



COLLÈGE  
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—1530—

*Control structures, fourth lecture*

# **Continuations and control operators: building blocks for control structures**

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## The notion of continuation

Given a control point in a program, its **continuation** is  
the **sequence of computations that remain to be done**  
once the execution reaches the given control point  
in order to finish the execution of the whole program.

Often, this continuation can be represented within the  
programming language, as a command or a function.

## Examples of continuations

In an imperative language with structured control.

<i>Program</i>	<i>Continuation of...</i>
$S_1$ ❶ ; $S_2$	❶ $S_2$
(if <i>be</i> then ❶ $S_1$ else ❷ $S_2$ ); $S_3$	❶ $S_1; S_3$ ❷ $S_2; S_3$
while <i>be</i> do ❶ $s$ ❷	❶ $s; \text{while } be \text{ do } s$ ❷ while <i>be</i> do $s$
for $i = 1$ to 10 do ❶ $s$	❶ $s; \text{while } i < 10 \text{ do}$ $(i = i + 1; s)$

## Continuations in functional languages

In languages based on expressions, esp. functional languages, we talk about the continuation of a subexpression  $e$  in a program  $p$ :

the continuation of  $e$  in  $p$  is

the **sequence of computations that remain to be done**

once  $e$  is evaluated to its value  $v_e$

to finish the evaluation and produce the value  $v_p$  of  $p$ .

The continuation can be viewed as the function  $v_e \mapsto v_p$

## Examples of continuations

In a language of arithmetic expressions,  
with left-to-right evaluation.

Consider the program  $p = (1 + 2) \times (3 + 4)$ .

The continuation of 1 in  $p$  is  $\lambda v. (v + 2) \times (3 + 4)$ .

The continuation of  $1 + 2$  in  $p$  is  $\lambda v. v \times (3 + 4)$ .

The continuation of  $3 + 4$  in  $p$  is  $\lambda v. 3 \times v$  (not  $\lambda v. (1 + 2) \times v$ ).

Note that the continuation depends on the evaluation strategy!  
(Right-to-left evaluation would result in different continuations.)

## Continuations and jumps

Commands such as `goto`, `break`, `return`, or `throw` can be viewed as **switching continuations**: they continue not with the continuation of the control point that follows syntactically, but with

<code>goto L</code>	the continuation of the point labeled <code>L</code>
<code>break</code>	the continuation of the enclosing loop
<code>return</code>	the continuation of the current function invocation
<code>throw</code>	the continuation of the <code>catch</code> clause of the nearest <code>try</code>

Example: the continuation of `break` in

```
while be do (break;  $s_1$ );  $s_2$ 
```

is  $s_2$  and not  $s_1$ ; while ...;  $s_2$

Three ways to use continuations:

- as a **semantic tool**  
(esp. to give semantics to non-local `goto` statements);
- as a **functional programming idiom**  
writing programs in “continuation-passing style” (CPS);
- by adding **control operators** to the language  
(like `call/cc` in the Scheme language).

## **Continuations as a semantic tool**

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## Denotational semantics

(C. Strachey, D. Scott, C. Wadsworth, etc, since 1965.)

Let's associate a mathematical object to each syntactic element of a programming language (expression, command, function, ...), describing its meaning with mathematical precision.

Example: for the language of spreadsheet, we define

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{environment} \\ & \overbrace{\hspace{10em}} \\ \llbracket expr \rrbracket & : (Var \xrightarrow{\text{fn}} Val) \rightarrow Val \\ \llbracket prog \rrbracket & : \wp(Var \xrightarrow{\text{fn}} Val) \quad (\text{set of solutions}) \end{aligned}$$

by induction on the structure of *expr* and *prog*.

# Denotational semantics of spreadsheets

Expressions:

$$\llbracket \text{expr} \rrbracket (\text{Var} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \text{Val}) \rightarrow \text{Val}$$

$$\llbracket \text{cst} \rrbracket \rho = \text{cst}$$

$$\llbracket x \rrbracket \rho = \rho(x)$$

$$\llbracket f(e_1, \dots, e_n) \rrbracket \rho = f^*(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho, \dots, \llbracket e_n \rrbracket \rho)$$

Programs:

$$\llbracket \text{prog} \rrbracket : \wp(\text{Var} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \text{Val})$$

$$\llbracket x_1 = e_1, \dots, x_n = e_n \rrbracket = \{ \rho \mid \rho(x_i) = \llbracket e_i \rrbracket \rho \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \}$$

## Denotational semantics of assignment

What is the meaning of assignments such as  $x := x + 1$ ?

