

Control in Sequential Languages

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Mitchell Chapter 8

Topics

- 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.

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Exceptions: Structured Exit

- 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*

Exceptions: Structured Exit

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. [Assignment Project Exam Help](#)
- Return to most recent site set up to handle exception
 - The correct handler is determined according to dynamic scoping rules <https://powcoder.com> [Add WeChat powcoder](#)
- Unnecessary activation records may be deallocated
 - May need to free heap space, other resources

C++ vs ML Exceptions

- C++ exceptions

- Can throw any type
- 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.

- ML exceptions

- Exceptions are a different kind of entity than types.
- Declare exceptions before use

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

OCaml Exceptions

- Declaration

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.

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Examples

exception Ovflw.

raise Ovflw

exception Signal of int

raise (Signal (x+4))

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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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

Which Handler is Used?

let f x = if x < min then raise Ovflw else 1/x
(try f x with | Ovflw -> 0) / (try f 0 with | Ovflw -> 1)

- 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.

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
```

Dynamic Scope of Handler

exception X

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 **https://powcoder.com**

with X -> 6

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handler

scope

Which handler is used?

Dynamic Scope of Handler

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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Dynamic Scope of Handler

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

exception X

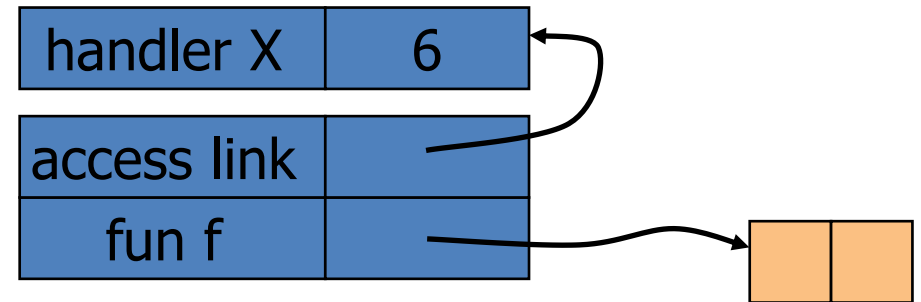
try (let f y = raise X in

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

exception X

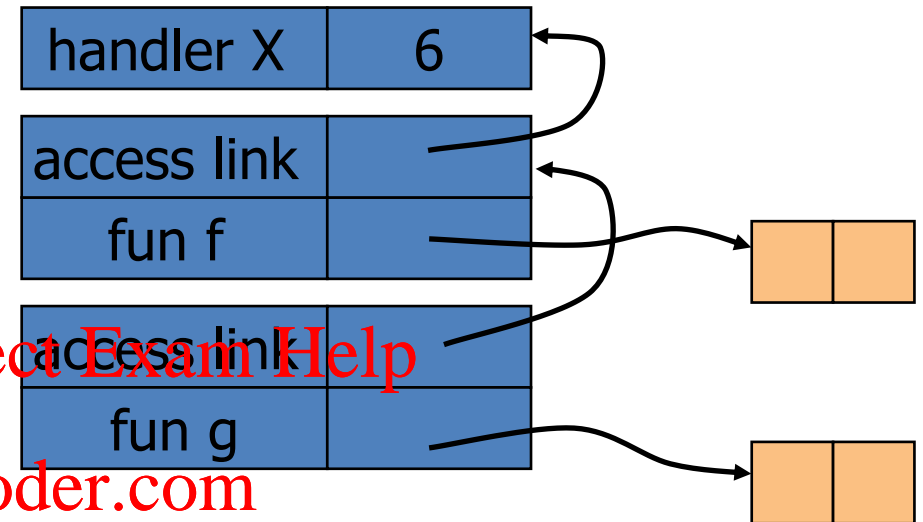
try (let f y = raise X in

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

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try (g f) with X -> 4)

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Dynamic Scope of Handler

exception X

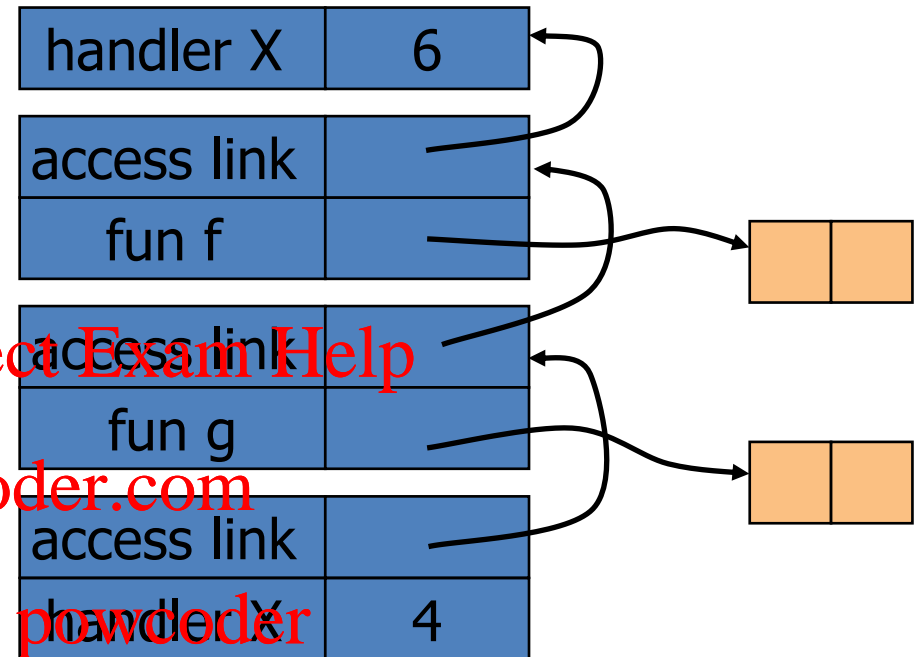
try (let f y = raise X in

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in

try (g f) with X -> 4)

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Dynamic Scope of Handler

exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

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try (g f) with X -> 4)

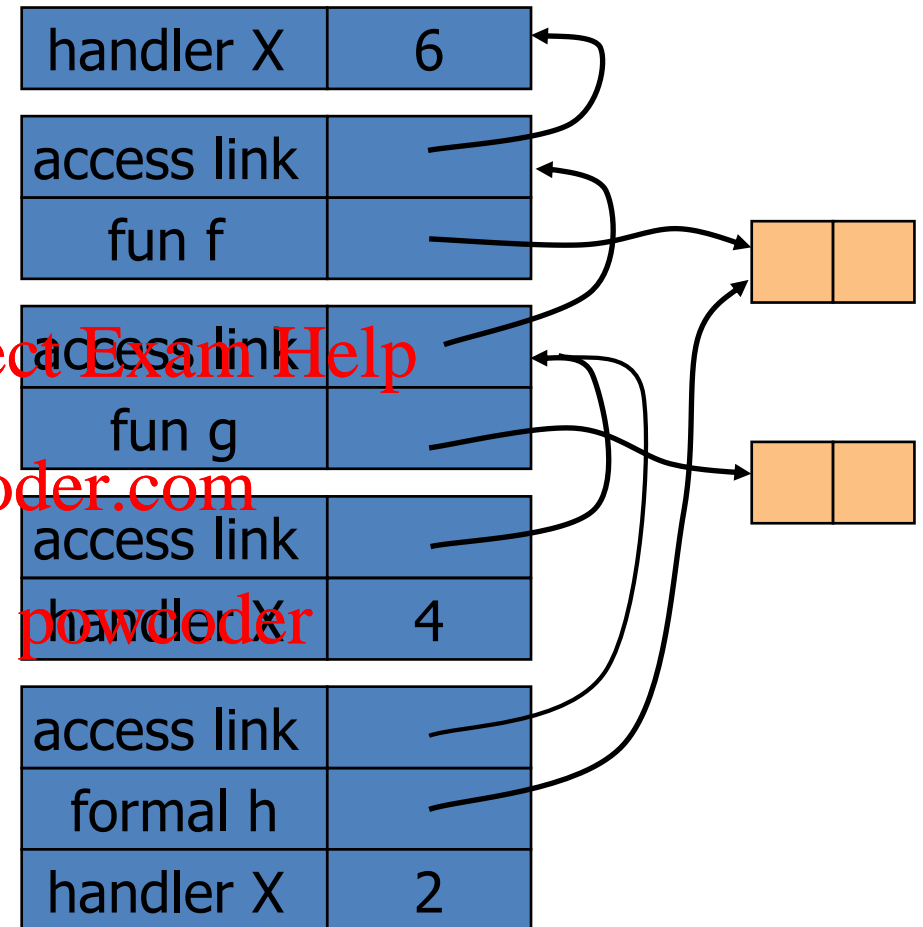
with X -> 6

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(g f)



Dynamic Scope of Handler

exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

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

in

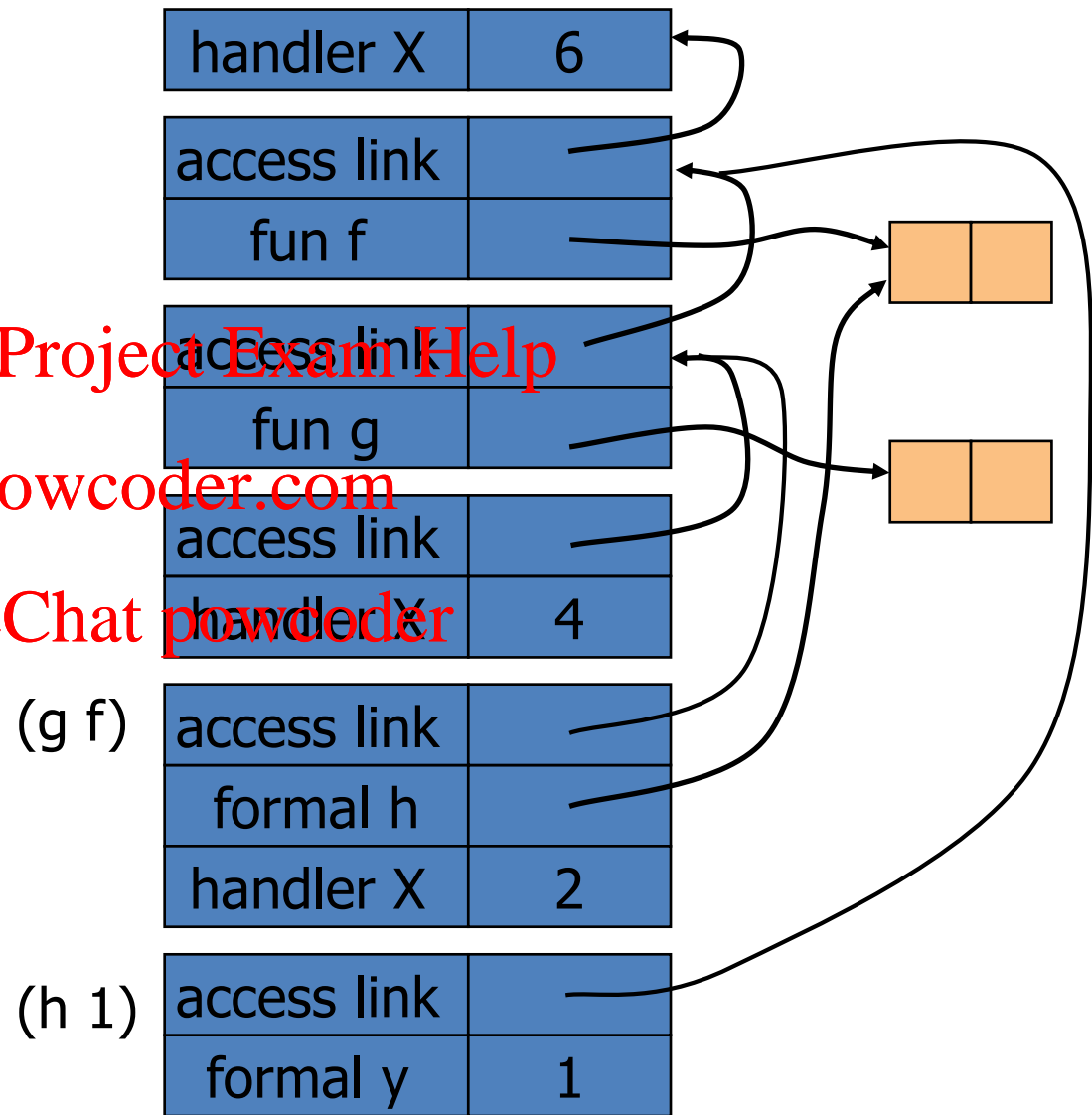
try (g f) with X -> 4)

with X -> 6

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Dynamic Scope of Handler

exception X

try (let f y = raise X in

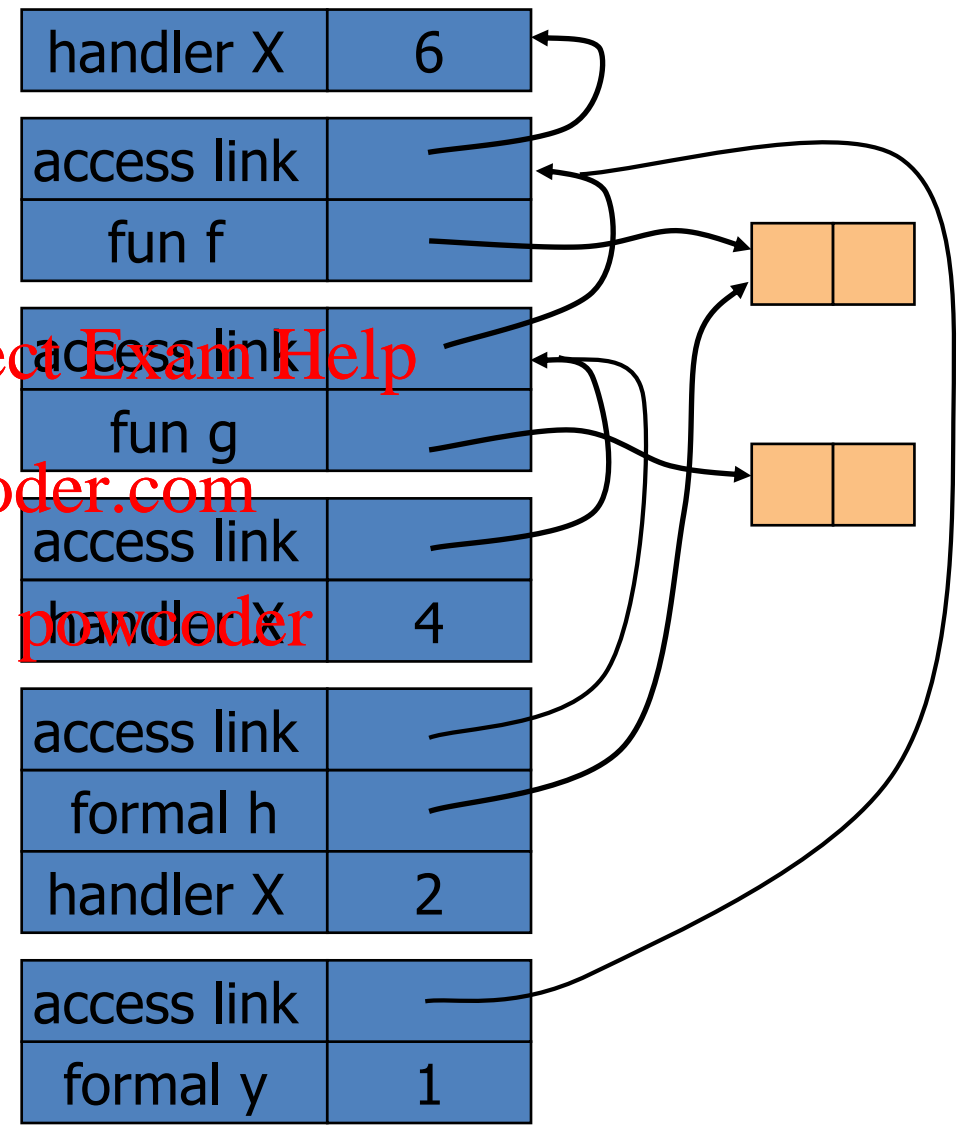
let g h = try (h 1) with X -> 2

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

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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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 of Declarations

