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## Continuations

All of our non-side-effecting languages (V1 through V6) have relied on continuations to implement iterative behavior. See, for example, the mutually recursive procedures `even?` and `odd?` shown in Slides 3.89 and 3.93. In our current implementations, any `eval` call requires setting up a Java stack frame for the arguments to `eval`. If evaluating the arguments requires additional stack frames, additional stack frames are required. So if a procedure calls itself recursively, the underlying Java `eval` methods call themselves recursively, and it is possible that stack frames can build up to exhaust available stack memory. Even non-recursive programs can result in stack overflow.

## Continuations

An `eval` method call is intended to carry out some computation. It can be used, for example, to evaluate an actual parameter expression in a function application or a test expression in an `if` expression. A stack frame is created implicitly by the Java Runtime Environment (JRE) upon each `eval` call. This stack frame consists of information including the method arguments, the environment in which the method is to be executed, and a “return address” where the JRE should execute next when the method finishes. This information can be considered as an “execution context”. Once the method finishes, the stack frame is discarded (popped off the stack) and the execution context of the caller is restored.

One way to avoid stack overflow is to maintain execution context in a separate data structure. Instead of using the JRE stack to hold this information, we pass along the execution context to the `eval` method that is used by the method to determine what should be executed next when the method finishes. Such an execution context is called a *continuation*. The idea is that a continuation determines how the execution should continue once the current computation is finished.

## Continuations (continued)

We start with language REF, a language with `set` and call-by-reference parameter passing. In this language, the `eval` method for expressions has a parameter that gives the environment in which the expression is evaluated. In the REFCONT language, adding explicit execution context requires passing a continuation as a parameter to the `eval` method, namely a continuation. The purpose of a continuation is to receive the value of the expression and to determine what to do next.

We implement continuations as members of the `Cont` class, with three subclasses: `ACont`, `VCont`, and `RCont`.

## Continuations (continued)

An `ACont` continuation has an `apply` method that takes no parameters. A `VCont` continuation has an `apply` method that takes a single `Val` parameter. An `RCont` continuation has an `apply` method that takes a single `Ref` parameter. All three of these continuations return an instance of `ACont`. Here are the methods for each:

```
ACont: public ACont apply();  
VCont: public ACont apply(Val val);  
RCont: public ACont apply(Ref val);
```

The essential purpose of the `apply` method for an `ACont` continuation is to perform some action that represents “what to do now”. Its return value, another `ACont`, says “what to do next”.

For a `VCont` continuation, the purpose of the `apply` method is to perform some action that represents “what to do now with the value `val`”. Its return value, another `ACont`, says “what to do next”. Similar remarks apply to `RCont` continuations. You will see that the `RCont` continuations are used only for call-by-reference parameter passing.

## Continuations (continued)

The `apply` method in the `ACont` class is the fundamental action of the continuation system. It performs some action and returns another `ACont` whose `apply` method is invoked, and so on. This proceeds until a `method` method stops the evaluation by throwing an exception – either a `RuntimeException` indicating an error, or a special `ContException` indicating that the evaluation has finished.

In the absence of an exception, applying a continuation involves creating a new execution context that continues the expression evaluation.

Here is the signature of the abstract `eval` method in our continuation system, declared in the `Exp` class:

```
public abstract ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont, Val val);
```

This method is intended to work as follows:

- evaluate the expression in the environment `env`, yielding a value `val`
- call `vcont.apply(val)`, yielding an `ACont` instance which
- call `acont.apply()` to continue evaluation

## Continuations (continued)

It may appear that we have simply added recursive calls to `apply` recursive calls to `eval`. The difference is that once we call `apply` we need to preserve the current execution context. Languages that implement tail call elimination (look this up!) do this explicitly: see Lisp, Scheme, Haskell.

