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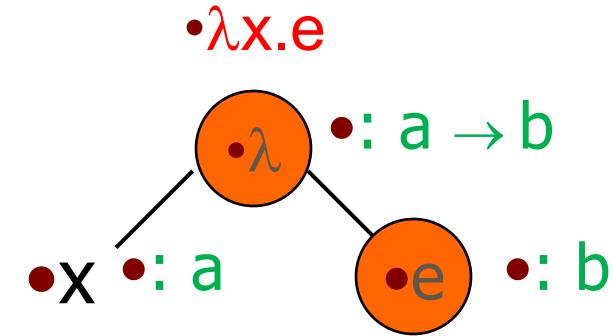
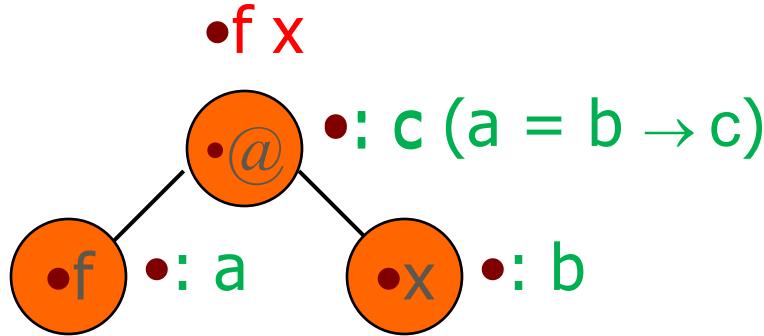
Control in Sequential Languages

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Initially by Gerardo Schneider & Arild Torjusen
Based on John C. Mitchell's slides (Stanford U.)

Application and Abstraction



◆ Application $f x$

- f must have function type domain \rightarrow range
- domain of f must be type of argument x (b)
- the range of f is the result type (c)
- thus we know that $a = b \rightarrow c$

◆ Abstraction $\lambda x.e$ (fn $x \Rightarrow e$)

- The type of $\lambda x.e$ is a function type domain \rightarrow range
- the domain is the type of the variable x (a)
- the range is the type of the function body e (b)

The type inference algorithm

◆ Example

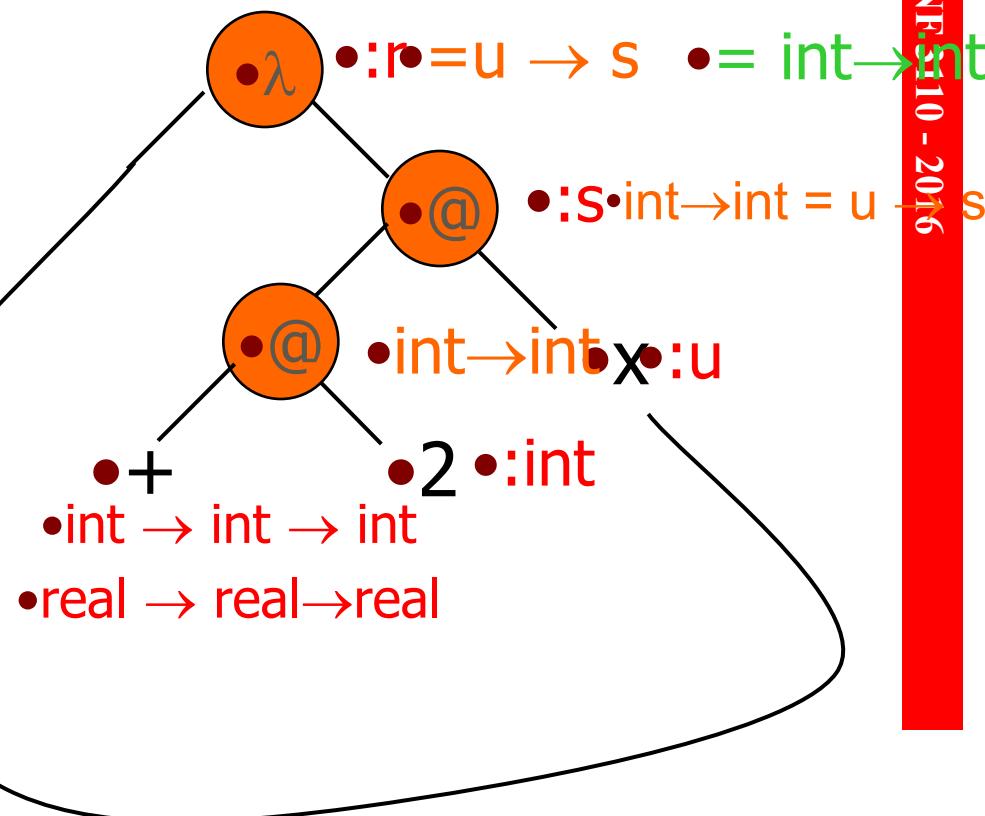
- $\text{fun } f(x) = 2+x;$
- $(\text{val } f = \text{fn } x => 2+x ;)$
- > $\text{val } f = \text{fn} : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

