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Control in Sequential Languages

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Mitchell Chapter 8

- Exceptions
 - “structured” jumps that may return a value
 - dynamic scoping of exception handler
- Continuations
 - Function representing the rest of the program
 - Generalized form of tail recursion
- Control of evaluation order (force and delay)
 - Can increase efficiency
 - *Call-by-need* parameter passing.

<https://powcoder.com> Exceptions. Structured Exit

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- Historically, `goto` statements were used, which can jump out of anywhere or into anywhere
- Some languages have `break` statements
- Exceptions provide a *clean* way to jump out of or abort a function call.
 - Their effects would not be easy to achieve with other forms of controlled jumps.
- Main language constructs:
 - Statement or expression to *raise* or *throw* exception
 - Statement or expression to *handle* or *catch* exceptions, called a *handler*

<https://powcoder.com> Exceptions: Structured Exit

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Terminate part of computation, achieving the following effects:

- Jump out of construct
- Pass data as part of jump
 - This data can be used, for example, to recover from an error.
- Return to most recent site set up to handle exception
 - The correct handler is determined according to dynamic scoping rules
- Unnecessary activation records may be deallocated
 - May need to free heap space, other resources

<https://powcoder.com> C++ vs ML Exceptions

- C++ exceptions Assignment Project Exam Help
 - Can throw any type Add WeChat powcoder
 - Stroustrup: “I prefer to define types with no other purpose than exception handling. This minimizes confusion about their purpose. In particular, I never use a built-in type, such as int, as an exception.” -
 - The C++ Programming Language, 3rd ed. Assignment Project Exam Help
- ML exceptions <https://powcoder.com>
 - Exceptions are a different kind of entity than types.
 - Declare exceptions before use Add WeChat powcoder

Similar, but ML requires the recommended C++ style.

- Declaration **Assignment Project Exam Help**

exception $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ of $\langle \text{type} \rangle$

- gives name of exception and type of data passed when raised

- Raise

raise ($\langle \text{name} \rangle$ $\langle \text{parameters} \rangle$)

- expression form to raise an exception and pass data

- Handler

try $\langle \text{exp1} \rangle$ with | $\langle \text{pattern} \rangle$ -> $\langle \text{exp2} \rangle$

- Evaluate first expression.
- If exception that matches pattern is raised, then evaluate second expression instead.
- General form allows multiple patterns.

exception Overflow. raise Overflow

exception Signal of int raise (Signal (x+4))

let f x = if x < min then raise Overflow else 1/x

(try f x with | Overflow -> 0) / (try f 0 with | Overflow -> 1)

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let g x = if x = 0 then raise (Signal 0)

else if x = 1 then raise (Signal 1)

else if x = 10 then raise (Signal (x-8))

else (x-2) mod 4

try g 10 with | Signal 0 -> 0

| Signal 1 -> 1

| Signal x -> x+8

<https://powcoder.com> Which Handler is Used?

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let f x = if x < min then raise Ovflw else 1/x
(try f x with | Ovflw -> 0) / (try f 0 with | Ovflw -> 1)
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- Dynamic scoping of handlers
 - First call handles exception one way
 - Second call handles exception another
 - General dynamic scoping rule
 - Jump to most recently established handler on run-time stack
- Dynamic scoping is not an accident
 - User knows how to handler error
 - Author of library function does not

General Form of Handler Expressions

try <exp> with

| <pattern₁> -> <exp₁>

| <pattern₂> -> <exp₂>

...

| <pattern_n> -> <exp_n>

- First, <exp> is evaluated.
- If the evaluation terminates normally, the value of the whole try expression is the value of this expression; the handler is never invoked.
- If the evaluation raises an exception that matches <pattern_i> (and there is no matching handler declared in <exp>), then the corresponding handler is invoked.
- Pattern matching works just as in ordinary OCaml.

Exception for Error Condition

```
type 'a tree = Leaf of 'a | Node of 'a tree * 'a tree
exception No_Subtree
let lsub (t:'a tree) =
  match t with
  | Leaf x -> raise No_Subtree
  | Node (x,y) -> x
```

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- This function raises an exception when there is no reasonable value to return
- We'll look at typing later.

<https://powcoder.com> Exception for Efficiency

- Function to multiply values of tree leaves

```
let rec prod (t: int tree): int =  
  match t with  
  | Leaf x -> x  
  | Node (x,y) -> (prod x) * (prod y)
```

- Optimize using exception

```
let exception Zero in  
  
let rec prod (t: int tree): int =  
  match t with  
  | Leaf x -> if x=0 then (raise Zero) else x  
  | Node (x,y) -> (prod x) * (prod y)  
in  
  try (prod t) with Zero -> 0
```

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exception X Add WeChat powcoder

try (let f y = raise X in

let g h = try h 1 with X -> 2

in Assignment Project Exam Help

try g f with X -> 4) <https://powcoder.com>

with X -> 6

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handler

scope

Which handler is used?