If our implementation language supported tail call elimination, we don't need to worry about this. In Java it's not as simple, since Java does not support tail call elimination – but we can accomplish essentially the same thing through a technique called *trampolining*. This technique de-couples the recursive calls into a loop instead. The next slide shows how this works:

## Continuations (continued)

```
public abstract class ACont {  
  
    public Val trampoline() {  
        ACont acont = this;  
        while(true)  
            try {  
                acont = acont.apply();  
            } catch (ContException e) {  
                return e.val;  
            }  
    }  
}
```

## Continuations (continued)

Things start off by creating an initial expression evaluation continuation and then jumping onto the trampoline:

```
acont.trampoline();
```

In this code, the trampoline loops until one of the calls to `apply` throws a `ContException`. In order for expression evaluation to terminate, a continuation must therefore throw a `ContException` that jumps off the trampoline. Since the purpose of expression evaluation is to produce a value, the continuation needs to have a `Val` field that can be used to return a value to the loop.

We choose a special “halt continuation” `HaltCont` to do this. It extends the `VCont` class, so its `apply` method takes a `Val` parameter. The `apply` method in this class – the one that actually jumps off the trampoline –

```
public class HaltCont extends VCont {  
  
    public ACont apply(Val val) {  
        throw new ContException(val);  
    }  
  
}
```

This continuation is created once, at the top level of expression eval

## Continuations (continued)

One useful continuation, `EvalCont`, has fields for an expression, an environment, and a value continuation. When an `EvalCont` continuation is applied, the expression is evaluated in the environment and its value is passed to the saved value continuation.

```
public class EvalCont extends ACont {  
  
    public Exp exp;  
    public Env env;  
    public VCont vcont;  
  
    public EvalCont(Exp exp, Env env, VCont vcont) {  
        this.exp = exp;  
        this.env = env;  
        this.vcont = vcont;  
    }  
  
    public ACont apply() {  
        return exp.eval(env, vcont);  
    }  
}
```

The continuation field `vcont` has an `apply(Val)` method that receives the expression's value and returns an `ACont` continuation that dictates “what to do next”.

## Continuations (continued)

In the `Exp` class, we start things out by defining a simple top-level as follows:

```
public Val eval(Env env) {  
    ACont acont = new EvalCont(this, env, new HaltC  
    Val val = acont.trampoline();  
    return val;  
}
```

As described on Slide 8.7, The `HaltCont` continuation created here behavior of jumping off the trampoline by throwing a `ContExcep` the top-level evaluation is complete and its value is passed to the ap the `HaltCont` object, the trampoline loop stops and this value is re

## Continuations (continued)

For certain expressions (such as `LitExp` and `VarExp`) whose val terminated directly, the value could be sent to its `VCont` continuation

```
return vcont.apply(...)
```

However, this would result in building a stack frame to call the a contrary to our objective of using continuations (and the trampoline) ing stack frames.

## Continuations (continued)

To get around this, we define a special `ValCont` continuation that does a direct call to `apply` with a value parameter and that passes the response to the non-parameter `apply` method in the `ValCont` class:

```
public class ValCont extends ACont {

    public Val val;
    public VCont vcont;

    public ValCont(Val val, VCont vcont) {
        this.val = val;
        this.vcont = vcont;
    }

    public ACont apply() {
        return vcont.apply(val);
    }
}
```

It may appear that this `apply` method just postpones the recursive call to `vcont.apply(val)`, but since the `apply` method in the `Val` class is being handled by the trampoline, this de-couples the direct recursion with iteration.

## Continuations (continued)

As noted before, the continuation-based `eval` method in the `Expr` class has the following signature:

```
public abstract ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont);
```

Let's consider the easiest subclasses of `Expr`, namely `LitExp` and `VarExp`. The `eval` code for the `LitExp` class is simple: convert the literal to an `IntVal` and return a `ValCont` continuation that passes the value to the `vcont` continuation. Similarly, for the `VarExp` class, look up the variable in the given `Env` to get the value it is bound to, and return a `ValCont` continuation that passes the value to the `vcont` continuation. Here is the code for both:

```
LitExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {
        return new ValCont(new IntVal(lit.toString()), vcont);
    }
%%%

VarExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {
        return new ValCont(env.applyEnv(var.toString()), vcont);
    }
%%%
```