• $f(x) = 2+x \text{ equiv } f = \lambda x. (2+x) \text{ equiv } f = \lambda x. ((\text{plus } 2) x)$

• Graph for $\lambda x. ((\text{plus } 2) x)$

◆ How does this work?

- 1. Assign types to expressions
- 2. Generate constraints:
 - $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} = u \rightarrow s$
 - $r = u \rightarrow s$



- 3. Solve by unification/substitution

Types with type variables

◆ Example

- fun f(g) = g(2);

> val f = fn : (int → 'a) → 'a

◆ How does this work?

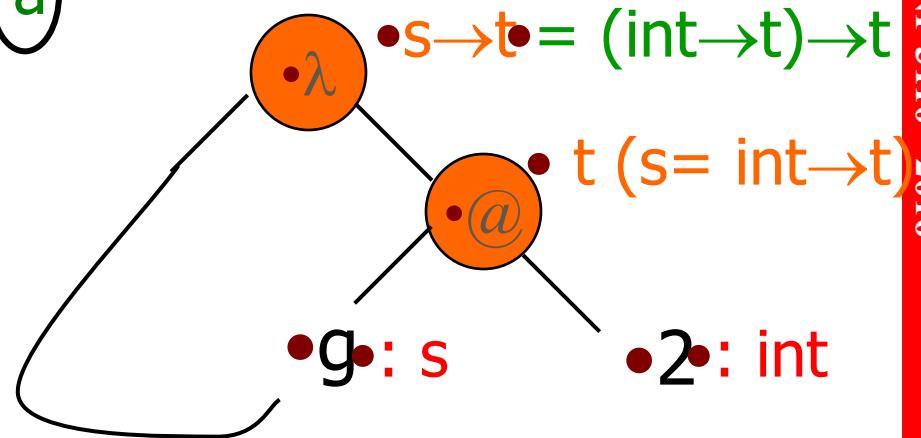
• 1. Assign types to leaves

• 2. Propagate to internal nodes and generate constraints

• 3. Solve by substitution

• 'a is syntax for “type variable” (t in the graph)

• Graph for $\lambda g. (g\ 2)$



Use of Polymorphic Function

◆ Function

- fun $f(g) = g(2)$;

> val f = fn : (int → 'a) → 'a

◆ Possible applications

g may be the function:

- fun add(x) = 2+x;

> val add = fn : int → int

Then:

- f(add);

> val it = 4 : int

- g may be the function:
- - fun isEven(x) = ...;
- > val it = fn : int → bool
- Then:
- - f(isEven);
- > val it = true : bool

Recognizing type errors

◆ Function

- fun f(g) = g(2);
> val f = fn : (int → 'a) → 'a

◆ Incorrect use

- fun not(x) = if x then false else true;
> val not = fn : bool → bool
- f(not);

Why?

