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Control in Sequential Languages

Gerardo Schneider
gerardo@ifi.uio.no

Department of Informatics – University of Oslo

**Based on John C. Mitchell's slides (Stanford U.)
(with contributions by Arild Torjusen)**

ML lectures

1. **08.09:** The Algol Family and ML (Mitchell's chap. 5 + more)
2. **15.09:** More on ML & types (chap. 5, 6, more)
3. **06.10:** More on Types: Type Inference and Polymorphism (chap. 6)
4. **13.10: Control in sequential languages, Exceptions and Continuations (chap. 8)**

Outline

◆ Structured Programming

- *go to* considered harmful

◆ Exceptions

- “Structured” jumps that may return a value
- Dynamic scoping of exception handler

◆ Continuations

◆ Evaluation order

Control flow in sequential programs

- ◆ The execution of a (sequential) program is done by following a certain control flow
- ◆ The end-of-line (or semi-colon) terminates a statement
- ◆ What is the next instruction to be executed?
 - The flow of control goes top-down in general
 - Jumps (loops, conditionals, etc)
- ◆ It is not easy, in general to "see" whether a given instruction is reachable from another (Program Analysis)

Fortran Control Structure

```
10 IF (X .GT. 0.000001) GO TO 20
11 X = -X
    IF (X .LT. 0.000001) GO TO 50
20 IF (X*Y .LT. 0.00001) GO TO 30
    X = X-Y-Y
30 X = X+Y
    ...
50 CONTINUE
    X = A
    Y = B-A
    GO TO 11
    ...
```

Just a label

Similar structure may occur in assembly code

Historical Debate

- ◆ Dijkstra: “Go To Statement Considered Harmful” (1968)
 - “... the **go to** statement should be abolished from all ‘higher level’ programming languages...”
- ◆ Knuth: “Structured Programming with go to Statements” (1974)
 - You can use goto, but do so in structured way ...
- ◆ General questions
 - Do syntactic rules force good programming style?
 - Can they help?

Advance in Computer Science

◆ Standard constructs that structure jumps

if ... then ... else ... end

while ... do ... end

for ... { ... }

case ...

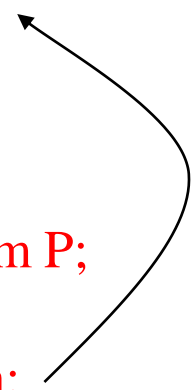
◆ Modern style

- Group code in logical blocks
- Avoid explicit jumps except for function return
- Cannot jump *into* middle of block or function body
- Exceptions and continuations (?!)

Jumps into Blocks – Why not?

- ◆ Label in the body of a function
- ◆ Should an activation record be created?
- ◆ If not, what about local variables?
 - They are meaningless
- ◆ If so, how to set function parameters?
 - There are no parameter values

```
fun bizarre(pars);  
  local vars;  
  ...  
  a: ....  
  ...  
end;  
  
Program P;  
  ....  
  goto a;  
  ....  
end;
```



No clear answers! Better to reject these programs!

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Exceptions: Structured Exit

- ◆ Terminate part of computation
 - Jump *out* of construct, *not into* some part of the program.
 - Pass data as part of jump
 - Return to most recent site set up to handle exception
- ◆ Memory management needed
 - Unnecessary activation records may be deallocated
- ◆ Two main language constructs
 - Statement or expression to *raise* exception (*throw, Java*)
 - Exception *handler* (*catch, Java*)
- ◆ Possible to have more than one handler

Often used for unusual or exceptional condition, but not necessarily

ML Example

```
exception Determinant; (* declare exception name *)
fun invert (M) =      (* function to invert matrix *)
  ...
  if isZero(Det )
    then raise Determinant (* exit if Det is zero*)
    else ...
  end;
...
invert (myMatrix) handle Determinant => ... ;
```