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exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

in

try (g f) with X -> 4)

with X -> 6

- When a handler is in a nested block, the handler expression goes on the stack first and is treated like a declaration.

- A handler in a function definition is treated like a local variable.

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<https://powcoder.com> Dynamic Scope of Handler

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exception X

handler X	6
-----------	---

try (let f y = raise X in

let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

in

try (g f) with X -> 4)

with X -> 6

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Dynamic Scope of Handler

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exception X

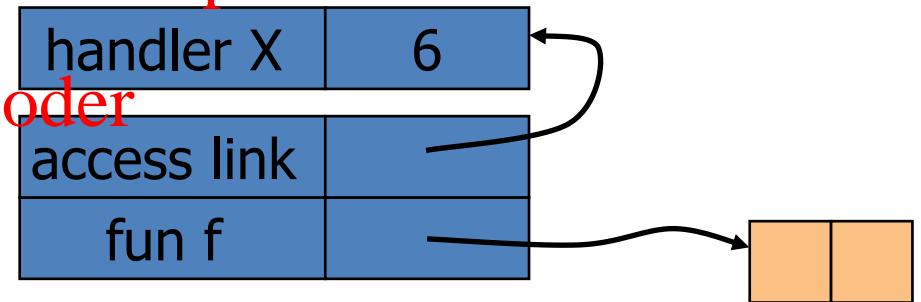
try (let f y = raise X in

let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

in

try (g f) with X -> 4)

with X -> 6



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Note: pointers in closures
left out of diagram, but
can be deduced.

Dynamic Scope of Handler

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exception X

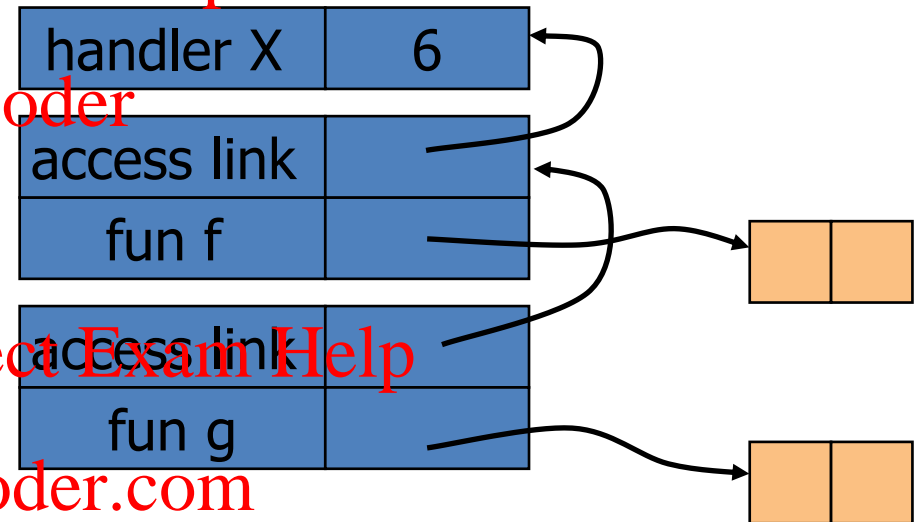
try (let f y = raise X in

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try (g f) with X -> 4)

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Dynamic Scope of Handler

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exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

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try (g f) with X -> 4)

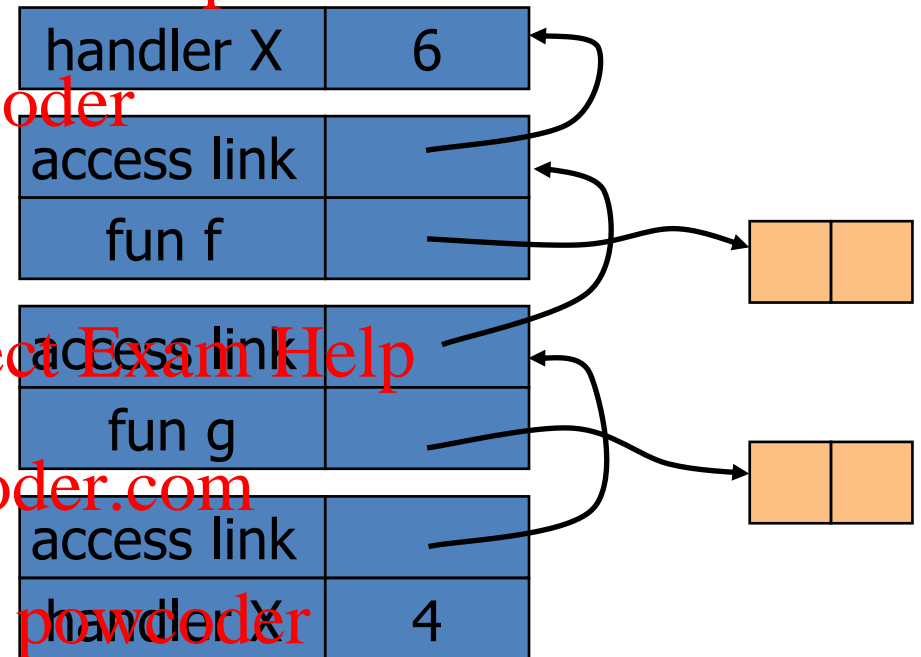
with X -> 6

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Dynamic Scope of Handler

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exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

