15-150 Lecture 14: Exceptions

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1 Exception Basics

For a while, you've been doing things like raise Fail "error" and raise Unimplemented. What do these really mean?

Recall trees:

```
datatype 'a tree =
    Empty
  | Leaf of 'a
  | Node of 'a tree * 'a tree
and the function to find the leftmost odd number in a tree:
(* returns SOME(the first odd number) if any,
   or NONE if there isn't one
*)
fun findOdd (t : int tree) : int option =
    case t of
        Empty => NONE
      | Leaf x => (case oddP x of true => SOME x | false => NONE)
      | Node(1,r) =>
            (case findOdd 1 of
                 NONE => findOdd r
                | SOME x \Rightarrow SOME x)
val SOME 3 = findOdd (Node(Leaf 2, Node(Leaf 3, Leaf 4)))
val NONE
           = findOdd (Node(Leaf 2, Node(Leaf 6, Leaf 4)))
   Here is another way to write the same code:
exception NoOdd
fun findOdd (t : int tree) : int =
    case t of
        Empty => raise NoOdd
      | Leaf x => (case oddP x of true => x | false => raise NoOdd)
      | Node(1,r) => (findOdd 1) handle NoOdd => findOdd r
```

In the node case, we try running findOdd 1, and then, if that raises NoOdd, run findOdd r. Let's step through

The rule handle-raise says that a raise that is met by a handler steps to the body of the handler. The rule handle-value says that when a value reaches a handler, you discard the handler, because the expression it is around returns normally.

What happens when you have a raise in a context other than an immediate handler? E.g. 1 + (raise NoOdd)? The raise propagates up: 1 + raise NoOdd—; raise NoOdd—.

What is the type of raise e? Recall that an expression's type is a prediction about the value it will return, and this expression never returns a value! That is, the fact that an expression may raise an exception is not marked in its type. Consequently, raise e: 'a for any 'a. e1 handle NoOdd => e2 has type T if both e1 and e2 do: if e1 returns normally, the expression will compute a T, and if it raises NoOdd, it will compute a T.

Here are some tests for findOdd:

The last shows how to convert an exception to an option!

2 Value-Carrying Exceptions

Here's another way to write the same code:

```
exception Found of int
```

```
(* raises Found v where v is the leftmost odd number in the tree,
  or returns if there is no odd number *)
fun findOdd (t : int tree) : unit =
    case t of
        Empty => ()
        | Leaf x => (case oddP x of true => raise Found x | false => ())
        | Node(l,r) => let val () = findOdd l in findOdd r end
```

The type unit is a nullary tuple: it has one value, (), and no operations (cf. the misnamed void in C/Java).

Let's step through

```
findOdd (Node(Leaf 3, Leaf 4))
|->* let val () = findOdd (Leaf 3) in findOdd (Leaf 4) end
|->* let val () = (case oddP 3 of true => raise Found 3 | false => ())
      in findOdd (Leaf 4) end
|->* let val () = raise Found 3 in findOdd (Leaf 4) end
|-> raise Found 3
                                                                [propagation]
   The propagation rules that say that "raise percolates up to the outside".
let val x = raise e in f end |-> raise e
(raise v + e) |-> raise v
(f (raise v)) |-> raise v
raise (raise v) |-> raise v
   Here are some tests:
val () = (findOdd (Node(Leaf 2, Node(Leaf 6, Leaf 4))))
val SOME 3 = (let val () = (findOdd (Node(Leaf 2, Node(Leaf 3, Leaf 4))))
              in NONE end)
             handle Found x \Rightarrow SOME x
```

3 Two Exceptions at Once

Here's a final, somewhat twisted, way to write the code:

Thus function *never* returns normally: it always raises one exception or the other. Because of this, it is polymorphic: it has any result type you want.

Let's step

```
findOdd (Node(Leaf 3, Leaf 4))
|->* findOdd (Leaf 3) handle NoOdd => findOdd (Leaf 4)
|-> raise (Found 4) handle NoOdd => findOdd (Leaf 4)
|-> raise (Found 4) [reraise]
```

If a handler doesn't have a case for the exception that is being raised, then that exception is re-raised.

4 Exception Packets

What exactly are Fail "spec, NoOdd, Found 3? They are exception packets, which have type exn. Like a datatype, the values of type exn are made by applying a constructor to an appropriate argument. E.g.

```
exception Found of int
```

declares a new exn constructor Found : int -> exn. The operation on exn is case-analysis:

```
case (e : exn) of
  Found x => x
  NotFound => 0
```

However, unlike a datatype, where all the constructors are known, exn is EXteNsible, which means there always might be more branches. Thus, a case-analysis on exn will never be exhausitive, unless you have a variable or an underscore as a catch-all.

5 Rules

Know that we know about exception packets, we can state the rules for exceptions in full generality:

```
Typing raise e : 'a if e : exn. If you wish, you can compute the exception you raise:
```

```
raise (case oddP x of true => Found x | false => NoOdd)
```

The general form of handle is e1 handle $x \Rightarrow e2$, which has type T if e1 : T and e2 : T, assuming x:exn.

Evaluation

- Handle-raise: (raise v) handle $x \Rightarrow e' \mid x \Rightarrow$
- Handle-value: v handle $x \Rightarrow e$ $| \rightarrow v$ if v is a value
- Stepping: raise e steps if e does. e handle $x \Rightarrow e'$ steps if e does.
- Propagation:

etc. The latter two rules say that the leftmost exception gets raised.

Syntactic sugar:

```
e handle p1 => e1 | ... | pn => en
```

```
is syntactic sugar for
e handle x => case x of p1 => e1 | ... | pn => en | _ => raise x
    For example,
raise (Found 4) handle NoOdd => findOdd (Leaf 4)
is syntactic sugar for
raise (Found 4) handle x =>
    (case x of
        NoOdd => findOdd (Leaf 4)
        | _ => raise x)
```

which explains why it re-raises Found 4.

5.1 Puzzles

• Raise inside of raise: what happens with

```
raise Fail (Int.toString (4 div 0))
```

Answer:

```
raise Fail (Int.toString (4 div 0))
|-> raise Fail (Int.toString (raise Div))
|-> raise Fail (raise Div)
|-> raise (raise Div)
|-> (raise Div)
```

• Handle inside of handle:

```
handle NoOdd => findOdd (Leaf 4)
```

That is, you get the nearest dynamically enclosing handler. If you got the wrong one, we wouldn't search Leaf 3 in this case.

6 When to use Exceptions

What's the difference between options and exceptions?

Options: you are forced to handle them, or it's a compile time-error Pros: type system forces you to handle failures at each step Cons: type system forces you to handle failures at each step

Exceptions: you are forced to handle, or it's a runtime error. Pros: can code as if the failures don't happen, and handle them at the end Cons: you forget to handle them at the end.

Thus, exceptions are options that subvert the type system.

It's generally good practice to use options if you ever expect someone else to run into the failures—use the type system to communicate to them what might happen! Use exceptions for spec violations. But if you advertize what exceptions you use, then clients can pretend that you wrote the "checked" version, by handling your exceptions.

Indeed, you can convert back and forth:

```
exception Failed
(* creates a function that
   raises Failed if f returns NONE
   returns x if f returns SOME x *)
fun toexn (f : 'a -> 'b option) : 'a -> 'b =
      fn x => case f x of NONE => raise Failed | SOME v => x

(* creates a function that
   returns NONE if g raises Failed
   returns SOME x if f returns x *)
fun toopt (f : 'a -> 'b) : 'a -> 'b option =
      fn x => SOME (f x) handle Failed => NONE
```