Value for expression if determinant of myMatrix is zero



ML Exceptions

- ◆ Exceptions are a different kind of entity than types
- ◆ Declare exceptions before use
- ◆ Exceptions are **dynamically** scoped
 - Control jumps to the handler most recently established (run-time stack) (more later...)
 - ML is otherwise **statically** scoped
- ◆ Pattern matching is used to determine the appropriate handler (C++/Java uses type matching)

ML Exceptions

◆ Declaration

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

gives name of exception and type of data passed when raised

- exception Overflow;
- exception Signal of int;

◆ Raise

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

expression form to raise an exception and pass data

- raise Overflow;
- raise Signal(x+4);

◆ Handler

$\langle \text{exp1} \rangle$ handle $\langle \text{pattern} \rangle$ => $\langle \text{exp2} \rangle$

evaluate first expression exp1

if exception that matches pattern is raised,

then evaluate second expression exp2 instead

(General form allows multiple patterns)

◆ Compare

try {res:=exp1} catch (OvflException oe) {res:=exp2}

ML Exceptions - example

- exception noSuchElement ;
- fun nth (n,nil) = raise noSuchElement
| nth (0,s::ss) = s
| nth (n,s::ss) = nth((n-1),ss) ;
> val nth = fn : int * 'a list -> 'a

- nth(2,[1,2,3]) ;
> val it = 3 : int
- nth(4,[1,2,3]) ;
> uncaught exception noSuchElement
raised at: stdIn:10.25-10.38

- fun safeNth(n,xs) = nth(n,xs) handle noSuchElement => 0 ;
> val safeNth = fn : int * int list -> int
- safeNth(4,[1,2,3]) ; > val it = 0 : int

Which Handler is Used?

- exception Ovflw;
- fun reciprocal(x) =
 if $x \leq \text{min}$ then raise Ovflw else $1.0/x$;
- (reciprocal(x) handle Ovflw=>0.0) / (reciprocal(x) handle Ovflw=>1.0);

◆ 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

Handlers with pattern matching

◆ Handler

$\langle \text{exp} \rangle$ handle $\langle \text{pattern1} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{exp1} \rangle$
| $\langle \text{pattern2} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{exp2} \rangle$
...
| $\langle \text{pattern3} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{exp3} \rangle$

evaluate first expression exp

if exception that matches one of the patterns is raised,
then evaluate the corresponding expression

Handlers with pattern matching

```
- exception Signal of int;
- fun f(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;
- f(10) handle Signal(0) => 0
              | Signal(1) => 1
              | Signal(x) =>
                x+8;
> val it = 10 : int
```

- ◆ The expression to the left of the handler is evaluated
- ◆ If it terminates normally the handler is not invoked
- ◆ If the handler is invoked, pattern matching works as usual in ML

Exception for Error Condition

```
- datatype `a tree = Leaf of `a | Node of (`a tree)*(`a tree);  
- exception No_Subtree;  
- fun lsub (Leaf x) = raise No_Subtree  
  |   lsub (Node(x,y)) = x;  
> val lsub = fn : `a tree -> `a tree
```

◆ This function raises an exception when there is no reasonable value to return

```
- lsub(Leaf(3));  
> uncaught exception No_Subtree raised at:...
```



```
- lsub(Node (Leaf(3),Leaf(5)));  
> val it = Leaf 3 : int tree
```

Exception for Efficiency

◆ Function to multiply values of tree leaves

```
- fun prod(LF x) = x: int
```

```
  | prod(ND(x,y)) = prod(x) * prod(y);
```

◆ Optimize using exception

```
- fun prod(tree) =
```

```
  let exception Zero
```

```
      fun p(LF x) = if x=0 then (raise Zero) else x
```