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try (g f) with X -> 4)

with X -> 6

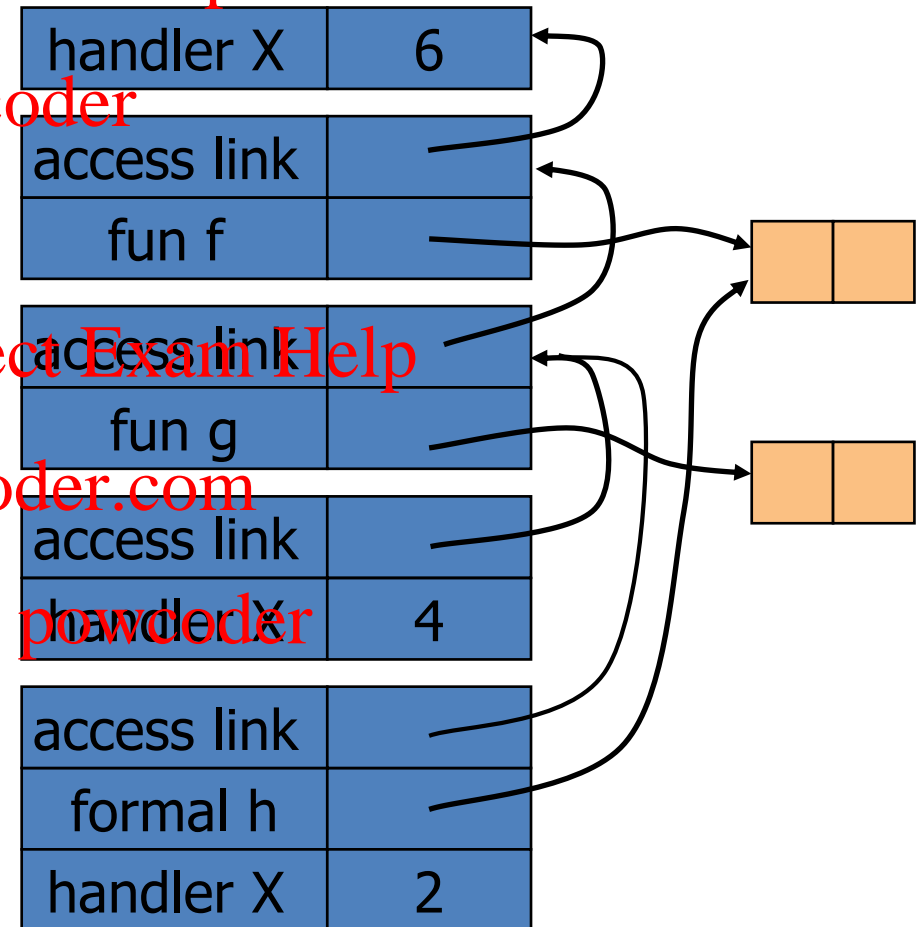
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(g f)



Dynamic Scope of Handler

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exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

in

try (g f) with X -> 4)