## Continuations (continued)

A `letrec` simply creates a new environment with bindings of `ProcVals`. Moreover, evaluating a `proc` (don't confuse this with `proc`) requires no more than gathering together the formal parameter, procedure body expression, and the captured environment. Thus the environment in which we evaluate the `letrec` body is obtained by calling the `addBindings` method in the `LetrecDecls` class, unchanged from the `REF` language. The `eval` method then returns a `EvalCont` continuation that evaluates the `letrec` in this extended environment and passes its value to the given continuation. Here is the code for `eval` in the `LetrecExp` class:

```
LetrecExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {
        Env nenv = letrecDecls.addBindings(env);
        return new EvalCont(exp, nenv, vcont);
    }
%%%
```

Notice that we don't call the `vcont.apply` method directly here. We expect that the `EvalCont` continuation will ultimately do so when it trampolines.

## Continuations (continued)

The `eval` method in the `ProcExp` class is even simpler, since creating a `ProcVal` does not require any further evaluation.

```
ProcExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {
        return new ValCont(proc.makeClosure(env), vcont);
    }
%%%
```



An `if` expression requires that the test expression be evaluated be exactly one of `trueExp` or `falseExp`. So after evaluating the test `IfCont` continuation uses the result of the test (it's a `VCont`!) to decide which of these two expressions must be evaluated next. The resulting value is then passed on to the original value continuation. The `IfCont` class appears as

```
// continued on next slide ...
```

```
// ... continued from previous slide
```

In the `IfExp` class, the `eval` method creates an `EvalCont` method for the test expression and passes its value to a suitably constructed continuation.

```
IfExp  
%%  
  
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {  
        return new EvalCont(testExp,  
                               env,  
                               new IfCont(trueExp,falseExp))  
    }  
%%
```

## Continuations (continued)

To evaluate a SeqExp, we evaluate the first expression and save its value. If there are more expressions in the list, we evaluate each of them in turn, keeping the value of the last expression and passing it on to the saved continuation. A SeqExp has a SequenceCont continuation that has fields for the initial expression, the next expression that produces the next expression in the sequence if there is one, the environment in which the expressions are evaluated, and the original continuation. When the sequence is finished, it sends the final expression value.

The SequenceCont class is on the next slide.

```
SequenceCont
%%%
import java.util.*;

// used with SeqExps
public class SequenceCont extends VCont {

    public Iterator<Exp> expIter; // iterate over the expList
    public Env env;               // the environment
    public VCont vcont;           // apply this to the last sequence value

    public SequenceCont (List<Exp> expList, Env env, VCont vcont) {
        this.env = env;
        this.vcont = vcont;
        this.expIter = expList.iterator();
    }

    public ACont apply(Val val) {
        if (expIter.hasNext()) {
            Exp exp = expIter.next();
            return new EvalCont(exp, env, this);
        }
        return new ValCont(val, vcont); // pass the last Val to the vcont
    }

    public String toString() {
        return "SequenceCont";
    }

}
%%%
```

## Continuations (continued)

The `eval` method in the `SeqExp` class creates a continuation to evaluate the first expression in the sequence, which passes this value to a `SequenceCont`. `SeqExp` determines if more expressions need to be evaluated. As an optimization, if `expList` is empty, we simply side-step the creation of the `SequenceCont` object and directly arrange to evaluate the first expression `exp` using the continuation.

```
SeqExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {
        List<Exp> expList = seqExps.expList;
        if (expList.size() > 0)
            return new EvalCont(exp,
                                env,
                                new SequenceCont(expList, vcont));
        // if only one expression, just evaluate it
        return new EvalCont(exp, env, vcont);
    }
    %%%
```

## Continuations (continued)

To evaluate a primitive application in the `PrimappExp` class, we evaluate the operand expressions and then send the arguments to the primitive function, passing the resulting value to the saved continuation.