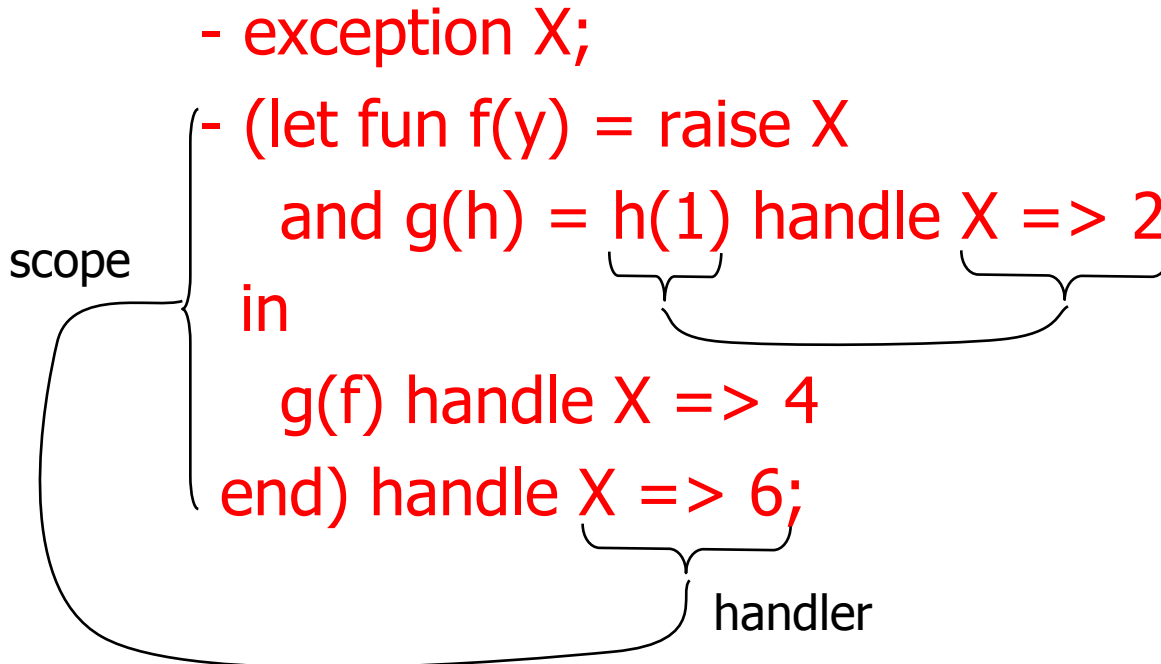
```
      | p(ND(x,y)) = p(x) * p(y)
```

```
  in
```

```
    p(tree) handle Zero => 0
```

```
  end;
```

Dynamic Scope of Handler



What is the value of $g(f)$?