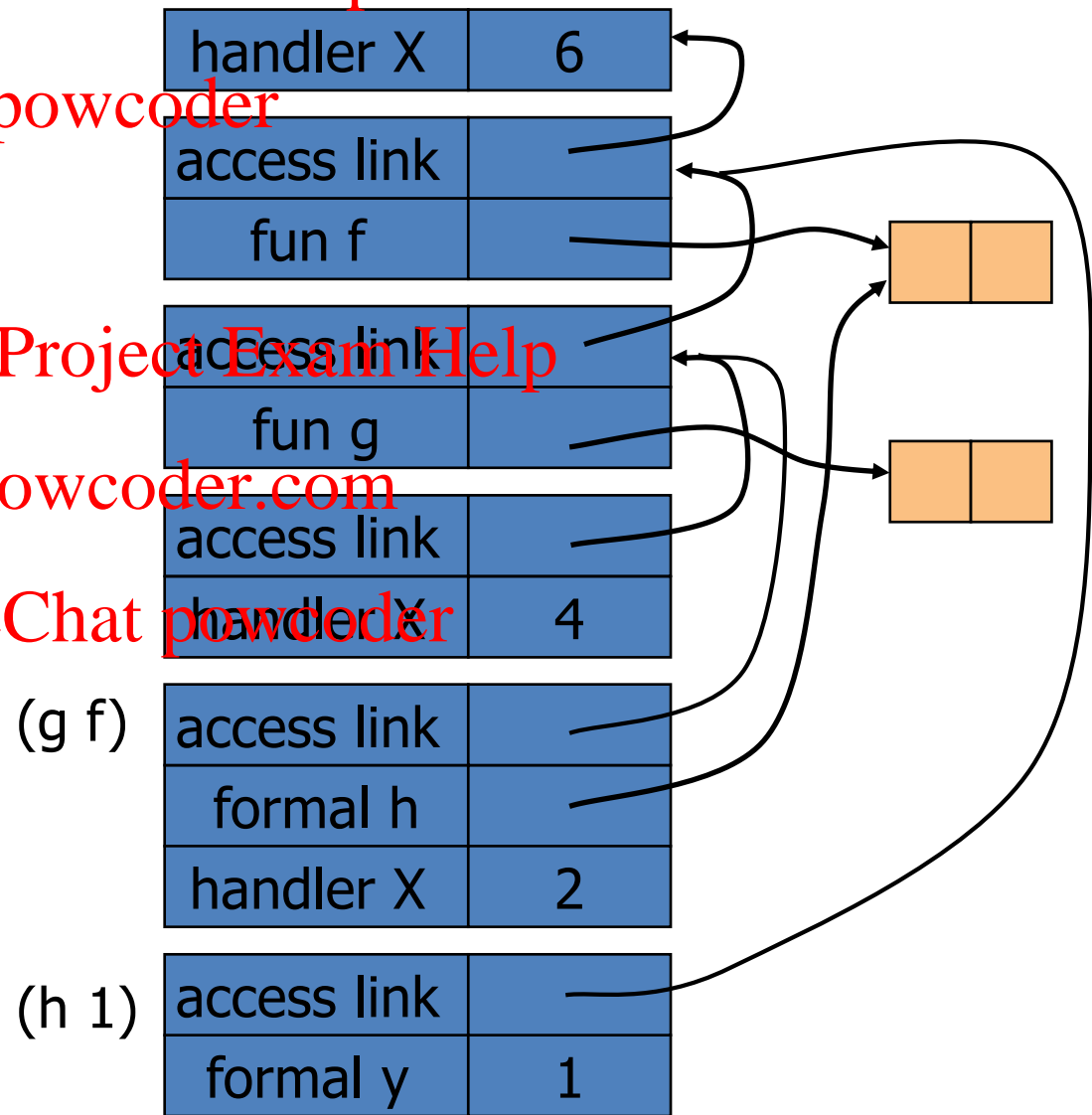
with X -> 6

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Dynamic Scope of Handler

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exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

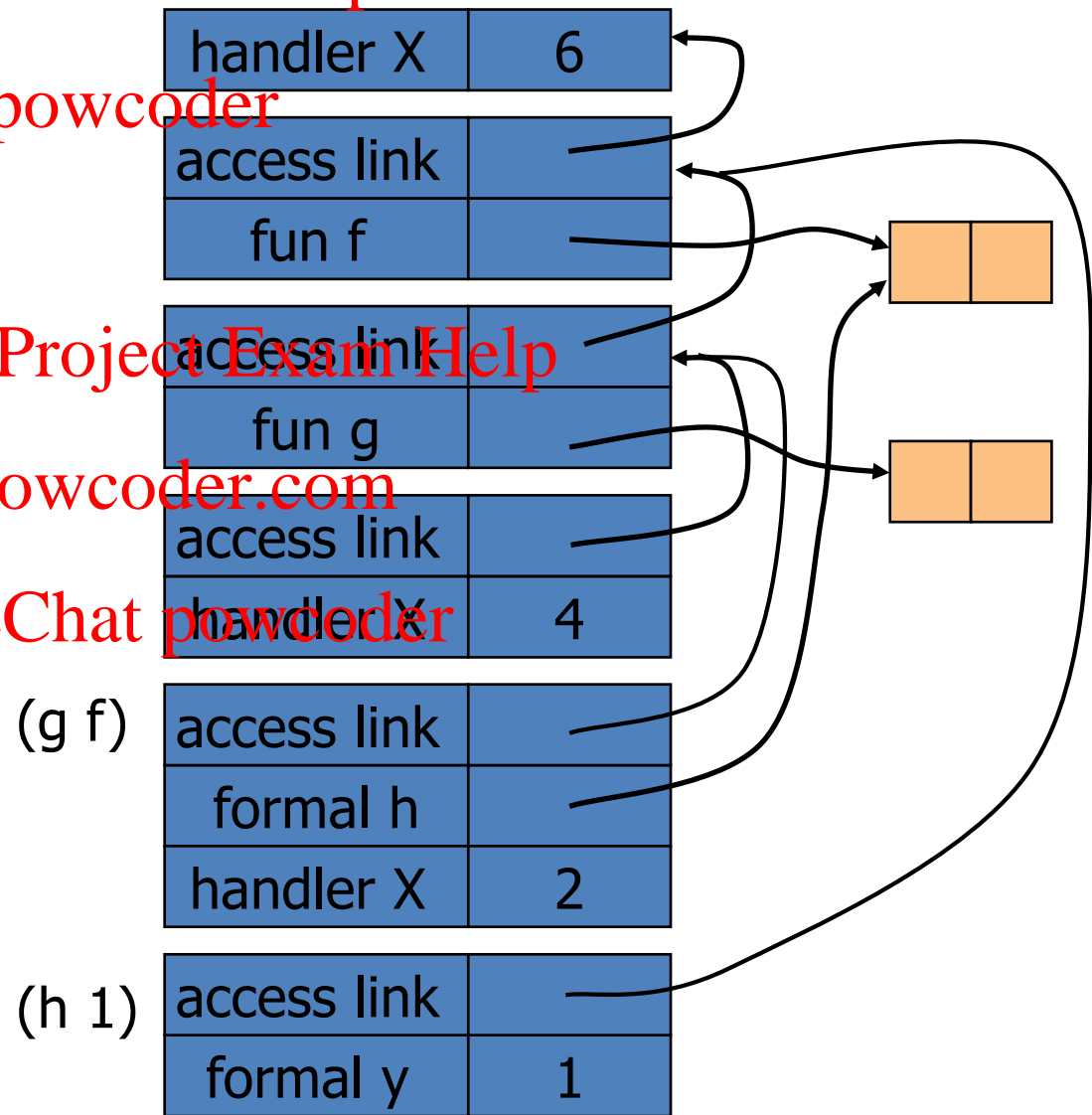
let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