```

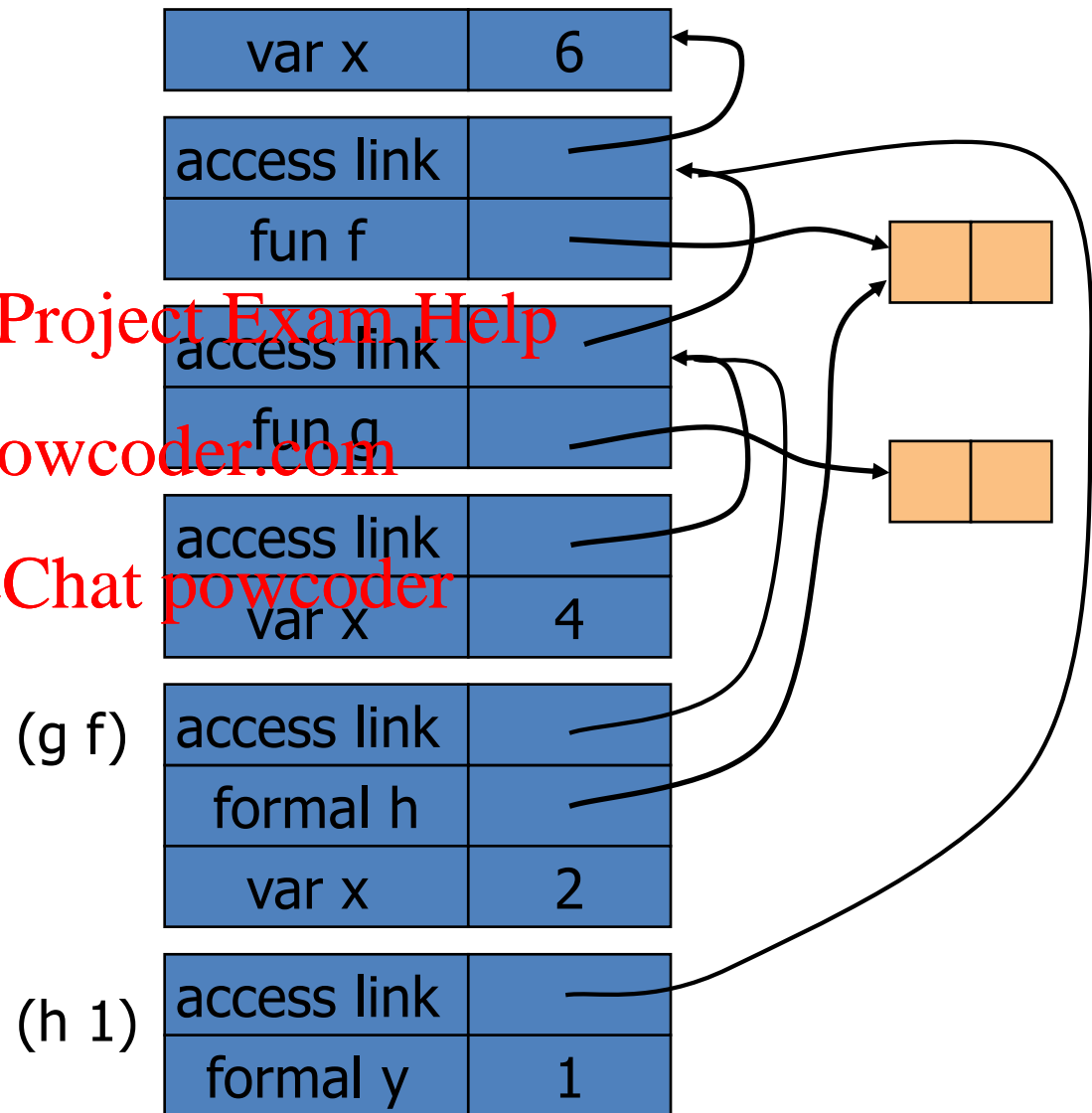
let x = 6 in
let f y = x in
let g h = let x = 2 in
          h 1
in
let x = 4 in
g f
    
```

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

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Typing of Exceptions

- 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: $1 + \text{raise } X$
- Typing of with | $\langle \text{exn} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{value} \rangle$
 - Converts exception to normal termination
 - Need type agreement
 - Examples
 - $1 + (\text{try raise } X \text{ with } X \rightarrow e)$ Type of e must be int
 - $1 + (\text{try } e_1 \text{ with } X \rightarrow e_2)$ 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

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Comparison: ML Example

- 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



Comparison: C++ Example

```
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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Continuations

- 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.