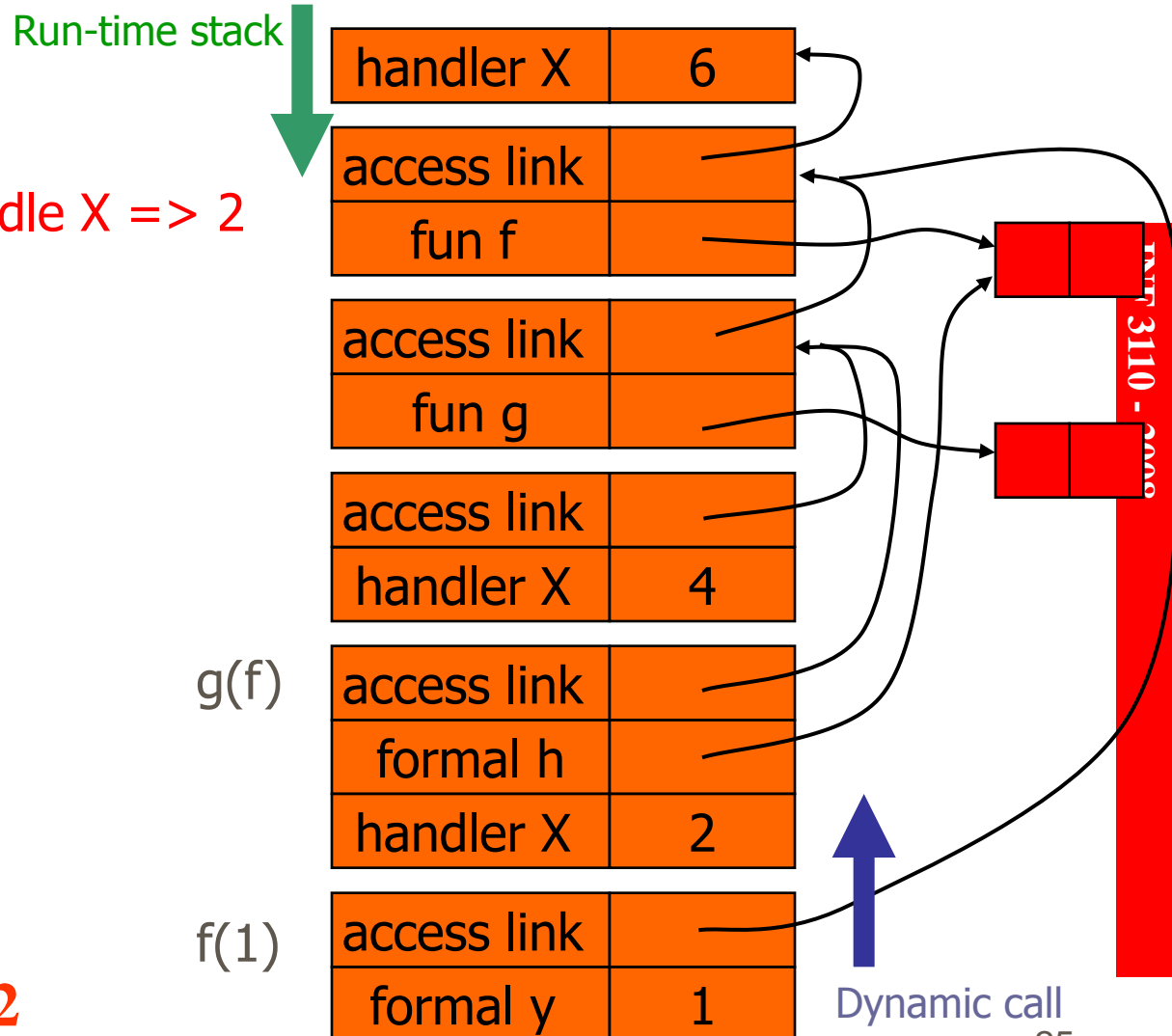
It depends on which handler is used!

Dynamic Scope of Handler

exception X;
 (let fun f(y) = raise X
 and g(h) = h(1) handle X => 2
 in
 g(f) handle X => 4
 end) handle X => 6;

Dynamic scope:
 find first X handler,
 going up the
 dynamic call chain
 leading to raise X.

Answer: $g(f) = 2$



Compare to Static Scope of Variables

```
exception X;
```

```
(let fun f(y) = raise X  
    and g(h) = h(1)
```

```
    handle X => 2
```

```
in
```

```
    g(f) handle X => 4
```

```
end) handle X => 6;
```

```
val x=6;
```

```
(let fun f(y) = x  
    and g(h) =
```

```
        let val x=2 in h(1)
```

```
in
```

```
    let val x=4 in g(f)
```