in

try (g f) with X -> 4)

with X -> 6

- **Dynamic scope:** find first X handler, going up the dynamic call chain at the point raise X is executed.
- Result is 2.
- After the handler returns 2, the computation is done, so all activation blocks are popped.



Comparison to Static Scope of Variables

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exception X

try let f y = raise X in

let g h = try h with X -> 2

in

try g f with X -> 4

with X -> 6

let x = 6 in

let f y = x in

let g h = let x = 2 in

h 1

in

let x = 4 in

g f

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let x = 6 in
let f y = x in
let g h = let x = 2 in
 h 1
in
let x = 4 in
g f

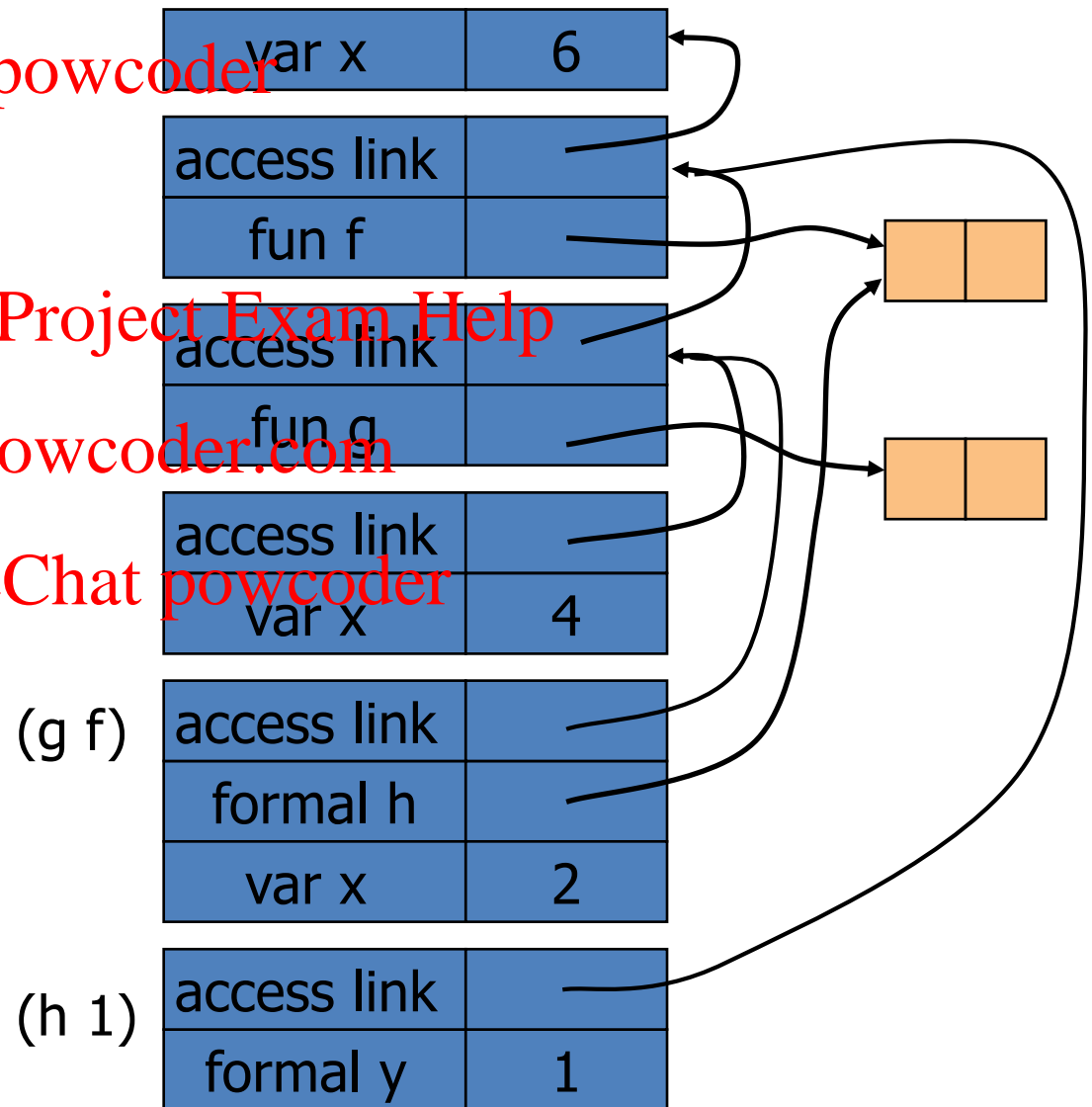
Static scope: find first x,
following access links from
the reference to x.