Idea: it's a **store transformer** (store = memory state).

$$\llbracket stmt \rrbracket : \overbrace{(Var \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} Val)}^{\text{store "before"}} \rightarrow \overbrace{(Var \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} Val)}^{\text{store "after"}}$$

Some representative cases:

$$\llbracket x := e \rrbracket \sigma = \sigma[x \leftarrow \llbracket e \rrbracket \sigma]$$

$$\llbracket s_1; s_2 \rrbracket \sigma = \llbracket s_2 \rrbracket (\llbracket s_1 \rrbracket \sigma)$$

$$\llbracket \text{if } be \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2 \rrbracket \sigma = \begin{cases} \llbracket s_1 \rrbracket \sigma & \text{if } \llbracket be \rrbracket \sigma = \text{true} \\ \llbracket s_2 \rrbracket \sigma & \text{if } \llbracket be \rrbracket \sigma = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

## Denotational semantics of loops

Idea: add a special denotation  $\perp$  for divergence.

$$\llbracket \text{stmt} \rrbracket : \overbrace{(\text{Var} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \text{Val})}^{\text{store "before"}} \rightarrow \left( \overbrace{(\text{Var} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \text{Val})}^{\text{store "after"}} + \overbrace{\{\perp\}}^{\text{divergence}} \right)$$

We then define

$$\llbracket \text{while } be \text{ do } s \rrbracket = \text{lfp} (\lambda d. \lambda \sigma. \text{if } \llbracket be \rrbracket s \text{ then } d(\llbracket s \rrbracket \sigma) \text{ else } \sigma)$$

where “lfp” is the least fixed point of the given operator.

## Denotational semantics of labels and jumps

(F. L. Morris, 1970; Wadsworth and Strachey, 1970; ...)

Idea: the denotation of a command takes as an explicit argument the continuation of this command. This makes it possible to capture the continuation of a label and to associate it to the label in an environment.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{before stmt} & \text{after stmt} & \text{final} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \llbracket \text{stmt} \rrbracket : \text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Store} \rightarrow \underbrace{(\text{Store} \rightarrow \text{Res})}_{\text{continuation}} \rightarrow \text{Res} \end{array}$$

$$\text{Store} = \text{Var} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} \text{Val}$$

$$\text{Res} = \text{Store} + \{\perp\}$$

$$\text{Env} = \text{Label} \xrightarrow{\text{fin}} (\text{Store} \rightarrow \text{Res})$$

For commands that terminate normally: the continuation is applied to the store after execution of the command, producing the final result of the program.

$$\llbracket x := e \rrbracket \rho \sigma k = k (\sigma[x \leftarrow \llbracket e \rrbracket \sigma])$$

$$\llbracket s_1; s_2 \rrbracket \rho \sigma k = \llbracket s_1 \rrbracket \rho \sigma (\lambda \sigma'. \llbracket s_2 \rrbracket \rho \sigma' k)$$

$$\llbracket \text{if } be \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2 \rrbracket \rho \sigma k = \begin{cases} \llbracket s_1 \rrbracket \rho \sigma k & \text{if } \llbracket be \rrbracket \sigma = \text{true} \\ \llbracket s_2 \rrbracket \rho \sigma k & \text{if } \llbracket be \rrbracket \sigma = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

## Denotational semantics of labels and jumps

`goto L` ignores the current continuation; instead, it restarts the continuation associated with  $L$  in the environment.

$$\llbracket \text{goto } L \rrbracket \rho \sigma k = \rho(L) \sigma$$

A definition of a label  $L$  associates the continuation of the definition with  $L$  in the environment.

$$\llbracket \text{begin } s_1; L : s_2 \text{ end} \rrbracket \rho \sigma k = \llbracket s_1; s_2 \rrbracket \rho' \sigma k$$

$$\text{where } \rho' = \rho[L \leftarrow k_2]$$

$$\text{and } k_2 = \lambda \sigma'. \llbracket s_2 \rrbracket \rho' \sigma' k$$

## Reduction strategies for a functional language

In lecture #3, we saw the need for defining and enforcing the reduction strategy used to execute functional languages:

- **Call by value:** the function argument is reduced to a value before being substituted in the function body.
- **Call by name:** the function argument is substituted unevaluated in the function body. It will be evaluated every time the function needs its value.
- **Call by need** (“lazy evaluation”):  
like call by name, but evaluations are memoized. The argument is evaluated the first time its value is needed, and the value is reused if it is needed again later.