Type error: cannot make $\text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool} = \text{int} \rightarrow 'a$

Another type inference example

◆ Function Definition

- fun f(g,x) = g(g(x));

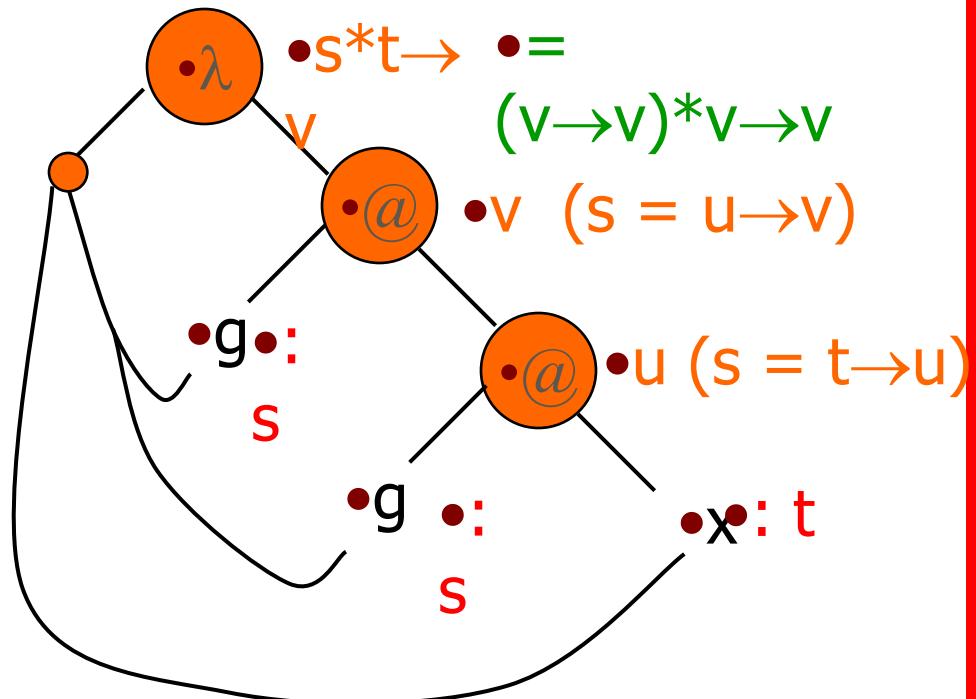
- Graph for $\lambda(g,x). g(g\ x)$

- Assign types to leaves

- Propagate to internal nodes and generate constraints:

- $s = t \rightarrow u, s = u \rightarrow v$
- $t = u, u = v$
- $t = v$

- Solve by substitution



Multiple clause function

◆ Datatype with type variable

- datatype 'a list = nil | cons of 'a*('a list);
> nil : 'a list
> cons : 'a*('a list) → 'a list

◆ Polymorphic function

- fun append(nil,l) = l
| append (x::xs,l) = x:: append(xs,l);
> val append= fn: 'a list * 'a list → 'a list

◆ Type inference

- Infer separate type for each clause
 - append: 'a list * 'b -> 'b
 - append: 'a list * 'b -> 'a list
- Combine by making the two types equal (if necessary) 'b = 'a list

Main points about type inference

- ◆ Compute type of expression
 - Does not require type declarations for variables
 - Find *most general type* by solving constraints
 - Leads to polymorphism
- ◆ Static type checking without type specifications
- ◆ May lead to better error detection than ordinary type checking
 - Type may indicate a programming error even if there is no type error (example following slide).

Type inference and recursion

◆ Function definition

- fun sum(x) = x + sum(x-1);

> val sum= fn : 'int → 'int

sum = $\lambda x . (+ x) (\text{sum} (- x) 1))$

Outline

- ◆ Polymorphisms
- ◆ Type inference
- ◆ **Type declaration**

Type declaration

- ◆ **Transparent:** alternative name to a type that can be expressed without this name
- ◆ **Opaque:** new type introduced into the program, different to any other

ML has both forms of type declaration

Type declaration: Examples

◆ Transparent ("type" declaration)

- type Celsius = real;
- type Fahrenheit = real;
- More information:
- fun toCelsius(x: Fahrenheit) = ((x-32.0)*0.5556): Celsius;
- > val toCelsius = fn : Fahrenheit → Celsius
- Since **Fahrenheit** and **Celsius** are synonyms for **real**,
the function may be applied to a real:
 - toCelsius(60.4);
 - > val it = 15.77904 : Celsius

Type declaration: Examples

◆ Opaque ("datatype" declaration)

- `- datatype A = C of int;`
- `- datatype B = C of int;`
- A and B are different types
- Since B declaration follows A decl.: C has type `int → B`

Hence:

- `fun f(x:A) = x: B;`

> Error: expression doesn't match constraint [tycon mismatch]

expression: A constraint: B

in expression: x: B

Equality on Types

Two forms of type equality:

- ◆ **Name type equality:** Two type names are equal in type checking only if they are the same name
- ◆ **Structural type equality:** Two type names are equal if the types they name are the same

Example: **Celsius** and **Fahrenheit** are structurally equal although their names are different

Outline

◆ Structured Programming

- *go to* considered harmful

◆ Exceptions

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

◆ Continuations

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
...

```



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;
```

A large black curved arrow points from the word "Program P;" back up towards the "a:" label in the first code snippet.