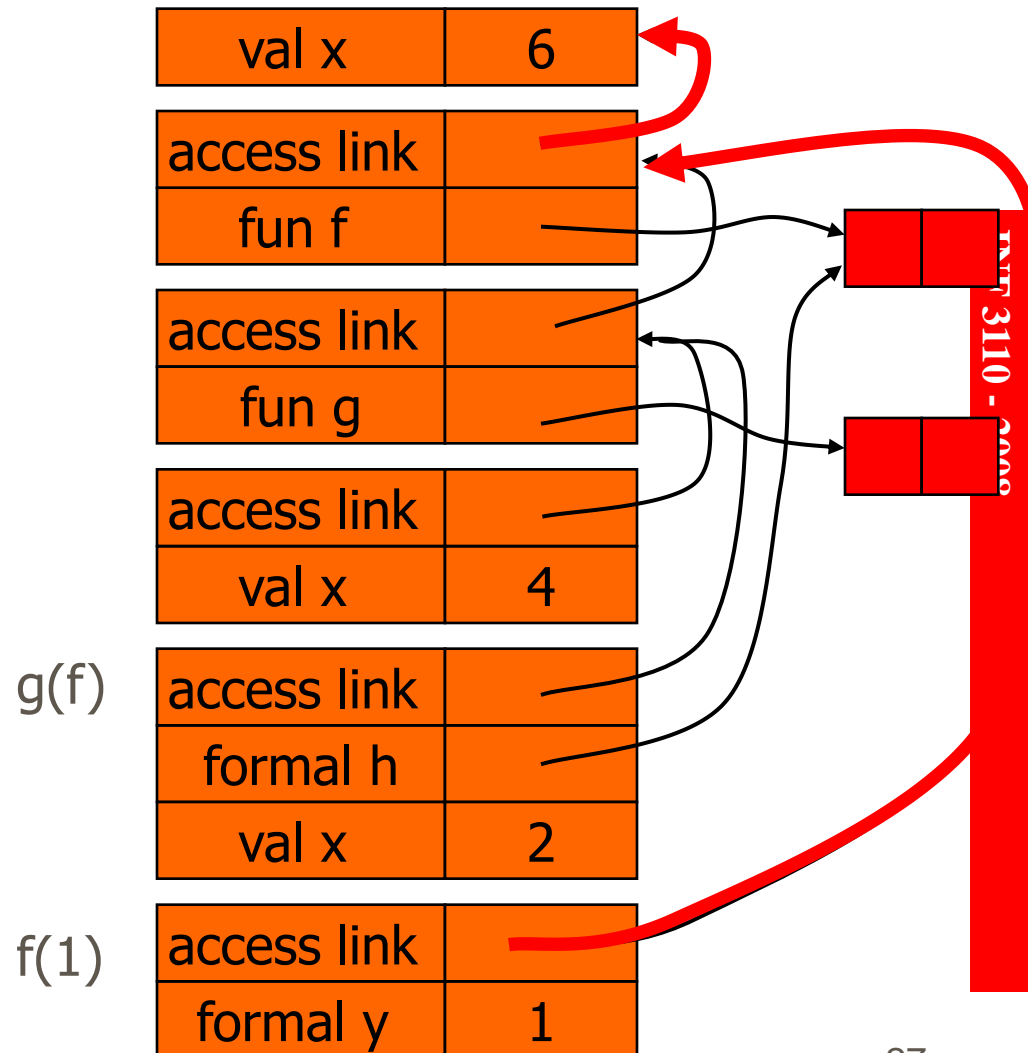
```
end);
```

Static Scope of Declarations

```
val x=6;  
(let fun f(y) = x  
    and g(h) =  
        let val x=2 in h(1)  
    in  
        let val x=4 in g(f)  
    end);
```

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

Answer: $g(f) = 6$



Typing of Exceptions

◆ Typing of `raise <exc>`

- 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
 - `1 + raise No_value` (the sum will not be performed)
- Type of `raise <exc>` is a type variable ``a`

◆ Typing of `handle <exc> => <value>`

- Converts exception to normal termination
- Need type agreement
- Examples
 - `1 + ((raise X) handle X => e)` Type of `e` must be `int`
 - `1 + (e1 handle X => e2)` Type of `e1, e2` must be `int`

Exceptions and Resource Allocation

```
exception X;
(let
  val x = ref [1,2,3]
in
  let
    val y = ref [4,5,6]
  in
    ... raise X
  end
end); handle X => ...
```