## Denotational semantics for a functional language

Naively:

$$Val = Num + (Val \rightarrow Val) + \{\perp\}$$

$$\llbracket expr \rrbracket : (Var \xrightarrow{\text{fn}} Val) \rightarrow Val$$

$$\llbracket x \rrbracket \rho = \rho(x)$$

$$\llbracket \lambda x. e \rrbracket \rho = v \mapsto \llbracket e \rrbracket (\rho[x \leftarrow v])$$

$$\llbracket e_1 e_2 \rrbracket \rho = (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho) (\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \rho)$$

Problem 1: *Val* is ill-defined in set theory (cardinality issue).

Problem 2: it is not apparent which strategy is being implemented by the semantic function application  $(\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho) (\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \rho)$ .

# Using Scott domains

## Call by name:

$Res \approx Num + Fun + \{\perp\} + \{err\}$  and  $Fun = Res \xrightarrow{cont} Res$

$$\llbracket e_1 e_2 \rrbracket \rho = \begin{cases} (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho) (\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \rho) & \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho \in Fun \\ \perp & \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho = \perp \\ err & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Call by value:

$Res \approx Val + \{\perp\} + \{err\}$  and  $Val \approx Num + Fun$  and  $Fun = Val \xrightarrow{cont} Res$

$$\llbracket e_1 e_2 \rrbracket \rho = \begin{cases} (\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho) (\llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \rho) & \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho \in Fun \text{ and } \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \rho \in Val \\ \perp & \text{if } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho = \perp \text{ or } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \rho \in Fun \text{ and } \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \rho = \perp \\ err & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# The CPS transformation

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## Specifying a reduction strategy using continuations

To make explicit the reduction strategy, we could add (semantic) continuations to the denotational semantics of a functional language.

However, a functional language has enough expressive power to enable continuations to be materialized at the syntax level, by a program transformation:

functional language  $\rightarrow$  “CPS fragment” of the language

## The CPS transformation

The transform of an expression  $e$  is a function  $\lambda k \dots$  that:

- takes as argument a function  $k$  (the continuation);
- reduces  $e$  to a value  $v$  (following a given strategy);
- finishes by applying  $k$  to  $v$  (tail call).

The resulting function is in **continuation-passing style** (CPS).

$$\mathcal{V}(cst) = \lambda k. k\ cst$$

$$\mathcal{V}(x) = \lambda k. k\ x$$

$$\mathcal{V}(\lambda x. e) = \lambda k. k\ (\lambda x. \mathcal{V}(e))$$

$$\mathcal{V}(e_1\ e_2) = \lambda k. \mathcal{V}(e_1)\ (\lambda v_1. \mathcal{V}(e_2)\ (\lambda v_2. v_1\ v_2\ k))$$

Variables are bound to values, hence  $\mathcal{V}(x) = \lambda k. k\ x$ .

Evaluation of an application  $e_1\ e_2$ :

evaluate  $e_1$  to  $v_1$ , then evaluate  $e_2$  en  $v_2$ , then apply  $v_1$  to  $v_2$ .

## CPS transformation for call by name

$$\mathcal{N}(cst) = \lambda k. k\ cst$$

$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \lambda k. x\ k$$

$$\mathcal{N}(\lambda x. e) = \lambda k. k\ (\lambda x. \mathcal{N}(e))$$

$$\mathcal{N}(e_1\ e_2) = \lambda k. \mathcal{N}(e_1)\ (\lambda v_1. v_1\ (\mathcal{N}(e_2))\ k)$$

Variables are bound to suspended computations,  
hence  $\mathcal{N}(x) = \lambda k. x\ k$  or just  $\mathcal{N}(x) = x$ .

Evaluation of an application  $e_1\ e_2$ : evaluate  $e_1$  to  $v_1$ , then apply  $v_1$  to the suspended computation  $\mathcal{N}(e_2)$ .

## Administrative reductions

CPS transformations produce terms that are more verbose than we would write by hand. In the case of an application of a variable to a variable, we get

$$\mathcal{V}(f x) = \lambda k. (\lambda k_1. k_1 f) (\lambda v_1. (\lambda k_2. k_2 x) (\lambda v_2. v_1 v_2 k))$$

instead of just  $\lambda k. f x k$ .

This can be avoided by performing “administrative reductions”  $\xrightarrow{adm}$  on the result of the CPS transformation:

these are  $\beta$ -reductions that remove the “administrative redexes” introduced by the translation. In particular, we can do

$$(\lambda k. k v) (\lambda x. a) \xrightarrow{adm} (\lambda x. a) v \xrightarrow{adm} a[x \leftarrow v]$$

whenever  $v$  is a value or a variable.