No clear answers! Better to reject these programs!

Outline

◆ Structured Programming

- *go to* considered harmful

◆ Exceptions

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

◆ Continuations

◆ Evaluation order

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

Java Example

```
class DetException extends Exception { ... } ; //Exception declaration

public static Matrix invert(Matrix m) throws DetException {
    ...
    if (isZero(det)) {throw new DetException("Determinant is zero"); }
    //throw statement
    else { ... }
}

public static void main(String[] args) throws Exception {
    Matrix M, inverted ;
    ...
    try { inverted = invert (M);}
    catch(DetException de) { //code to handle exception
        log("An exception occurred:"+de.toString());
        inverted = ....
    }
}
```

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 <name> of <type>

gives name of exception and type of data passed when raised

- exception Overflow;
- exception Signal of int;

◆ Raise

raise <name> <parameters>

expression form to raise an exception and pass data

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

◆ Handler

<exp1> handle <pattern> => <exp2>

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 $x \leq \min$ then raise Ovflw else $1.0/x$;
- ($\text{reciprocal}(x)$ handle $\text{Ovflw} \Rightarrow 0.0$) / ($\text{reciprocal}(x)$ handle $\text{Ovflw} \Rightarrow 1.0$);

◆ 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 handle error
- Author of library function does not

Handlers with pattern matching

◆ Handler

$\langle \text{exp} \rangle \text{ handle } \langle \text{pattern1} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{exp1} \rangle$

| $\langle \text{pattern2} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{exp2} \rangle$

...

| $\langle \text{pattern3} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{exp3} \rangle$

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

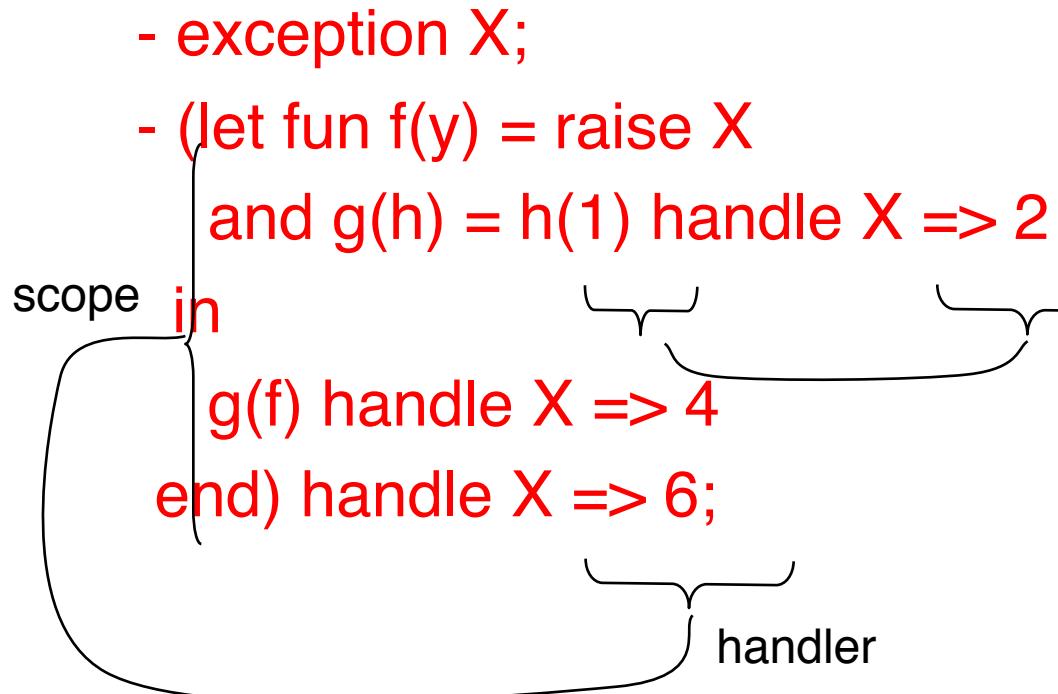
- ◆ Function to multiply values of tree leaves

- 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)?

