# Continuations and Evaluation Contexts

#### CS 565 Lecture 6



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#### Continuations



Evaluation contexts provide a syntactic formulation to specify evaluation order.

Can we understand evaluation contexts from the perspective of language-level constructs?

▶ How does one reify the notion of a "hole" in a program?

#### Continuations and CPS



#### Starting point:

- How do we represent a program's control-flow?
  - Loops
  - Procedure call and return
  - Order of evaluation
- Our previous semantic characterizations kept these notions implicit.
- Can we make these sequences explicit?
  How can we express evaluation contexts within a program?

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### Example: Recursion



#### Consider a factorial function:

Each call to fact is made with a "promise" that the value returned will be multiplied by the value of n at the time of the call.

# Example: Tail Recursion



Now, consider:

```
let fun fact-iter(n:int):int =
   let fun loop(n:int,acc:int):int =
        if n = 0
        then acc
        else loop(n - 1, n * acc)
   in loop(n,1)
   end
```

There is no promise made in the call to loop by fact-iter, or in the inner calls to loop: each call simply is obligated to return its result. Unlike fact, no extra control state (e.g., promise) is required; this information is supplied explicitly in the recursive calls. What is the implication of these different approaches? Recursive vs. iterative control

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#### Tail position



An expression in tail position requires no additional controlinformation to be preserved.

- Intuitively, no state information needs to be saved.
- Examples:

The true and false branches of an if-expression.

A loop iteration.

A function call that occurs as the last expression of its enclosing definition.

 Tail recursive implementations can execute an arbitrary number of tail-recursive calls without requiring memory proportional to the number of these calls.

### Continuation-passing style



Is a technique that can translate any procedure into a tail recursive one.

Example:

```
4 * 3 * 2 * fact(1)
```

Define the context of fact(1) to be

```
fun Context(v:int):int = 4 * 3 * 2 * v
```

• The context is a function that given the value produced by fact(1) returns the result of fact(4)

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#### Example revisited



```
fun fact-cps(n:int, k: int -> int): int =
   if n = 0
   then k(1)
   else fact-cps(n-1, fn v => k (n * v))
```

The k represents the *function's continuation*: it is a function that given a value returns the "rest of the computation"

By making k explicit in the program, we make the control-flow properties of fact also explicit, which will enable improved compiler decisions.

Observe that k(fact(n))=fact-cps(n,k) for any k.

### Example revisited



```
fact-cps(4,k) \rightarrow

fact-cps(3, fn v => k(4 * v))

fact-cps(2, fn v => (fn v => k(4 * v))(3 * v))

fact-cps(2, fn v => (fn v => k(4 * v))(3 * v))

fact-cps(2, fn v => k (4 * 3 * v))

fact-cps(1, fn v => k (4 * 3 * v))

fact-cps(1, fn v => (fn v => k (4 * 3 * v))(2 * v))

fact-cps(1, fn v => (fn v => k (4 * 3 * v))(2 * v))

fact-cps(1, fn v => k (4 * 3 * 2 * v))

...

fact-cps(0, fn v => k (4 * 3 * 2 * 1 * v))

(fn v => k (4 * 3 * 2 * 1 * v)) 1

k 24
```

The initial k supplied to fact-cps represents the "context" in which the call was made.

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#### First cut



Start with a very simple language:

Variables, functions, applications, and conditionals.

Define a translation function:

```
C : Exp X Cont \rightarrow Exp
```

- A continuation will be represented as a function that takes a single argument, and performs "the rest of the computation"
- The translation will ensure that functions never directly return -they always invoke their continuation when they have a value to provide.
- In an interpreter, the top-level continuation simply prints the value passed as argument to the screen.

## The CPS Algorithm



$$C[x] k = k x$$

Returning the value of a variable simply passes that value to the current continuation.

$$C[\lambda x.e] k = k (\lambda x.\lambda k_2.C[e] k_2)$$

A function takes an extra argument which represents the continuation(s) of its call point(s), and its body is evaluated in this context.

$$C[e_1(e_2)] k = C[e_1] (\lambda v.C[e_2] \lambda v_2.v v_2 k)$$

An application evaluates its first argument in the context of a continuation that evaluates its second argument in the context of a continuation that performs the application and supplies the result to its context.

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# The Initial Algorithm



```
C[if e_1 then e_2 else e_3] k = C[e_1] (\lambda v.if v then C[e_2] k else C[e_3] k)
```

Evaluate the test expression in a context that evaluates the true and false branch in the context of the conditional.

Note that  ${\bf k}$  is duplicated in both branches. We would like to avoid this.

```
C[if true then x else y] k = C[true](\lambda v.if v then C[x]k else C[y]k) = C[true](\lambda v.if v then k x else k y ) = (\lambda v.if v then k x else k y )true <math>\rightarrow k x
```

## Example



What's plus1 in CPS?

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# Example



What's plus1 in CPS form?

```
\lambda x. \operatorname{succ} x = \lambda x. \lambda k. C[\operatorname{succ} x] k = \lambda x. \lambda k. C[\operatorname{succ}] (\lambda v. C[x](\lambda v_2. v v_2 k)) = \lambda x. \lambda k. (\lambda v. C[x](\lambda v_2. v v_2 k)) \operatorname{succ} = \lambda x. \lambda k. (\lambda v. (\lambda v_2. v v_2 k)x) \operatorname{succ} \rightarrow \lambda x. \lambda k. (\lambda v. (v x k)) \operatorname{succ} \rightarrow \lambda x. \lambda k. (\operatorname{succ} x k)
```

### Correspondence



What do continuations (and CPS) have to do with evaluation contexts?

- CPS also fixes evaluation order.
- It represents an expression with a hole (its argument). When supplied a value, the hole is "plugged" and a new expression is produced.

Not quite: CPS produces continuations that given an intermediate result return the final result of the computation.

Two incompatible definitions:

- a context expects an expression, and returns another expression
- a continuation expects a value and returns a final result.

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