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- Typing of `raise` $\langle \text{exn} \rangle$
 - Recall definition of typing
 - Expression e has type t if (normal termination of) e produces value of type t
 - Raising exception is not normal termination
 - Example: `1 + raise X`
- Typing of `with` $\langle \text{try} \rightarrow \langle \text{value} \rangle \rangle$
 - Converts exception to normal termination
 - Need type agreement
 - Examples
 - `1 + (try raise X with X -> e)` Type of e must be `int`
 - `1 + (try e_1 with X -> e_2)` Type of e_1, e_2 must be `int`

Exceptions and Resource Allocation

exception X

try

```
(let x = ref [1,2,3]
  in
  let y = ref [4,5,6]
  in
  ... raise X
) with X -> ...
```

Resources may be allocated between handler and raise

- May be “garbage” after exception
- Examples
 - Memory
 - Lock on database
 - Threads
 - ...

General problem: no obvious solution

<https://powcoder.com> Comparison: ML Example

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- Exception used to handle a condition that makes it impossible to continue the computation

`exception Determinant; (* declare exception name *)`

`let invert M = (* function to invert matrix *)`

`...`

`if ...`

`then raise Determinant (* exit if Det=0 *)`

`else ...`

`...`

`in`

`try invert myMatrix with | Determinant -> ...`

Value for expression if determinant of myMatrix is 0

<https://powcoder.com> Comparison: C++ Example

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```
Matrix invert(Matrix m) {
```

```
    if ... throw Determinant;
```

```
    ...
```

```
};
```

```
try { ... invert(myMatrix);
```

```
}
```

```
catch (Determinant) { ...
```

```
    // recover from error
```

```
}
```

- Note:

- raise instead of throw

- catch instead of with

- try as in ML

- A more significant difference:

- exceptions are types

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- The main idea:
 - Stop execution, and then later continue
- More precisely:
 - The continuation of an expression in a program is the remaining actions to perform after evaluating the expression
- Important:
 - does not depend on the expression, only the program that contains it.

- Idea: Assignment Project Exam Help
 - The continuation of an expression is “the remaining work to be done after evaluating the expression”
 - Continuation of e is a function applied to e
- General programming technique: Assignment Project Exam Help
 - Capture the continuation at some point in a program
 - Use it later: “jump” or “exit” by function call
 - A continuation with only a unit argument is like a simple jump.
 - A continuation with arguments is like a jump or exit with data.
- Useful in
 - Compiler optimization: make control flow explicit
 - Operating system scheduling, multiprogramming
 - Web site design

Example of Continuation Concept

- Expression
 - $2*x + 3*y + 1/x + 2/y$
- What is continuation of $1/x$?
 - Remaining computation after division:
let before = $2*x + 3*y$ in
let continue d = before + d + $2/y$
in
continue (1/x)
 - before is not essential, alternative is:
let continue d = $2*x + 3*y + d + 2/y$
in
continue (1/x)

Example: Error-Avoiding Division using Continuations

```
let divide (numer:float) (denom:float)
  (normal_cont: float -> float)
  (error_cont: unit -> float) : float =
  if denom > 0.0001
  then normal_cont(numer /. denom)
  else error_cont ()

let f (x:float) (y:float) : float =
  let before = 2.0 *. x +. 3.0 *. y in
  let continue (quotient: float) =
    before +. quotient +. 2.0 /. y in
  let error_continue () = before /. 5.2 in
  divide 1.0 x continue error_continue
```

Example: Error-Avoiding Division using Exceptions

exception Div

let f (x:float) (y:float) float =

try (2.0 *. x +. 3.0 *. y +.

1.0 /. (if x > 0.0001

then x

else raise Div) /.

2.0 /. y)

with Div ->

(2.0 *. x +. 3.0 *. y) /. 5.2

- Same behaviour, simpler with exceptions
- In general, continuations are more flexible than exceptions, but may require more programming effort.

Continuation-Passing Form and Tail Recursion

- *continuation-passing form (CPS)*: each function or operation is passed a continuation
 - Functions terminate by calling a continuation
 - Thus, no function needs to return to the point from where it was called.
 - Like tail calls...
 - There are systematic rules for transforming an expression or program to CPS.

Example: Tail Recursive Factorial

- Standard recursive function