## Examples of CPS transformations (after administrative reductions)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{V}(f(g\ x)) \\ = \lambda k. g\ x\ (\lambda v. f\ v\ k))\end{aligned}$$

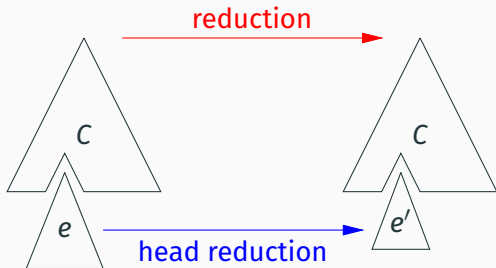
$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{N}(f(g\ x)) \\ = \lambda k. f\ (\lambda v. v\ (\lambda k'. g\ (\lambda v'. v'\ x\ k'))\ k)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{V}(\text{let rec fact} = \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * \text{fact}(n - 1)) \\ = \text{let rec fact} = \lambda n. \lambda k. \\ \quad \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } k\ 1 \text{ else fact } (n - 1)\ (\lambda v. k\ (n * v))\end{aligned}$$

## Specifying a reduction strategy using operational semantics

As a set of **head reductions**  $e \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} e'$   
and a set of **reduction contexts**  $C$ .

$$\frac{e \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} e'}{C[e] \rightarrow C[e']}$$



## The usual strategies

**Weak lambda-calculus:** we can  $\beta$ -reduce anywhere but under a  $\lambda$ .

$$(\lambda x. e) e' \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} e\{x \leftarrow e'\}$$

$$C ::= [] \mid C e \mid e C$$

**Call by name:** no reductions in arguments to applications.

$$(\lambda x. e) e' \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} e\{x \leftarrow e'\}$$

$$C ::= [] \mid C e$$

**Call by value:** left-to-right reduction of applications;

$\beta$ -reduction restricted to values  $v ::= cst \mid \lambda x. e$ .

$$(\lambda x. e) v \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} e\{x \leftarrow v\}$$

$$C ::= [] \mid C e \mid v C$$

## Semantic correctness of CPS transformation

(G. Plotkin, *Call-by-name, call-by-value and the lambda-calculus*, TCS 1(2), 1975)

Executing a program  $e$  after CPS transformation CPS consists in applying  $\mathcal{V}(e)$  or  $\mathcal{N}(e)$  to the initial continuation  $\lambda x. x$ .

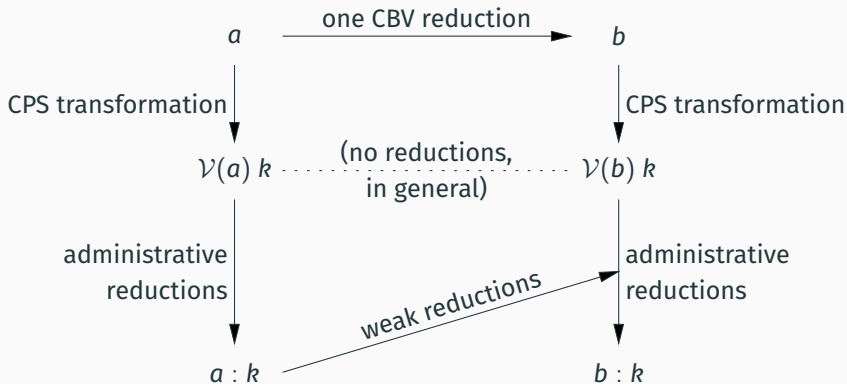
### Theorem

If  $e \xrightarrow{*} \text{cst}$  (resp.  $e$  diverges) in call by value,  
then  $\mathcal{V}(e) (\lambda x. x) \xrightarrow{*} \text{cst}$  (resp.  $\mathcal{V}(e) (\lambda x. x)$  diverges).

If  $e \xrightarrow{*} \text{cst}$  (resp.  $e$  diverges) in call by name,  
then  $\mathcal{N}(e) (\lambda x. x) \xrightarrow{*} \text{cst}$  (resp.  $\mathcal{N}(e) (\lambda x. x)$  diverges).

## Plotkin's proof

A difficult proof, relying on this simulation diagram:



$a : k$ , the *colon translation*, is  $\mathcal{V}(a) k$  where some administrative redexes were reduced.

Terms produced by the CPS transformation have a very specific shape, described by the following grammar:

Atoms:  $a ::= x \mid cst \mid \lambda v. b \mid \lambda x. \lambda k. b$

Function bodies:  $b ::= a \mid a_1 a_2 \mid a_1 a_2 a_3$

$\mathcal{V}(e)$  is an atom, and  $\mathcal{V}(e) (\lambda x. x)$  is a body.