We can use the `evalRands` method defined in the `Rands` class to evaluate each of the operand expressions. This method returns a `List` of `Val` objects. Since the `apply` method for each primitive takes an array of `Val` objects, we convert the `List` into an array before calling `apply`.

```
PrimappExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {
        List<Val> valList = rands.evalRands(env);
        int size = valList.size();
        Val [] valArray = valList.toArray(new Val[size]);
        Val val = prim.apply(valArray);
        return new ValCont(val, vcont);
    }
    %%%
```

## Continuations (continued)

Two more expressions require our attention: `let` expressions and applications. As we have shown, a `let` expression can (mostly) be compiled as a procedure application, so code for both of these should be much the same. The caution here is that call-by-reference parameter passing semantics for applications behaves differently from the value semantics for the `let` expression in a `let`.

In the `LetExp` class, its `eval` method asks its `letDecls` object to extend the environment by binding all of the LHS variables to (references to) the RHS expressions. This extended environment is used to return an `EvalCont` object that contains the body of the `let` in this extended environment and pass its value or continuation.

```
LetExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {
        env = letDecls.addBindings(env);
        return new EvalCont(exp, env, vcont);
    }
    %%%
```

## Continuations (continued)

The `addBindings` method in the `LetDecls` class evaluates the RHS expressions using the `evalRands` method in a suitably constructed `Rands` object. The `evalRands` method returns a `List` of `Vals`. Since our environments bind strings to references, we must convert this list of values to a list of references using the `valsToRefs` method in the `Ref` class. These values are then bound to the variable names in the `let`. In the optimization, if there are no variable bindings in the `let`, `addBindings` returns the original environment.

```
LetDecls
%%%
    public Env addBindings(Env env) {
        if (varList.size() > 0) {
            Rands rands = new Rands(expList);
            List<Val> valList = rands.evalRands(env);
            Bindings bindings =
                new Bindings(varList, Ref.valsToRefs(valList));
            env = env.extendEnvRef(bindings);
        }
        return env;
    }
    %%%
```

## Continuations (continued)

To evaluate a procedure application, we need to evaluate the procedure (it must evaluate to a `ProcVal`), the actual parameter expressions using the semantics, bind the actual parameter references to their formal parameters using these bindings to extend the environment captured by the procedure, and then evaluate the body of the procedure in this extended environment. The code for the `AppExp` class is given here:

```
AppExp
%%%
public Cont eval(Env env, Cont cont) {
    return new EvalCont(exp,
                        env,
                        new AppCont(rands, env, vcont));
}
%%%
```

The `AppCont` continuation, shown on the next slide, gets an expression to evaluate to a `ProcVal`, evaluates the reference parameters, and passes the reference parameters along with the `vcont` continuation to the `ProcVal` to evaluate the procedure body and pass its value along for further processing.

## Continuations (continued)

```
public class AppCont extends VCont {

    public Rands rands; // the actual parameter expressions
    public Env env;      // evaluate the params in this env
    public VCont vcont; // who gets the result

    public AppCont(Rands rands, Env env, VCont vcont) {
        this.rands = rands;
        this.env = env;
        this.vcont = vcont;
    }

    public ACont apply(Val val) {
        ProcVal procVal = val.procVal();
        List<Ref> refList = rands.evalRandsRef(env);
        return procVal.apply(refList, vcont);
    }

    public String toString() {
        return "AppCont";
    }
}
```

### Continuations (continued)

In the `apply(Val_val)` method in the `AppCont` class, `val mu` is a `ProcVal`. Notice that the `evalRandsRef` method produces a list of values. Once the list of references to actual parameters is built, the `apply` method of the `procVal` object, along with the `vcont`, is called. This `apply` method binds the references to the procedure's formal parameters. It then evaluates the procedure body in the appropriate extended environment, passing this value to the `vcont` continuation for further disposition.

