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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
	- **e** 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

```
InputStream in = null;
try { in = new FileInputStream(fname);
       ... do something with in ... }
catch (IOException exn) {...}
finally \{ \text{if}( \text{in} != \text{null} ) \}in.close() : \}
```
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 ExceptionsContinuations Tail recursion Continuations Tail recursion
```
Exceptions for shortcutting

We can also use exceptions for "normal" computation

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

 $e ::= \dots |$ raise $e | e_1$ 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_2 .
- Define L_{Exn} as L_{Rec} extended with exceptions

Exceptions and types

• Exception constructs are straightforward to typecheck:

$$
\tau ::= \cdots | \text{ exam}
$$

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

- Note: raise e can have any type! (because raise e never returns)
- \bullet 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:

$$
\cfrac{e_1 \mapsto e'_1}{e_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \mapsto e'_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\}}
$$
\n
$$
\cfrac{v_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \mapsto v_1}{v_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \mapsto v_1}
$$
\n
$$
\cfrac{e_1 \text{ raises } v}{e_1 \text{ handle } \{x \Rightarrow e_2\} \mapsto e_2[v/x]}
$$

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

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) = fdef g_0(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) = f@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 $fact3[A](n: Int, k: Int \Rightarrow A): A =$ if $(n == 0)$ $\{k(1)\}\$ else $\{ \text{fact3(n-1, {m = > k (n * m)}}) \}$

- 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 "

[Exceptions](#page-2-0) **[Tail recursion](#page-13-0) [Continuations](#page-15-0) Continuations** Tail recursion Continuations Conti<mark>nuations</mark>

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How does this work?

def $fact3[A](n: Int, k: Int \Rightarrow A): A =$ if $(n == 0) \{k(1)\}$ else $\{fact3(n-1, \{r => k (n * r)\})\}$

fact 3 $(3, \lambda x.x)$

- \mapsto fact3(2, λr_1 .($\lambda x.x$) (3 \times r_1))
- \mapsto fact3(1, λr_2 .(λr .($\lambda x.x$) (3 × r)) (2 × r₂))
- \rightarrow fact3(0, λ r₃.(λ r₂.(λ r₁.(λ x.x) (3 × r₁)) (2 × r₂)) (1 × r₃))
- $\mapsto (\lambda r_3.(\lambda r_2.(\lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r_1)) (2 \times r_2)) (1 \times r_3)) 1$
- $\mapsto (\lambda r_2.(\lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r_1)) (2 \times r_2)) (1 \times 1)$
- $\mapsto (\lambda r_1.(\lambda x.x) (3 \times r_1)) (2 \times 1)$
- $\mapsto (\lambda x.x)$ (3 × 2)
- \mapsto 6

Interpreting L_{Arith} using continuations

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


Interpreting L_{If} using continuations

```
def eval[A](e: Expr, k: Value => A): A = e match {
  ...
  // Booleans
  case Bool(n) \Rightarrow k(BoolV(n))case Eq(e1,e2) =>
    eval(e1, \{v1 \implieseval(e2,\{v2 \Rightarrow k(Boo1V(v1 == v2))\}))
  case IfThenElse(e,e1,e2) =>
    eval(e, fcase Book(v) \Rightarrowif(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 \Rightarroweval(subst(e2,v,x),k)\})...
```
}

 \equiv 990

Interpreting L_{Rec} using continuations

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

...

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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.)

```
def eval[A] (e: Expr, h: Value => A,
                        k: Value \Rightarrow A): A = e match {
  ...
  // Exceptions
  case Raise(e0) \implies eval(e0, h, h)case Handle(e1, x, e2) =>
    eval(e1,\{v \Rightarrow eval(subst(e2,v,x),h,k)\},k)}
```
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