```
fact n = if n=0 then 1 else n*(fact(n-1))
```

- Tail recursive

```
f n k = if n=0 then k else f (n-1) (n*k)
```

```
fact n = f n 1
```

- How could we derive this?

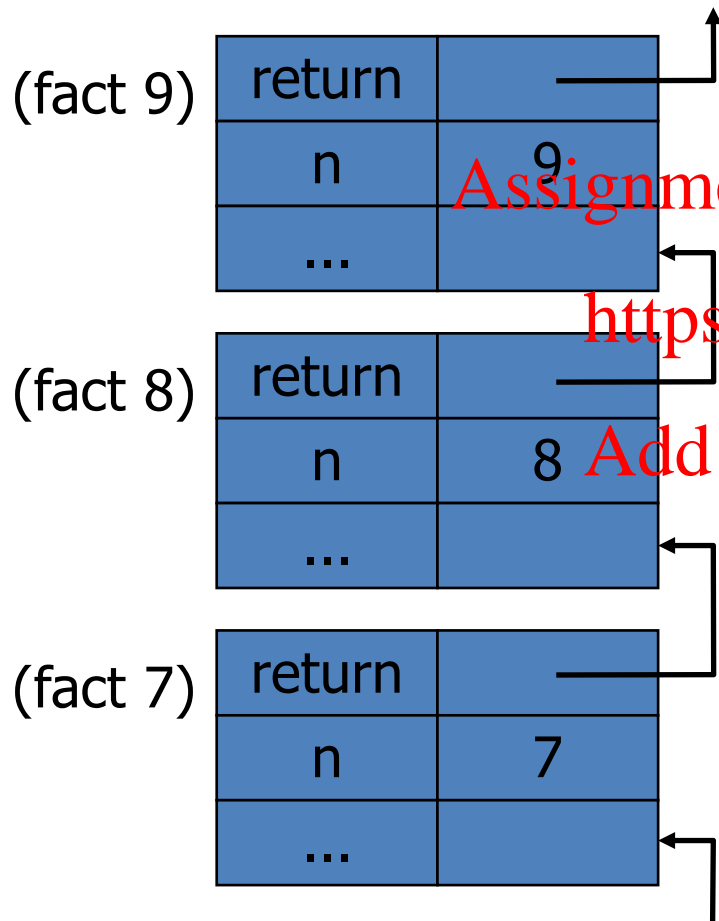
- Transform to continuation-passing form
- Optimize continuation functions to single integer

Continuation View of Factorial

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fact n = if n=0 then 1 else n* (fact (n-1))

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- This invocation multiplies by 9 and returns
- Continuation of (fact 8) is $\lambda x. 9 * x$

- Multiplies by 8 and returns
- Continuation of (fact 7) is $\lambda y. (\lambda x. 9 * x) (8 * y)$

- Multiplies by 7 and returns
- Continuation of (fact 6) is $\lambda z. (\lambda y. (\lambda x. 9 * x) (8 * y)) (7 * z)$

Derivation of Tail Recursive Form

- Standard function

`fact n = if n=0 then 1 else n*(fact(n-1))`

- Continuation form

`fact n k = if n=0 then (k 1)
else (fact (n-1)) ($\lambda x.k (n*x)$)`

`fact n ($\lambda x.x$)` computes $n!$

Computation to do
after calculating
`fact(n)`

Computation to do
after calculating
`fact(n-1)`

Derivation of Tail Recursive Form

- Standard function

fact n = if n=0 then 1 else n*(fact (n-1))

- Continuation form

fact n k = if n=0 then (k 1)
else (fact (n-1)) ($\lambda x.k (n*x)$)

fact n ($\lambda x.x$) computes n!

- Example computation

fact 3 ($\lambda x.x$) = fact 2 ($\lambda y.((\lambda x.x) (3*y))$)
= fact 1 ($\lambda x.((\lambda y.3*y)(2*x))$)
= fact 0 ($\lambda y.((\lambda x.3*(2*x))(1*y))$)
= $\lambda y.(3*(2*(1*y))) 1 = 6$

Derivation of Tail Recursive Form

- Continuation-passing form

$\text{fact } n \ k = \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } k \text{ else } \text{fact } (n-1) (\lambda x. k \ (n * x))$

- Tail Recursive Form as Optimization of CPS

$\text{fact } n \ a = \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } a \text{ else } \text{fact } (n-1) (n * a)$

Each continuation is effectively $\lambda x. (a * x)$ for some a

- Example computation

$\begin{aligned} \text{fact } 3 \ 1 &= \text{fact } 2 \ 3 && \text{was } \text{fact } 2 \ (\lambda y. 3 * y) \\ &= \text{fact } 1 \ 6 && \text{was } \text{fact } 1 \ (\lambda x. 6 * x) \\ &= \text{fact } 0 \ 6 = 6 \end{aligned}$

Summary and Other Uses for Continuations

- Derivation of Tail Recursive Form (Optimization)
- Explicit Control
 - Normal termination -- call continuation
 - Abnormal termination -- do something else
- Compilation Techniques
 - Call to continuation is functional form of `goto`
 - Continuation-passing style makes control flow explicit
- Web Applications and Services (next page)

Web Applications and Services

- Web Applications, Web Services, Message-Oriented Middleware (MOM) and Service-Oriented Architecture (SOA) services
 - Handle long running workflows
 - Workflow may take 1 year to complete
 - Progress of subtasks is asynchronous
- Sequential programming is simpler than asynchronous
- Continuations provide
 - An easy way to suspend workflow execution at a wait state
 - Thread of control can be resumed when the next message/event occurs, maybe some long time ahead

Continuations supported in some versions of Java JVM

Control of Evaluation Order (Force and Delay)

Example: controlling the order for efficiency

