

1 uF extension to C

1.1 Review of uF

First let us take a look back at the uF language:

$$\begin{aligned}
 e & ::= b \mid x \mid e_1 \oplus e_2 \mid \mathbf{if} e_0 \mathbf{then} e_1 \mathbf{else} e_2 \mid \langle e_1, e_2 \rangle \\
 & \quad \mid \lambda x. e \mid e_0 e_1 \mid \mathbf{let} x = e_1 \mathbf{in} e_2 \mid \mathbf{rec} y (\lambda x e) \\
 b & ::= n \mid \#\mathbf{t} \mid \#\mathbf{f} \mid \#\mathbf{u} \mid s \\
 v & ::= b \mid \lambda x e \mid \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

1.2 Definition of C

Now we will extend uF to allow access to both the values stored in variables, and the location at which they are stored

$$e ::= \dots \mid e_1 = e_2 \mid *e \mid e_1; e_2 \mid \&e$$

We call this extension of the uF language C for obvious reasons, as it models the behavior of the C programming language with respect to pointers and variables.

1.3 *lvalues* and *rvalues*

In actual C, an *lvalue* is an expression that can appear on the left hand side of an assignment operation, and likewise, an *rvalue* is an expression that can (only) appear on the right hand side. An *lvalue* is an expression that describes the location of a variable used in the program. Furthermore, a variable's *rvalue* is the value stored at the location described by the *lvalue*.

These concepts will be important when we proceed to the translation of C into uF_1

2 Translation of C into uF_1

2.1 Review of uF_1

The uF_1 language, like C, was an extension of uF . Here is a quick refresher of uF_1 syntax:

$$e ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{ref} e \mid !e \mid e_1; e_2 \mid e_1 := e_2$$

2.2 Translation of C into uF_1

We now will translate C into uF_1 . To do this we define two translation functions \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{L} . The translation $\mathcal{R}[e]$ takes the *rvalue* of an expression in our C language and translates into an equivalent expression in uF_1 . Similarly, $\mathcal{L}[e]$ takes the *lvalue* of an expression e in C and gives an expression in uF_1 . It is important to notice that not all expressions have *lvalues*- e.g. it does not make sense to find the location of the expression $2+2$; i.e. $\&(2+2)$ is an illegal expression. Likewise, we will not define $\mathcal{L}[e_1 \oplus e_2]$ assuming that well-formed programs do not contain expressions like $\&(2+2)$ or $(2+2) = 5$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{R}[[x]] &= !x \\
\mathcal{L}[[x]] &= x \\
\mathcal{R}[[*e]] &= !\mathcal{R}[[e]] \\
\mathcal{L}[[*e]] &= \mathcal{R}[[e]] \\
\mathcal{R}[[\&e]] &= \mathcal{L}[[e]] \\
\mathcal{R}[[\lambda x. e]] &= \lambda x' \text{ let } x = \text{ref } x' \text{ in } \mathcal{R}[[e]] \\
\mathcal{R}[[e_0 e_1]] &= \mathcal{R}[[e_0]]\mathcal{R}[[e_1]]
\end{aligned}$$

Some program languages allow you to pass in a reference to a function; this allows that function to change the value stored in the variable passed in. This technique is called call-by-reference. Here is a program in Pascal that uses the call-by-reference method to write an increment function (similar to the C programming language operator ++). The value of y at the end of this fragment of a program is 3, since the value y refers to is incremented by the call to `inc`.

```

function inc(var x::int):int
begin
  inc := x, x := x + 1
end

. . .

y:int = 2;
inc(y);

```

If we want to be able to use the call-by-reference feature we must extend the C definition:

$$e ::= \dots \mid \text{rfn } x \ e \mid \text{rapply } e_0 \ e_1$$

`rfn` takes the place of the λ for functions that take in a reference rather a value. `rapply` is used to evaluate call-by-reference functions. Their translations are as below:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{R}[[\text{rfn } x \ e]] &= \lambda x \ \mathcal{R}[[e]] \\
\mathcal{R}[[\text{rapply } e_0 \ e_1]] &= \mathcal{R}[[e_0]]\mathcal{L}[[e_1]]
\end{aligned}$$

3 Continuations

3.1 Translations as they were

So far we have done a number of translations: C to $uF_!$, $uF_!$ to uF , uF to CBV λ calculus, etc. All of these translations were done using a direct semantic translation. This style of translation translates the control structure in the source language into a corresponding form in the destination language:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{T}[[\lambda x. e]] &\mapsto \lambda x. \mathcal{T}[[e]] \\
\mathcal{T}[[e_0 e_1]] &\mapsto \mathcal{T}[[e_0]]\mathcal{T}[[e_1]]
\end{aligned}$$

This type of translation is straightforward and works well when the source language looks a lot like the target: a λ -term in the source language maps to some λ -term of the destination language, etc. However, for translating a variety of language features, it is actually rather limiting.