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Continuations

- Idea:
 - 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
 - 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 $(1/x)$

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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
```

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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) / 4

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.

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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

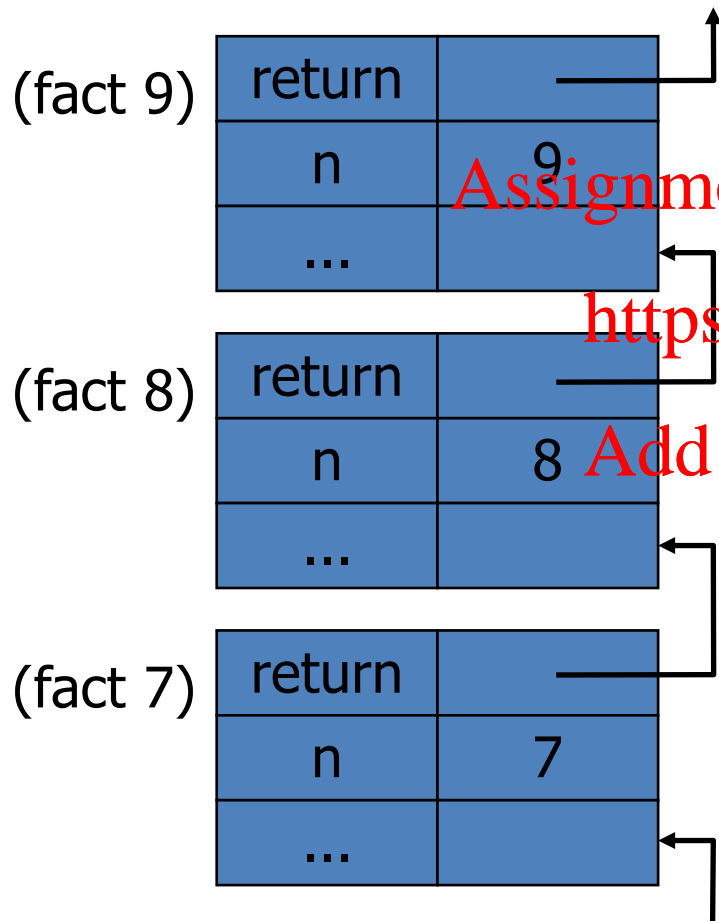
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Continuation View of Factorial

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



- 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

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

- Continuation form

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

$\text{fact } n \ (\lambda x.x)$ computes $n!$

Computation to do
after calculating
 $\text{fact}(n)$

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Computation to do
after calculating
 $\text{fact}(n-1)$

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Derivation of Tail Recursive Form

- Standard function

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

- Continuation form

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

$\text{fact } n \ (\lambda x.x)$ computes $n!$

- Example computation

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

Derivation of Tail Recursive Form

- Continuation-passing form

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

- Tail Recursive Form as Optimization of CPS

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

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

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- Example computation

$\text{fact } 3 \ 1 = \text{fact } 2 \ 3$ was $\text{fact } 2 \ (\lambda y.3 * y)$

$= \text{fact } 1 \ 6$ was $\text{fact } 1 \ (\lambda x.6 * x)$

$= \text{fact } 0 \ 6 = 6$

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)

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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 ... y ... 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)

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

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Example

```
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.

Example (Continued)

```
let f (x:int) (y:int) = if (odd x) then 1 else (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.
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- Main idea: store a flag that indicates whether the expression has been evaluated once or not.
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 - 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

```
type 'a delay =  
  | EV of 'a  
  | UN of (unit -> 'a)
```

```
let ev (d:'a delay) =
```

```
  match d with  
  | EV x -> x  
  | UN f -> f()
```

```
let force (d:'a delay ref) =  
  let v = ev !d in  
  (d := EV v; v)
```

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

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

```
let d = ref (UN (fun () ->  
  time_consuming 9))
```

- Forcing evaluation evaluates and stores

```
force d = 55
```

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

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Summary

- 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

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