[1,2,3] built in the heap, ref x pushed into stack

[4,5,6] built in the heap, ref y pushed into stack

Control is transferred outside the scope

x and y popped off the stack
[1,2,3] and [4,5,6] garbage collected

Exceptions and Resource Allocation

```
exception X;  
(let  
  val x = ref [1,2,3]  
in  
  let  
    val y = ref [4,5,6]  
  in  
    ... raise X  
  end  
end); handle X => ...
```

- ◆ Resources allocated between handler and raise may be “garbage” after exception
- ◆ Open files might not be closed

General problem: no obvious solution

Exceptions and Resource Allocation

```
try {
    ...
    fOut = new PrintWriter(new
        FileWriter("OutFile.txt"));
    ...
}
catch (Exception e) {
    ...
}
finally {
    if (fOut != null) {
        fOut.close();
    } else { ... }
}
```

- ◆ Resources allocated between handler and raise may be “garbage” after exception
- ◆ Open files might not be closed
- ◆ In Java you would use the “finally” construct

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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 normally applied to e

◆ General programming technique

- Capture the continuation at some point in a program. It is a means of capturing the flow of the program and manipulating it.
- Use it later: “jump” or “exit” by function call

◆ Useful in

- Compiler optimization: make control flow explicit
- Operating system scheduling
- Function synthesis/design
- Web applications

Example of Continuation

◆ Expression

$$2*x + 3*y + 1/x + 2/y$$

◆ What is the continuation of $1/x$?

- Remaining computation after division

```
let val before = 2*x + 3*y
```

```
    fun continue(d) = before + d + 2/y
```

```
in
```

```
    continue (1/x)
```

```
end
```

