Elements of Programming Languages

Lecture 16: Exceptions and Control Abstractions

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Overview

- We have been considering several high-level aspects of language design:
 - Type soundness
 - References
 - Evaluation order
- Today we complete this tour and examine:
 - Exceptions
 - Tail recursion
 - Other control abstractions

Exceptions

- In earlier lectures, we considered several approaches to error handling
- Exceptions are another popular approach (supported by Java, C++, Scala, ML, Python, etc.)
- The throw e statement raises an exception e
- A try/catch block runs a statement; if an exception is raised, control transfers to the corresponding handler

```
try { ... do something ... }
catch (IOException e)
   {... handle exception e ...}
catch (NullPointerException e)
   {... handle another exception...}
```

finally and resource cleanup

- What if the try block allocated some resources?
- We should make sure they get deallocated!
- finally clause: gets run at the end whether or not exception is thrown

• Java 7: "try-with-resources" encapsulates this pattern, for resources implementing AutoCloseable interface

throws clauses

 In Java, potentially unhandled exceptions typically need to be declared in the types of methods

```
void writeFile(String filename)
    throws IOException {
    InputStream in = new FileInputStream(filename);
    ... write to file ...
    in.close();
}
```

- This means programmers using such methods know that certain exceptions need to be handled
- Failure to handle or declare an exception is a type error!
 - (however, certain *unchecked exceptions* / errors do not need to be declared, e.g. NullPointerException)



Exceptions in Scala

As you might expect, Scala supports a similar mechanism:

```
try { ... do something ... }
catch {
  case exn: IOException =>
    ... handle IO exception...
  case exn: NullPointerException =>
    ... handle null pointer exception...
} finally { ... cleanup ...}
```

- Main difference: The catch block is just a Scala pattern match on exceptions
 - Scala allows pattern matching on types (via isInstanceOf/asInstanceOf)
- Also: throws clauses not required



Exceptions for shortcutting

• We can also use exceptions for "normal" computation

```
def product(l: List[Int]) = {
 object Zero extends Throwable
 def go(l: List[Int]): Int = 1 match {
   case Nil => 1
   case x::xs =>
     if (x == 0) {throw Zero} else {x * go(xs)}
 try { go(1) }
 catch { case Zero => 0 }
```

potentially saving a lot of effort if the list contains 0



Exceptions in practice

Java:

- Exceptions are subclasses of java.lang.Throwable
- Method types must declare (most) possible exceptions in throws clause
- compile-time error if an exception can be raised and not caught or declared
- multiple "catch" blocks; "finally" clause to allow cleanup

Scala:

- doesn't require declaring thrown exceptions: this becomes especially painful in a higher-order language...
- "catch" does pattern matching

Modeling exceptions

• We will formalize a simple model of exceptions:

$$e ::= \cdots \mid \text{raise } e \mid e_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\}$$

- Here, raise e throws an arbitrary value as an "exception"
- while e_1 handle $\{x \Rightarrow e_2\}$ evaluates e_1 and, if an exception is thrown during evaluation, binds the value v to x and evaluates e.
- Define L_{Exn} as L_{Rec} extended with exceptions

Exceptions and types

• Exception constructs are straightforward to typecheck:

$$\tau ::= \cdots \mid \mathsf{exn}$$

Usually, the exn type is extensible (e.g. by subclassing)

```
 \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{raise } e : \tau} \text{ for } \mathsf{L}_{\mathsf{Exn}}   \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathsf{exn}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{raise } e : \tau} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma, x : \mathsf{exn} \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \; \mathsf{handle} \; \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} : \tau}
```

- Note: raise e can have any type! (because raise e never returns)
- The return types of e_1 and e_2 in handler must match.

Interpreting exceptions

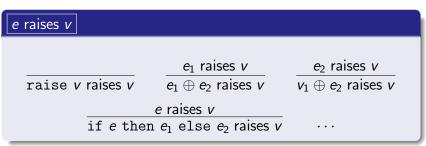
 We can extend our Scala interpreter for L_{Rec} to manage exceptions as follows:

```
case class ExceptionV(v: Value) extends Throwable
def eval(e: Expr): Value = e match {
 case Raise(e: Expr) => throw (ExceptionV(eval(e)))
 case Handle(e1: Expr, x: Variable, e2:Expr) =>
   try {
     eval(e1)
   } catch (ExceptionV(v)) {
     eval(subst(e2,v,x))
```

• This might seem a little circular!