### Continuations (continued)

The code for this `apply` method is in the `ProcVal` class:

```
public ACont apply(List<Ref> refList, VCont vcont) {
    Env env = this.env; // local copy of the current environment
    List<Token> varList = formals.varList;
    if (refList.size() != varList.size())
        throw new RuntimeException(
            "formal/actual parameter mismatch"
        );
    if (varList.size() > 0) {
        Bindings bindings = new Bindings(varList);
        env = env.extendEnvRef(bindings);
    }
    return new EvalCont(body, env, vcont);
}
```

## Continuations (continued)

Finally we handle `set` expressions. A `SetCont` object captures the information necessary to modify the value of the LHS variable of a `set`:

```
public class SetCont extends VCont {  
  
    public Ref ref;  
    public VCont vcont;  
  
    public SetCont(Ref ref, VCont vcont) {  
        this.ref = ref;  
        this.vcont = vcont;  
    }  
  
    public ACont apply(Val val) {  
        ref.setRef(val); // modify the  
        return new ValCont(val, vcont); // pass the  
    }  
}
```

## Continuations (continued)

The `eval` method in the `SetExp` class follows:

```
public ACont eval(Env env, VCont vcont) {  
    // don't actually modify the binding yet  
    Ref ref = env.applyEnvRef(var.toString());  
    return new EvalCont(exp, env, new SetCont(ref, vcont));  
}
```

## Continuations (continued)

Recall that all of these continuations end up jumping on the trampoline out the computations iteratively instead of recursively. In particular, a procedure that makes a tail call (*i.e.*, the return value of the procedure is the value of the procedure application) discards its own execution context by passing the return value to the current continuation instead of saving its current execution context while evaluating the tail call. Remember that continuations represent what *will* happen now and in the future, not *what has happened in the past*.

For non-tail calls – for example, the naive recursive implementation of factorial – there is no way to avoid building nested execution contexts. In such cases, recursive calls are not in tail position. The basic principle here is that *if a procedure's actual parameters requires creating a nested execution context, then the procedure does not*.

The even/odd mutual recursion example clearly shows that, without trampolining, relatively small arguments to `even?` result in stack overflow. Using trampolining, an application such as `(.even? (1000000000))` terminates normally. Remember that the mutually recursive calls in the even/odd example are all in tail position.

## Exception Handling

Because a continuation holds an execution context, it is possible to save the execution context of an early part of a computation and to return to that context in case something unusual happens later. This gives us the opportunity to implement *exception handling*: that is, the ability to stop the evaluation of an expression and to turn instead to a saved execution context.

We implement exception handling by allowing for named *exception handlers*. A procedure can save the current continuation and that otherwise behave like procedures. Exception handlers are installed in a special *exception environment* that is separate from the normal evaluation environment. When a named exception handler is thrown, we describe shortly – the most recent exception handler having that name is looked up in the exception environment, the handler is applied (just like a procedure), and the resulting value is passed to the handler's saved continuation.

Since the saved continuation jumps onto the trampoline by calling `trampoline`, the program execution continues at the point where the exception handler was installed rather than at the point where the exception was thrown.



## Exception Handling (continued)

Here are the new grammar rules that support our exception handling

```
<exp>:CatchExp ::= _CATCH_<handlerDecls>_IN_<exp>  
CatchExp (HandlerDecls_handlerDecls, _Exp_exp)  
<exp>:ThrowExp ::= _THROW_<VAR>_LPAREN_<rands>_RPAREN  
ThrowExp (Token_var, _Rands_rands)  
<handler> ::= _HANDLER_<formals>_RPAREN_<exp>  
Handler (Formals_formals, _Exp_exp)  
<handlerDecls> **=_<VAR>_EQUALS_<handler>  
HandlerDecls (List<Token>_varList_prim, _List<Han
```

The CATCH, THROW, and HANDLER tokens are defined in the obvious way.