Example: Tail Recursive Factorial

◆ Standard recursive function

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

◆ Tail recursive

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

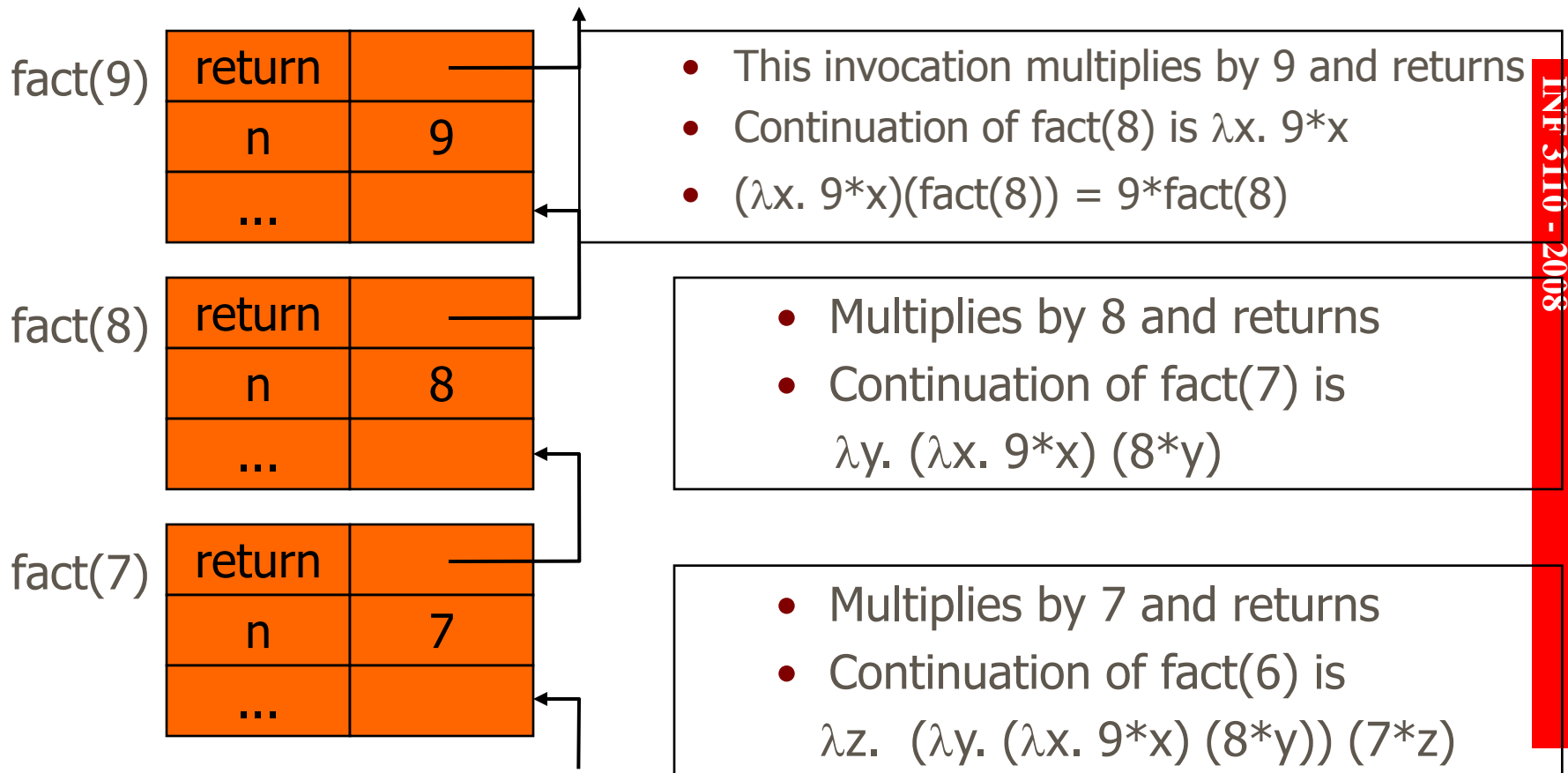
- $\text{fact}(n) = f(n,1)$

◆ How could we derive this?

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

Continuation view of factorial

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



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

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

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

◆ Example computation

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

Tail Recursive Form

◆ Optimization of continuations

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

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

◆ Example computation

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

◆ No automatic transformation for a given function to tail recursive form, but a function can systematically be transformed to CPS and ... by a clever programmer, to tail recursive from

Other uses for continuations

◆ Explicit control

- Normal termination -- call continuation
- Abnormal termination -- do something else
- Continuations are more general and flexible than exceptions, but may be more complicated to program

◆ Compilation techniques

- Call to continuation is functional form of "go to"
- Continuation-passing style makes control flow explicit

Web Applications and Services

- ◆ Web applications, Web Services, MOM and SOA services
 - Handle long running workflows
 - 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

Current Java Community effort to support continuations in JVM

Sample projects

- ◆ Javaflow a component in the Apache/Jakarta project (<http://commons.apache.org/sandbox/javaflow/>)
- ◆ Cocoon continuations for web apps
- ◆ Seaside (smalltalk) continuations for web apps
- ◆ RIFE (java based) continuations for web apps
- ◆ Borges Ruby port of Seaside ideas
- ◆ Modal Web Server Example
 - Uses Scheme to build a simple continuation based web server as an example

Reference: <http://docs.codehaus.org/display/continuation/Home>

“Elevator pitch” for web continuations

- ◆ Dijkstra said GOTO was bad idea...
 - In CGI, each link triggers entirely new execution of program
 - Moving from one page to the next is a one-way jump
- ◆ Seaside framework presenting the illusion of a continuous interactive session with the user
 - Each page or form acts like a subroutine, returning a value to its caller based on user input
 - Complex, conditional or looping workflows can be described in a single piece of straightforward Smalltalk code as a sequence of calls to individual pages

Functions and evaluation order

- ◆ Another technique for manipulating the order of execution:
 - Place a calculation to be delayed inside a function and pass it to code that will eventually do the calculation
- ◆ This is useful if calculation is expensive or might not be needed at all
- ◆ Programming constructs: **Delay** and **Force**