Semantics of exceptions

- To formalize the semantics of exceptions, we need an auxiliary judgment e raises v
- Intuitively: this says that expression e does not finish normally but instead raises exception value v



• The most interesting rule is the first one; the rest are "administrative"



Semantics of exceptions

 We can now define the small-step semantics of handle using the following additional rules:

$$\begin{array}{c} e_1 \mapsto e_1' \\ \hline e_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \mapsto e_1' \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \\ \hline v_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \mapsto v_1 \\ \hline e_1 \text{ raises } v \\ \hline e_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \mapsto e_2[v/x] \\ \end{array}$$

- If e_1 steps normally to e'_1 , take that step
- If e_1 raises an exception v, substitute it in for x and evaluate e_2

Tail recursion

- A function call is a tail call if it is the last action of the calling function. If every recursive call is a tail call, we say f is tail recursive.
- For example, this version of fact is not tail recursive:

```
def fact1(n: Int): Int =
  if (n == 0) {1} else {n * (fact1(n-1))}
```

• But this one is:

```
def fact2(n: Int) = {
  def go(n: Int, r: Int): Int =
    if (n == 0) {r} else {go(n-1,n*r)}
  go(n,1)
}
```

Tail recursion and efficiency

- Tail recursive functions can be compiled more efficiently
- because there is no more "work" to do after the recursive call
- In Scala, there is a (checked) annotation @tailrec to mark tail-recursive functions for optimization

```
def fact2(n: Int) = {
    @tailrec
    def go(n: Int, r: Int): Int =
        if (n == 0) {r} else {go(n-1,n*r)}
        go(n,1)
}
```

Continuations [non-examinable]

- Conditionals, while-loops, exceptions, "goto" are all form of control abstraction
- Continuations are a highly general notion of control abstraction, which can be used to implement exceptions (and much else).
- Material covered from here on is non-examinable.
 - just for fun!
 - (Depends on your definition of fun, I suppose)

Continuations

- A continuation is a function representing "the rest of the computation"
- Any function can be put in "continuation-passing form"
- for example

```
def fact3[A](n: Int, k: Int => A): A =
  if (n == 0) {k(1)}
  else {fact3(n-1, {m => k (n * m)})}
```

- This says: if n is 0, pass 1 to k
- otherwise, recursively call with parameters n-1 and $\lambda r.k(n \times r)$
- "when done, multiply the result by n and pass to k"

How does this work?

```
def fact3[A](n: Int, k: Int => A): A =

if (n == 0) {k(1)} else {fact3(n-1, {r => k (n * r)})}

fact3(3, \lambda x.x)
```

```
\mapsto fact3(2, \lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r_1))
       fact3(1, \lambda r_2.(\lambda r.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r)) (2 \times r_2))
\mapsto fact3(0, \lambda r_3.(\lambda r_2.(\lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 × r_1)) (2 × r_2)) (1 × r_3))
\mapsto (\lambda r_3.(\lambda r_2.(\lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r_1)) (2 \times r_2)) (1 \times r_3)) 1
\mapsto (\lambda r_2.(\lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r_1)) (2 \times r_2)) (1 \times 1)
\mapsto (\lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r_1)) (2 \times 1)
\mapsto (\lambda x.x) (3 \times 2)
\mapsto 6
```

Interpreting L_{Arith} using continuations

```
def eval[A](e: Expr, k: Value => A): A = e match {
 // Arithmetic
 case Num(n) => k(NumV(n))
 case Plus(e1,e2) =>
   eval(e1, {case NumV(v1) =>
     eval(e2,{case NumV(v2) => k(NumV(v1+v2))})})
 case Times(e1,e2) =>
   eval(e1, {case NumV(v1) =>
     eval(e2,{case NumV(v2) \Rightarrow k(NumV(v1*v2))})
```

Interpreting L_{If} using continuations

```
def eval[A](e: Expr, k: Value => A): A = e match {
  // Booleans
  case Bool(n) => k(BoolV(n))
  case Eq(e1,e2) =>
    eval(e1, \{v1 =>
      eval(e2, \{v2 \Rightarrow k(BoolV(v1 == v2))\})\})
  case IfThenElse(e,e1,e2) =>
    eval(e, {case BoolV(v) =>
      if(v) { eval(e1,k) } else { eval(e2,k) } })
```

Interpreting L_{Let} using continuations

```
def eval[A](e: Expr, k: Value => A): A = e match {
    ...
    // Let-binding
    case Let(e1,x,e2) =>
        eval(e1,{v =>
            eval(subst(e2,v,x),k)})
    ...
}
```

Interpreting L_{Rec} using continuations

```
def eval[A](e: Expr, k: Value => A): A = e match {
  // Functions
  case Lambda(x,ty,e) => k(LambdaV(x,ty,e))
  case Rec(f,x,ty1,ty2,e) \Rightarrow k(RecV(f,x,ty1,ty2,e))
  case Apply(e1,e2) =>
    eval(e1, {v1 =>
      eval(e2, \{v2 \Rightarrow v1 \text{ match } \{
        case LambdaV(x,ty,e) => eval(subst(e,v2,x), k)
        case RecV(f,x,ty1,ty2,e) =>
          eval(subst(subst(e,v2,x),v1,f),k)
     }})})
```

Interpreting L_{Exn} using continuations

To deal with exceptions, we add a second continuation h for handling exceptions. (Cases seen so far just pass h along.)

When raising an exception, we forget k and pass to h. When handling, we install new handler using e2

Summary

- Today we completed our tour of
 - Type soundness
 - References and resource management
 - Evaluation order
 - Exceptions and control abstractions (today)
- which can interact with each other and other language features in subtle ways
- Next time:
 - review lecture
 - information about exam, reading