One difference between exception handlers and ordinary procedures is that when an exception is thrown, the exception handler is found and evaluated in the exception environment rather than in the current evaluation environment. For example, the body of a top-level procedure can throw an exception that is not visible at the top level but which is defined and invoked in a nested environment when the top-level procedure is applied. To throw an exception, all that is required is that the handler must be visible in the chain of environments when the exception is thrown.

## Exception Handling (continued)

Consider the following example:

```
define p = proc() throw eee(5)  
.p() % no binding for eee  
catch  
    eee = handler(x) add1(x)  
in  
    .p() % evaluates to 6  
.p() % still no binding for eee
```

When `.p()` is evaluated just after the definition of `p`, there is no exception environment for the identifier `eee`. This is because the procedure `p` captures the top-level environment (which is empty) and there is no binding for `eee` in the top-level environment.

The `catch` expression, on the other hand, evaluates to 6. Within the `catch` expression, the exception handler identifier `eee` is bound to a handler procedure plus its actual parameter value. This handler is added to the exception environment of the `catch` expression, so when the `p` procedure is called in this environment, the `throw_eee(5)` can see the binding for the identifier `eee` and apply the handler with an actual parameter value of 5. A `throw` identifier looks up using dynamic scope rules instead of static scope rules; this behavior is identical to macro invocation as compared to procedure invocation.

## Exception Handling (continued)

Since we want to maintain static scope rules in ordinary expression evaluation and dynamic scope rules in exception handling, we maintain two environments: a static environment for expression evaluation – usually called `env` – and a dynamic environment for exception handling – usually called `xenv`. `env` and `xenv` are passed to `eval` methods, but the `xenv` environment is updated when installing handlers (in a `catch` expression) and when throwing exceptions.

Here is the code for a `CatchExp`. The code for `HandlerDecls` is on the next page.

```
CatchExp
%%%
    public ACont eval(Env env, Env xenv, VCont vcont) {
        xenv = handlerDecls.addBindings(env, xenv, vcont);
        return new EvalCont(exp, env, xenv, vcont);
    }
%%%
```

## Exception Handling (continued)

```
HandlerDecls
%%%
    public Env addBindings(Env env, Env xenv, VCont vcont) {
        List<String> idList = new ArrayList<String>();
        List<Val> valList = new ArrayList<Val>();
        for (Handler h : handlerList)
            valList.add(h.makeHandler(env, xenv, vcont));
        Bindings bindings =
            new Bindings(varList, Ref.valsToRefs(valList));
        return xenv.extendEnvRef(bindings);
    }
%%%
```

A `HandlerVal` behaves much like a `ProcVal`, except that a `HandlerVal` captures the continuation and the exception environment in which it was created. When the handler is applied, the handler body is evaluated in the exception environment, with the result passed on to the saved continuation. We can therefore define the `HandlerVal` class as a subclass of the `ProcVal` class, with two pieces of additional information: the saved exception environment and the saved continuation.

## Exception Handling (continued)

When an exception is thrown – always by name, and never anonymously – is looked up in the exception environment and the handler is applied with the value to its saved continuation instead of the continuation in which it was thrown:

```
ThrowExp
%%%
public ACont eval(Env env, Env xenv, Cont vcont) {
  HandlerVal handler =
    xenv.applyEnv(var.toString()).handlerVal();
  return handler.apply(rands.expList, env, xenv,
                      handler.xenv, handler.vcont);
}
%%%
```

Notice that evaluating the handler's actual parameters or its body can throw additional exceptions, which can result in a cascade of exceptions. Notice, too, that when the handler is evaluated, its exception environment is the one in which the `catch` expression was evaluated. This means if an exception is thrown when evaluating a handler, its handler is searched for outside of the `catch` expression handler. If evaluating an expression results in a `throw` that references a name that is not in the current exception environment, the value of the expression is undefined.