Evaluation order

- ◆ If an expression contains several function calls, we must choose which to evaluate first according to some rules
- ◆ There are basically two kinds of evaluation order for functions:
 - **lazy** (call-by-need), outermost reduction, normal order
 - **eager/strict** (call-by-value), innermost reduction.
 - $\text{sq}(3+4) \rightarrow \text{sq } 7 \rightarrow 7*7 \rightarrow 49$ (eager, 3 steps)
 - $\text{sq}(3+4) \rightarrow (3+4) * (3+4) \rightarrow 7 * (3+4) \rightarrow 7*7 \rightarrow 49$ (lazy, 4 steps)
 - $\text{fst}(\text{sq}(4), \text{sq}(2)) \rightarrow \text{fst}(4*4, \text{sq}(2)) \rightarrow \text{fst}(16, \text{sq}(2)) \rightarrow \text{fst}(16, 2*2) \rightarrow \text{fst}(16, 4) \rightarrow 16$ (eager, 5 steps)
 - $\text{fst}(\text{sq}(4), \text{sq}(2)) \rightarrow \text{sq}(4) \rightarrow 4*4 \rightarrow 16$ (lazy, 3 steps)
 - $\text{fst}(\text{sq}(4), \text{a_complicated_expression}) \rightarrow \text{sq}(4) \rightarrow 4*4 \rightarrow 16$ (lazy, 3 steps)
- ◆ ML uses call-by-value
- ◆ Haskell is a lazy language and uses call-by-need

Evaluation order and efficiency

◆ Which is most efficient?

- With graph reduction we get more efficient lazy evaluation for functions with repeated arguments:

$\text{sq}(3+4) \rightarrow (\bullet) * (\bullet) (3+4) \rightarrow (\bullet) * (\bullet) (7) \rightarrow 49$ (graph reduction)

- An additional very useful property of lazy evaluation: If an expression has a normal form, then outermost reduction will compute it

◆ Why not always use “call-by-need”?

- Needs more bookkeeping
- We get *non-strict* functions: A function may be defined even if its arguments are not
- Lazyness leads to infinite data-structures which leads to more complicated mathematical reasoning
- Lazy evaluation is inefficient in some cases
- Most lazy languages are purely functional => complicated to combine with commands, e.g. I/O

Lazy evaluation in ML

```
fun f(x,y) =  
  ... x ... y  
...  
f(e1,e2)
```

- Suppose: **y** is not always needed
- **e2** is expensive to calculate.
- I.e. we would like to do something like this:

```
fun f(x,y) =  
  ... x ... Force(y)  
...  
f(e1,Delay(e2))
```

Delay and Force

- ◆ Problem: Delay cannot be an ordinary function:
 - To evaluate `Delay(e)`, `e` must first be evaluated.
- ◆ Solution:

`Delay(e) == fn() => e` `(λ().e)`

A function which takes no parameters and returns `e`.

`Force(e) == e()`

Application of the function.

```
fun f(x,y) =  
  ... x ... e()  
  ...  
  f(e1, (fn()=>e2) )
```

Evaluation order

- ◆ ML uses eager/strict evaluation (call-by-value)
- ◆ Haskell uses lazy evaluation with graph reduction
- ◆ Haskell has Lazy lists: The elements of a lazy list are not evaluated until their values are required by the rest of the program: thus a lazy list may be infinite
 - In Haskell (a lazy language) all data structures are lazy and infinite lists are common
 - so we could write e.g. `[1 ..]` or `take 5 [1..]`
 - In ML this is rare, but we can get lazy lists (or sequences) in ML too
 - The trick is to represent the tail of a list by a function, in order to delay its evaluation

Summary

◆ Structured Programming

- Go to considered harmful

◆ 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

◆ Evaluation order

- eager (call-by-value) ML
- lazy (call-by-need) Haskell