Giesl, 2000; Giesl *et al.*, 2007). Induction is a main method of mechanical reasoning, and accumulative parameters make it difficult to provide appropriate induction hypotheses. For instance, recall *revMap* discussed in the Introduction and reconsider proving $map\ f\ (lrev\ x) = revMap$. We saw that $aux_{revMap}\ f\ x\ h = map\ f\ (aux_{lrev}\ x\ h)$ was not an appropriate induction hypothesis; in fact, an appropriate one is $aux_{revMap}\ f\ x\ (map\ f\ h) = map\ f\ (aux_{lrev}\ x\ h)$. To resolve this difficulty, program transformations, called *deaccumulation*, have been proposed (Boyer *et al.*, 1976; Giesl, 2000; Kühnemann *et al.*, 2001; Giesl *et al.*, 2007). Deaccumulation derives nonaccumulative programs from accumulative ones. For example, it derives *reverse* from *lrev*. Deaccumulation techniques are not designed for program manipulation, and they do not consider efficiency of derived programs. They may significantly make programs slower as the case of reverse functions. IO swapping usually does not change asymptotic time complexity.

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