## Exception Handling (continued)

```
%% throwing an exception while evaluating
%% a handler's actual parameter expressions
catch
  h = handler(x) add1(x)
  k = handler(x) *(x,x)
in
  throw h(throw k(3)) % evaluates to 9 ; h is not

%% throwing an exception in a handler's body expression
catch
  h = handler() 5
in
  catch
    h = handler(x) {throw h() ; x}
  in
    throw h(21) % evaluates to 5

%% throwing an unbound exception in the handler's body
catch
  h = handler () throw h()
in
  throw h() % no binding for h (in the handler's env)
```

## Exception Handling (continued)

The exception environment rules when evaluating expressions, definitions, and throwing exceptions are:

- The top-level exception environment is always empty.
- Handlers defined in a `catch` expression are added to the exception environment in which the `catch` expression appears, and this extended exception environment becomes the exception environment in which the `catch` expression is evaluated.
- A handler defined in a `catch` expression saves the evaluation environments and the execution continuation in which the `catch` appears, in addition to the handler's formal parameters and body.
- When evaluating a `throw` expression, the appropriate handler is found by searching the current exception environment in which the `throw` appears.

continued on next slide ...

## Exception Handling (continued)

... continued from previous slide

- The exception environment in which the actual parameters of a procedure or primitive application are evaluated is the same as the exception environment in which the procedure or primitive is thrown.
- The exception environment in which the actual parameters of a primitive application are evaluated is the same as the exception environment in which the procedure or primitive is applied.
- The exception environment when evaluating a procedure body (when the procedure is applied) is the same as the exception environment in which the procedure is applied.
- When evaluating the thrown handler exception body, the exception environment and continuation are those saved by the handler when the handler was found in the `catch` expression.

## Concurrency

Using trampolining, we repeatedly apply continuations until a value is returned. The `HaltCont` continuation, which stops the trampolining and returns the value. Since each continuation contains *complete information* about how evaluation is to proceed, it is possible to have multiple threads of expression evaluation by associating each thread with a continuation and the thread's current execution context.

Observe that we have used a `Rands` object to evaluate a collection of expressions, returning a list of values or references. Such lists are used to pass arguments to primitive operators or procedures or to bind values to the LHS variables of expressions.

Assuming that the order of evaluation of expressions in a `Rands` object is preserved, matter, we can carry out these evaluations *concurrently* (or *in parallel*). If we have available hardware to support real concurrency, this can result in run-time

## Concurrency

Up to now, we have evaluated the expressions in a `Rands` object sequentially, in the order in which they appear in the expression list, and we have built the continuation for each expression to ensure that the values (or references) to appear in the same order.

In the presence of concurrency, the order in which the expressions are evaluated complete is almost certainly not the same as the order in which they appear in the expression list.

To maintain the value order, we create an array of value slots, with one slot for each expression. For each expression in the expression list, we create a continuation that knows about the expression, its evaluation environment, and the value slot where the expression value should go. We can then dispatch all of these continuations to a mechanism that evaluates them in parallel (or at least simulate parallelism). Once each expression evaluation completes, its continuation deposits its value in the corresponding value slot.

## Concurrency (continued)

In general, we want to define a mechanism that can carry out a simultaneous execution of multiple continuations. First, we build a queue that contains continuations to be executed in parallel. Then we create a “wrapper” continuation that takes a single continuation from the queue, calls the dequeued continuation’s `apply()` method, and puts the result back on the end of the queue. When all continuations have completed, the wrapper continuation returns the final result of the evaluation step in the evaluation (such as primitive application, procedure application, or `let` body evaluation). The wrapper continuation uses the trampoline to execute each of its dequeue steps. A `ConcurrentCont` class, shown on the right, serves this purpose.

This approach does not achieve true parallelism, since we are still applying continuation steps one at a time (using the trampoline), but in the presence of parallel hardware, it would not be difficult to dispatch the application of the continuations to separate threads.