Function applications (to 1 or 2 arguments) are always in tail position.

## Reducing CPS terms

Atoms:  $a ::= x \mid cst \mid \lambda v. b \mid \lambda x. \lambda k. b$

Function bodies:  $b ::= a \mid a_1 a_2 \mid a_1 a_2 a_3$

### **Theorem (Indifference to the evaluation order (Plotkin, 1975))**

*A CPS-transformed program evaluates identically in call by name, in call by value, and in any weak reduction strategy.*

### **Proof.**

Starting from  $\mathcal{V}(e)$  ( $\lambda x.x$ ), all reducts are closed bodies  $b$ , i.e.  $v$  or  $v_1 v_2$  or  $v_1 v_2 v_3$ . The only reductions possible in any weak strategy are

$$(\lambda x.b) v_2 \rightarrow b[x \leftarrow v_2]$$

$$(\lambda x. \lambda k.b) v_2 v_3 \rightarrow (\lambda k.b)[x \leftarrow v_2] v_3 \rightarrow b[x \leftarrow v_2, k \leftarrow v_3]. \quad \square$$

# **Programming in continuation-passing style**

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When writing code in a functional language, it can be useful to perform the CPS transformation manually on selected parts of the program.

This makes it possible to **pass explicitly the continuation of a call** to a library function. This function can use the continuation to **implement advanced control structures**: iterators, coroutines, cooperative threads, ...

## “Internal” iteration on a binary tree

```
type 'a tree = Leaf | Node of 'a tree * 'a * 'a tree
```

The usual “internal” iterator in OCaml:

```
let rec tree_iter (f: 'a -> unit) (t: 'a tree) =  
  match t with  
  | Leaf -> ()  
  | Node(l, x, r) -> tree_iter f l; f x; tree_iter f r
```

The same, partially transformed to CPS:

```
let rec tree_iter f t (k: unit -> unit) =  
  match t with  
  | Leaf -> k ()  
  | Node(l, x, r) ->  
    tree_iter f l (fun () -> f x; tree_iter f r k)
```

Benefit (?): the recursive traversal runs in constant stack space.

## Towards an “external” iterator

A general data type to evaluate sequences of values on demand:

```
type 'a enum = Done | More of 'a * (unit -> 'a enum)
```

(See also: the type `Seq.t` in the OCaml standard library.)

Application: “external” iteration on a binary tree.

```
let rec tree_iter (t: 'a tree) (k: unit -> 'a enum) =  
  match t with  
  | Leaf -> k ()  
  | Node(l, x, r) ->  
    tree_iter l (fun () -> More(x, tree_iter r k))
```

```
let tree_iterator (t: 'a tree) : 'a enum =  
  tree_iter t (fun () -> Done)
```

The “same fringe problem” mentioned in lecture #2.

```
let same_enums (e1: 'a enum) (e2: 'a enum) : bool =  
  match e1, e2 with  
  | Done, Done -> true  
  | More(x1, k1), More(x2, k2) ->  
    x1 = x2 && same_enums (k1 ()) (k2 ())  
  | _, _ -> false
```

```
let same_fringe (t1: 'a tree) (t2: 'a tree) : bool =  
  same_enums (tree_iterator t1) (tree_iterator t2)
```

## A Python-style stateful generator

By adding local mutable state, this iterator becomes a Python-style generator that returns the next value in the enumeration at each call.

```
exception StopIteration

let tree_generator (t: 'a tree) : unit -> 'a =
  let current = ref (fun () -> tree_iterator t) in
  fun () ->
    match !current () with
    | Done -> raise StopIteration
    | More(x, k) -> current := k; x
```

## A library of cooperative threads

The natural interface (in “direct style”):

`spawn: (unit -> unit) -> unit`

Start a new thread.

`yield: unit -> unit`

Suspend the current thread;  
switch to another runnable thread.

`terminate: unit -> unit`

Stop the current thread forever.

## A library of cooperative threads

The CPS interface (with an explicit continuation):

`spawn: (unit -> unit) -> unit`

Start a new thread.

`yield: (unit -> unit) -> unit`

Suspend the current thread;

switch to another runnable thread.

`terminate: unit -> unit`

Stop the current thread forever.