```
let f x y = x in  
f e1 e2
```

- Suppose the value of **y** is needed only if the value of **x** has some property.

- Suppose the evaluation of **e₂** is expensive.

- We would like:

```
let f x y = ... x ... Force y ... in  
f e1 (Delay e2)
```

- where **Delay e₂** causes the evaluation of **e** to be delayed until we call **Force (Delay e₂)**

Control of Evaluation Order (Force and Delay)

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- **Delay** and **Force** are explicit program constructs in Scheme
- They can be “programmed” in ML.
- **Delay e** is an abbreviation for $(\text{fun } () \rightarrow e)$
 - Example: **Delay** (3+4) is $(\text{fun } () \rightarrow 3+4)$
- **Force e** is an abbreviation for $e()$
 - **Force** (Delay (3+4)) is $((\text{fun } () \rightarrow 3+4) ()) = 7$

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let time_consuming (n:int) =

let rec tak x y z =

if x <= y then y

else tak (tak (x-1) y z) (tak (y-1) z x) (tak (z-1) x y) in

tak (3*n) (2*n) n

let rec fib (n:int) =

if n=0 || n=1 then 1 else fib (n-1) + fib (n-2)

let odd (n:int) = (n mod 2) = 1

let f (x:int) (y:int) = if (odd x) then 1 else (fib y)

in

f (fib 9) (time_consuming 9)

- **tak** runs for a very long time (and is used by **time_consuming**)
- Function **f** has 2 arguments and the second is used only if the first is not odd.

<https://powcoder.com> Example (Continued)

~~let f (x:int) (y:unit) = if (odd x) then 1 else f (fib y)~~
in
f (fib 9) (time_consuming 9)

- ~~f (fib 9) (time_consuming 9)~~ runs for a very long time
- A version that uses **Delay** and **Force** to only evaluate the second argument if needed.

let lazy_f (x:int) (y:unit -> int) =
if odd x then 1 else fib (y())

in

lazy_f (fib 9) (fun () -> time_consuming 9)

- Because **(fib 9)** is odd, this expression terminates much more quickly than the one without **Delay**

Using a Delayed Value More than Once

- The version of Delay and Force described so far:
 - Requires static scoping.
 - Saves time only if the delayed argument is used at most once.
- A version that works when the delayed argument is used more than once can also be programmed in ML.
- Main idea: store a flag that indicates whether the expression has been evaluated once or not.
 - If not, then evaluate when needed and store the result.
 - If so, retrieve the stored result.
 - This is *call-by-need* parameter passing.

Implementation and Example

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type 'a delay =

| EV of 'a

| UN of (unit -> 'a)

- A delayed value is a reference cell containing an “unevaluated delay”

let d = ref (UN (fun () -> fib 9))

let ev (d:'a delay) =

match d with

| EV x -> x

| UN f -> f()

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ref (UN (fun () ->

time_consuming 9))

- Forcing evaluation evaluates and stores

let force (d:'a delay ref) =

let v = ev !d in

(d := EV v; v)

force d = 55

- After the call to **force**:
d = ref (EV 55)

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- Exceptions

- “structured” jumps that may return a value
- dynamic scoping of exception handler

- Continuations

- Function representing the rest of the program
- Generalized form of tail recursion
- Used in Lisp and ML compilation, some OS projects, web application development, ...

- Delay and Force

- For controlling evaluation order
- Can be used to (greatly) improve efficiency
- Can be used to implement call-by-need parameter passing