## Concurrency (continued)

```
ConcurrentCont
%%%
import java.util.*;

public class ConcurrentCont extends ACont {

    public Queue<ACont> queue; // apply these in parallel
    public ACont acont; // what to do when the queue is empty

    public ConcurrentCont(Queue<ACont> queue, ACont acont) {
        this.queue = queue;
        this.acont = acont;
    }

    public ACont apply() {
        ACont thread = queue.poll();
        if (thread == null)
            return acont;
        try {
            thread = thread.apply();
            queue.add(thread);
        } catch (NullContException) {
        }
        return this; // bounce me!
    }
}
%%%
```

## Concurrency (continued)

When a queued expression evaluation continuation completes, its deposited in the proper place in the array of values. The following represents what to do with the expression value once the evaluation

```
public class ValIndexCont extends VCont {  
  
    Val [] valArray; // an array of values  
    int index;       // where to put the result  
  
    public ValIndexCont(Val [] valArray, int index)  
    {  
        this.valArray = valArray;  
        this.index = index;  
    }  
  
    public ACont apply(Val val) {  
        valArray[index] = val;  
        throw new NullContException(); // all done  
    }  
  
}
```

## Concurrency (continued)

Before creating a continuation to carry out concurrent evaluation of expressions in a Rands object, we need to create an array that holds the values. The result of evaluating concurrent expressions must affect a shared environment, possibly the top-level environment or in let expressions. Here's an example of such a situation:

```
let  
    count = 0  
in  
    letrec  
        d = proc(t)  
            if t  
            then {set count=add1(count) ; .d(sub1(t))}  
            else 0  
    in  
        let % the RHS expressions are evaluated in parallel  
            _ = .d(1000)  
            _ = .d(10000)  
            _ = .d(100)  
        in  
            count
```

In this case, the value of count ends up being 10000 and not 11100 as we might expect. (Note the use of '\_' as a dummy variable place-holder.)

## Concurrency (continued)

The problem here is an example of the “simultaneous update problem” or a “race condition”. Evaluating an expression like `set_count=a` can result in the creation of multiple continuations – several, for example, to evaluate `add1(count)` – and when `count` is in the process of being updated in one thread, there may be other threads that are in the process of updating it as well, with unpredictable results.

When concurrent expressions use side-effects to do their work, we guard against race conditions. We do this through an `atomic exp`. The concrete and abstract syntax of such an expression is given here:

```
<exp>:AtomicExp ::= _ATOMIC_<exp>  
                AtomicExp (Exp_exp)
```

## Concurrency (continued)

When evaluating an atomic expression, we circumvent the evaluation of the expression by evaluating the expression directly – using a non-threaded evaluation. Once the value has been determined, we pass it on to the pending continuation, so the threading can continue. Observe that during the evaluation of an atomic expression, the threaded trampoline stops processing queued continuations.

```
AtomicExp  
%%%  
    public Cont eval(Env env, Cont cont) {  
        Val val = exp.eval(env); // don't thread on  
        return cont.apply(val);  
    }  
%%%
```

It's harmless to evaluate an atomic expression in a non-threaded evaluation. However, an atomic expression must complete before its value is passed to the next continuation, so deeply nested atomic expressions can overflow. Using atomic expressions should be done sparingly.



### Concurrency (continued)

The race condition in the previous example can now be solved by modification of `count` atomic:

```
let
  count = 0
in
  letrec
    d = proc(t)
      if t
      then {atomic set count=add1(count) ; .d(sub1(t))}
      else 0
  in
    let
      _ = .d(1000)
      _ = .d(10000)
      _ = .d(100)
    in
      count
```

This expression evaluates to 11100, as expected.

### Concurrency (continued)

Of course, threads can start other threads, limited only by the memory of the underlying machine.

```
let
  count = 1
in
  letrec
    par = proc(f, g) atomic set count=add1(count)
    d = proc(t)
      if t
      then
        let
          t1 = sub1(t)
        in
          .par(.d(t1), .d(t1)) % evaluate actuals in parallel
      else count
  in
    .d(16) %% => 65536
```

See what happens if you omit the `atomic` modifier in the definition of `par`.