## Implementing the library

A queue of runnable threads (suspended, but ready to restart).

```
let ready : (unit -> unit) Queue.t = Queue.create ()

let terminate () =
  match Queue.take_opt ready with
  | None -> ()
  | Some k -> k ()

let yield (k: unit -> unit) =
  Queue.add k ready; terminate()

let spawn (f: unit -> unit) =
  Queue.add f ready
```



## Example of use

Print integers from 1 to count, yielding at every number:

```
let process name count =  
  let rec proc n =  
    if n > count then terminate () else begin  
      printf "%s%d " name n;  
      yield (fun () -> proc (n + 1))  
    end  
  in proc 1
```

Example of use:

```
let () =  
  spawn (fun () -> process "a" 5);  
  spawn (fun () -> process "b" 3);  
  process "c" 6
```

(Prints c1 a1 b1 c2 a2 b2 c3 a3 b3 c4 a4 c5 a5 c6.)

## Backtracking with continuations

A continuation can be invoked several times. This can be useful to implement backtracking.

Example: matching regular expressions.

```
type regexp = char list -> (char list -> bool) -> bool
```

The “contract” for a regular expression  $R$ :

$R\ l\ k$  invokes  $k\ l_2$  if  $l = l_1.l_2$  and  $l_1$  matches  $R$ ;

$R\ l\ k$  returns `false` if no prefix of  $l$  matches  $R$ .

In the first case, the continuation  $k$  can itself return `false` to signal that it did not match  $l_2$ .

```
let string_match (r: bool regexp) (l: char list) : bool =  
  r l (fun l' -> l' = [])
```

## Definition of the usual regular expressions

```
let epsilon : regexp = fun l k -> k l
```

```
let char (c: char) : regexp = fun l k ->  
  match l with c' :: l' when c' = c -> k l' | _ -> false
```

```
let seq (r1: regexp) (r2: regexp) = fun l k ->  
  r1 l (fun l' -> p2 l' k)
```

```
let alt (r1: regexp) (r2: regexp) = fun l k ->  
  r1 l k || r2 l k
```

```
let rec star (r: regexp) : regexp = fun l k ->  
  alt (seq r (star r)) epsilon l k
```

```
and plus (r: regexp) : regexp = fun l k ->  
  seq r (star r) l k
```

## “Internal generators” and counting

An “internal generator” = a function that produces several possible results, gives them in turn to a continuation  $k$ , and combines the results returned by  $k$ .

```
let bool k = k false + k true
```

```
let rec int lo hi k =  
  if lo <= hi then k lo + int (lo + 1) hi k else 0
```

```
let rec avltree h k =  
  if h < 0 then 0 else if h = 0 then k Leaf else  
    avltree2 (h-1) (h-1) k  
  + avltree2 (h-2) (h-1) k  
  + avltree2 (h-1) (h-2) k  
and avltree2 hl hr k =  
  avltree hl (fun l -> avltree hr (fun r -> k (Node(l, 0, r))))
```

## “Internal generators” and counting

The continuation  $k$  plays the role of a **measure**: it says how much each possibility contributes to the total.

Ex: counting AVL trees of height 4.

```
let n = avltree 4 (fun _ -> 1)
(* 315 *)
```

Ex: counting dice throws  $\geq 16$ .

```
let _3d6 k =
  int 1 6 (fun d1 ->
    int 1 6 (fun d2 ->
      int 1 6 (fun d3 -> k (d1,d2,d3))))
let n = _3d6 (fun (d1,d2,d3) ->
  if d1+d2+d3 >= 16 then 1 else 0)
(* 10 *)
```

## **Control operators**

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Constructs provided by some functional languages enabling an expression to **reify its continuation**, manipulate it as a first-class value, and **restart this continuation** later.

Control operators make it possible to program one's own control structures without using CPS, keeping the program in “direct style”.

## ISWIM, Algol, and operator J

(P. J. Landin, *The next 700 programming languages*, CACM 9, 1966.)

(P. J. Landin, *Correspondence between ALGOL 60 and Church's Lambda-notation*, CACM 8, 1965.)

The ISWIM language: a precursor to Scheme and ML.

- Extended lambda-calculus with call by value.
- Operational semantics given via the SECD abstract machine.
- Static scoping of variables ( $\neq$  Lisp), implemented using closures.

An explanation of Algol by translation to extended ISWIM:

- Mutable state  $\rightarrow$  adding ML-style references.
- Non-local “goto”  $\rightarrow$  adding the J control operator.



## The J control operator

The evaluation of  $J(\lambda y. e') v$  computes the value of  $e' \{y \leftarrow v\}$  and returns it directly to  $f$ 's caller, “jumping over” the remaining computations in the body of  $f$ .

Special case:  $J(\lambda x. x) v$  behaves like `return v` in C.

Using J to encode labels and goto:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{begin } s_1; L : s_2 \text{ end} &\rightsquigarrow \lambda_. \text{let rec } L = J(\lambda_. s_2) \text{ in } s_1; L() \\ \text{goto } L &\rightsquigarrow L() \end{aligned}$$

## The `callcc` operator (*call with current continuation*)

`callcc` ( $\lambda k. e$ )

A construct of the Scheme language that captures its own continuation, turns it into a function, and passes it to  $\lambda k. e$ .