3.2 Thinking About Continuations

Consider the following code:

if $x \leq 0$ **then** $x = 1$ **else** $x = -1$

We have described the evaluation of this by using an *evaluation context*. We have a hole in the program where we could put a *redex* and evaluate in that context:

if [] **then** $x = 1$ **else** $x = -1$

We can instead think of the context as a function that takes in the *redex* to evaluate as an argument:

$(\lambda y$ **if** y **then** $x = 1$ **else** $x = -1$) $(x \leq 0)$

Using this idea we can make explicit the control structures, and extend it to the whole program. We model all transfers of control as functions where the function accepts values but does not return. The control of the program does not return to the caller of the function, but instead control proceeds in a continuing fashion.

4 CPS λ -calculus

Continuation-passing style is a particular way of writing lambda calculus terms. We can define CPS terms subset as lambda calculus terms with to:

$$\begin{aligned} e &::= x \mid \lambda x s \mid \mathbf{halt} \\ s &::= e_1 e_2 \end{aligned}$$

Here the *lambda* expression is a continuation; it waits for the value of x to continue the rest of the programs. And we also add a special continuation **halt**, which halts the program and return the value of argument it takes.

For example, we have the following programs:

$$\begin{aligned} & s \\ & \mathbf{halt} e \\ & \mathbf{halt} (\lambda x s) \end{aligned}$$

4.1 Operational Semantics

For the small step semantics, we have:

$$(\lambda x s)e \mapsto s\{e/x\}$$

where the evaluation does one step every time. There is no rule for evaluation in a context because there are no evaluation contexts, unlike in ordinary λ calculus.

For the large step semantics, we have: $\frac{s\{e/x\} \Downarrow (\mathbf{halt} v)}{(\lambda x s) e \Downarrow (\mathbf{halt} v)}$

Notice the proof tree of a CPS program is simply stack. This implies that if we implement an interpreter, there is no need to walk back down the proof tree—precisely because there are no evaluation contexts to resume executing.

4.2 Two arguments function of CPS

In lambda calculus, we have

$$\lambda (x y) e \Rightarrow \lambda x (\lambda y e)$$

But this does not hold in CPS anymore. This problem arises because in CPS, the body of the function of a lambda term is a statement, not an expression; it doesn't return a value and neither does the function itself.

So:

$$\lambda (x y) s \neq \lambda x (\lambda y s)$$

In order to solve this problem, we add 2-argument functions to CPS. Change the CPS grammar as:

$$\begin{aligned} e &::= x \mid \lambda x s \mid \lambda(x y) s \\ s &::= e_0 e_1 \mid e_0 e_1 e_2 \end{aligned}$$

Now we can take 2 arguments directly, with an associated evaluation rule.

$$(\lambda(x y) s) e_0 e_1 \mapsto s\{(e_0/x) (e_1/y)\}$$

Here we can consider y as a continuation which takes the result of what the function did with x and passes to the rest of the program.

5 CPS translation

We can make a translation from a lambda calculus expression to CPS statement. Let \mathcal{T} be such a translation function:

$$\mathcal{T}[e] = s$$

We wonder if e is converted to s , and e is evaluated to v , will s be evaluated to **halt** $\mathcal{T}[v]$? This turns out not to be quite true, but it does evaluate to some equivalent term.

To define CPS translation, first we need to make sure the converted program ends with **halt**:

$$\mathcal{T}[e] = \mathcal{D}[e] \text{ halt}$$

The contract satisfied by the semantic function \mathcal{D} is:

$$\mathcal{D}[e]k = s$$

Where s is a statement that sends the value of e to k . k is continuation that takes the result of e and continues the program. We can then define the translation from CBV λ calculus to CPS:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}[x]k &= x \\ \mathcal{D}[\lambda x e]k &= k(\lambda(x k')\mathcal{D}[e]k') \\ \mathcal{D}[e_0 e_1]k &= \mathcal{D}[e_0](\lambda f \mathcal{D}[e_1](\lambda v (f v k))) \end{aligned}$$

Here is an example for CPS translation:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{D}[(\lambda x(\lambda y y))1] \text{halt} &= \mathcal{D}[\lambda x(\lambda y y)](\lambda f \mathcal{D}[1](\lambda v f v \text{halt})) \\
&= (\lambda f \mathcal{D}[1](\lambda v f v \text{halt}))(\lambda (x k') k' \mathcal{D}[\lambda y y]k') \\
&= (\lambda f (\lambda v f v \text{halt})1)(\lambda (x k') k' (\lambda(y k'')(k''y))) \\
&= (\lambda (x k') k' (\lambda(y k'')(k''y))) 1 \text{halt} \\
&= \text{halt } (\lambda(y k'')(k''y)) \\
&= \text{halt } \mathcal{D}[\lambda y y]
\end{aligned}$$