Appears in the literature under various names:

- J. Reynolds, 1972: `escape`.
- G. Sussmann and G. Steele, 1975: `catch` and `throw`.
- The Scheme language, from 1982:  
`call-with-current-continuation`, shortened as `call/cc`.

The expression `callcc( $\lambda k. e$ )` evaluates as follows:

- The continuation of this expression is bound to variable  $k$ .
- $e$  is evaluated; its value is the value of `callcc( $\lambda k. e$ )`.
- If, during the evaluation of  $e$  **or at any later time**,  $k$  is applied to a value  $v$ , evaluation continues as if `callcc( $\lambda k. e$ )` had returned value  $v$ .

In other words, the continuation of the `callcc` expression is restored and resumed with  $v$  as the value of this expression.

## From an “internal” iterator to an “external” iterator

Assume given an “internal” iterator such as the following one for binary trees:

```
type 'a tree = Leaf | Node of 'a tree * 'a * 'a tree

let rec tree_iter (f: 'a -> unit) (t: 'a tree) =
  match t with
  | Leaf -> ()
  | Node(l, x, r) -> tree_iter f l; f x; tree_iter f r
```

## From an “internal” iterator to an “external” iterator

Using `callcc`, we can stop the traversal as soon as `tree_iter` found one element, and return this element:

```
let tree_iterator (t: 'a tree) : 'a enum =  
  callcc (fun k ->  
    tree_iter  
      (fun x -> k (Some x))  
      t;  
    None)
```

The call `k (Some x)` stops the traversal and causes `Some x` to be returned as result of `callcc`.

If the tree is empty, the continuation `k` is not called and `callcc` returns `None` as a result.

## From an “internal” iterator to an “external” iterator

Using two `callcc`, we can define an “external” iterator (enumerating all elements of the tree on demand) on top of `tree_iter`.

```
type 'a enum = Done | More of 'a * (unit -> 'a enum)

let tree_iterator (t: 'a tree) : 'a enum =
  callcc (fun k ->
    tree_iter
      (fun x -> callcc (fun k' -> k (More(x, k')))))
    t;
  Done)
```

If  $x_1$  is the leftmost element of  $t$ , `tree_iterator t` returns `More( $x_1, k_1$ )`. When  $k_1$  is called, the traversal restarts where it left, and moves to the next element of  $t$ , or terminates.

## Implementing structured exceptions with `callcc`

Using an imperative stack of exception handlers.

```
let handlers : (exn -> unit) Stack.t = Stack.create()
```

```
let raise exn =  
  match Stack.pop_opt handlers with  
  | Some hdlr -> hdlr exn  
  | None -> fatal_error "uncaught exception"
```

```
let trywith body hdlr =  
  callcc (fun k ->  
    Stack.push (fun e -> k (hdlr e)) handlers;  
    let res = body () in  
    Stack.drop handlers;  
    res)
```

The construct

```
try e with p1 → en | ... | pn → en
```

translates into

```
trywith  
  (fun () -> e)  
  (fun exn ->  
    match exn with  
    | p1 -> e1 | ... | pn -> en  
    | _ -> raise exn)
```



Adding control operators such as `callcc` to a functional language

- make it possible to implement advanced control structures as libraries (coroutines, exceptions, cooperative threads, ...),
- while keeping the main program written in “direct style” (no CPS conversion required).

## Semantics:

- by CPS transformation;
- directly, using reduction contexts.

## Implementation:

- by CPS transformation on the whole program;
- using multiple call stacks  
(capturing the current continuation = stack copy;  
restarting a captured continuation = stack switching)
- using a persistent data structure to represent the call stack  
(→ 2022-2023 course).

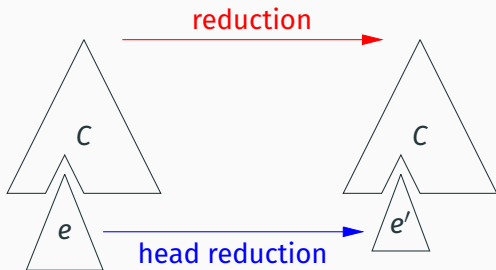
$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{V}(\text{callcc } f) &= \lambda k. \mathcal{V}(f) (\text{resume } k) k \\ \text{resume } k_0 &= \lambda v. \lambda k. k_0 v\end{aligned}$$

The standard CPS transformation uses continuations linearly: every  $k$  parameter is used exactly once.

For `callcc`  $f$ , we **duplicate** the continuation  $k$ : it is used once as argument to  $f$  (within `resume`  $k$ ), and once as continuation for  $f$ .

For `resume`  $k_0$ , we **ignore** its continuation  $k$ : execution continues with  $k_0$ .

## Continuations and reduction contexts



Consider a program  $p$  that decomposes as  $p = C[e]$ , where  $C$  is a reduction context and  $e$  can head-reduce.

Then, the continuation of  $e$  in  $p$  is exactly  $\lambda v. C[v]$ , that is, the context  $C$  reified as a function. ( $v$  not bound in  $C$ )

$$C[\text{callcc}(\lambda k. e)] \rightarrow C[(\lambda k. e) (\lambda v. \text{resume } C v)]$$

$$C[\text{resume } C_0 v] \rightarrow C_0[v]$$

These are not head-reductions under a context  $\xrightarrow{\varepsilon}$ ,  
but whole-program reductions  $\rightarrow$ .

The rule for `callcc` duplicates the current context  $C$ .

The rule for `resume` replaces it by the captured context  $C_0$ .

## Delimited continuations

Continuations captured by `callcc` are **undelimited** and **abortive**: they execute to the end of the program and never return.

For some applications (backtracking, counting), we need continuations that are **delimited** and **composable**. For example:

$$\begin{aligned} & 2 \times \text{delim} (1 + \text{capture} (\lambda k. k(k\ 0))) \\ & \xrightarrow{+} 2 \times (\text{let } k = \lambda v. 1 + v \text{ in } k(k\ 0)) \\ & \xrightarrow{+} 2 \times ((1 + (1 + 0))) \xrightarrow{+} 4 \end{aligned}$$

(The captured continuation “goes from `capture` to `delim`”.)

(Additional benefit: delimited continuations are smaller than undelimited continuations, so capturing them can be less costly.)

## Semantics of delimited continuations

Head-reduction rules under a context  $C$ , but with a sub-context  $D$  that does not mention `delim`:

$$\frac{\text{delim}(D[\text{capture } (\lambda k. e)]) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \dots}{C[\text{delim}(D[\text{capture } (\lambda k. e)])] \rightarrow C[\dots]}$$

Head reductions: (4 variants!)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{delim}(D[\text{capture } (\lambda k. e)]) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} (\lambda k. e) (\lambda v. \text{resume } D v) \\ \text{resume } D v \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} D[v] \end{array}$$

Variant: `-ctrl-`

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Variant: `-ctrl-`, `-ctrl+`



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Variant: `-ctrl-`, `-ctrl+`, `+ctrl-`

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Variant: `-ctrl-`, `-ctrl+`, `+ctrl-`, `+ctrl+`.

# A menagerie of delimited control operators

(D. Hillerström, citation in references.)

Name	Taxonomy	Continuation behaviour	Canonical reference
control/prompt	+ <b>ctrl</b> −	Composable	Felleisen [81]
shift/reset	+ <b>ctrl</b> +	Composable	Danvy and Filinski [62]
spawn	− <b>ctrl</b> +	Composable	Hieb and Dybvig [116]
splitter	− <b>ctrl</b> −	Abortive, composable	Queinnec and Serpette [234]
fcontrol	− <b>ctrl</b> −	Composable	Sitaram [250]
cupto	− <b>ctrl</b> −	Composable	Gunter et al. [111]
catchcont	− <b>ctrl</b> −	Composable	Longley [177]
effect handlers	− <b>ctrl</b> +	Composable	Plotkin and Pretnar [228]

Table A.2: Classification of first-class delimited control operators (listed in chronological order).

## **Summary**

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Continuations are a powerful concept

- to understand and formalize the semantics of non-local jumps;
- to program in functional languages with full control over the ordering and interleaving of computations
  - in continuation-passing style
  - or in direct style, using control operators.

See also: the seminar talks by Andrew Kennedy (22/02) and Olivier Danvy (29/02).

See also: lectures #5 and #6 on effect handlers, a modern, elegant presentation of delimited control.

## References

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### Programming with continuations:

- Daniel P. Friedman and Mitchell Wand, *Essentials of Programming Languages*, MIT Press, 2008. Chapters 5 and 6.

### The menagerie of control operators:

- Daniel Hillerström, *Foundations for Programming and Implementing Effect Handlers*, PhD, Edinburgh, 2021. Appendix A, *Continuations*.

### A history of the notion of continuation:

- John C. Reynolds, *The Discoveries of Continuations*, LISP and Symbolic Computation 6(3–4), 1993.