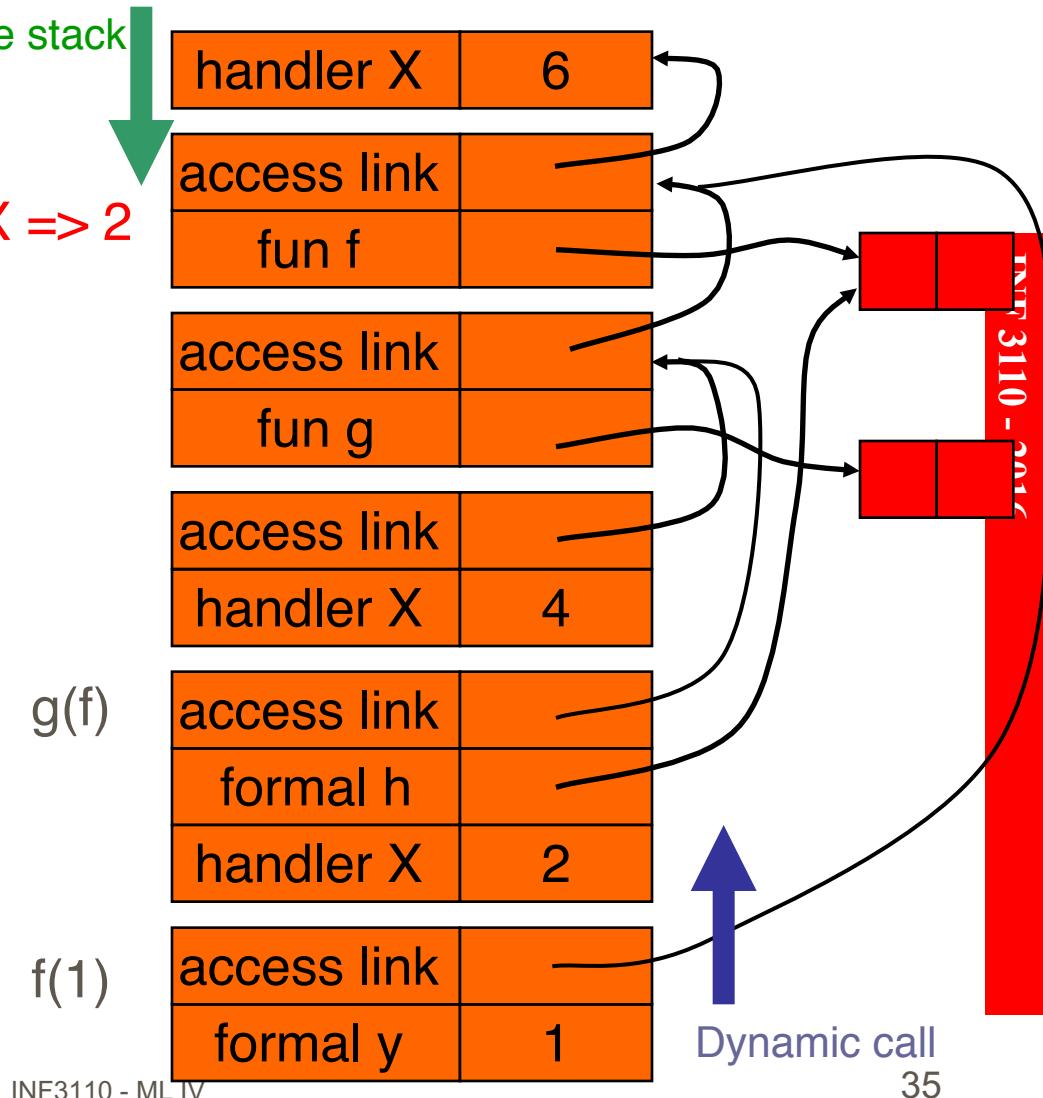
It depends on which handler is used!

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;
```

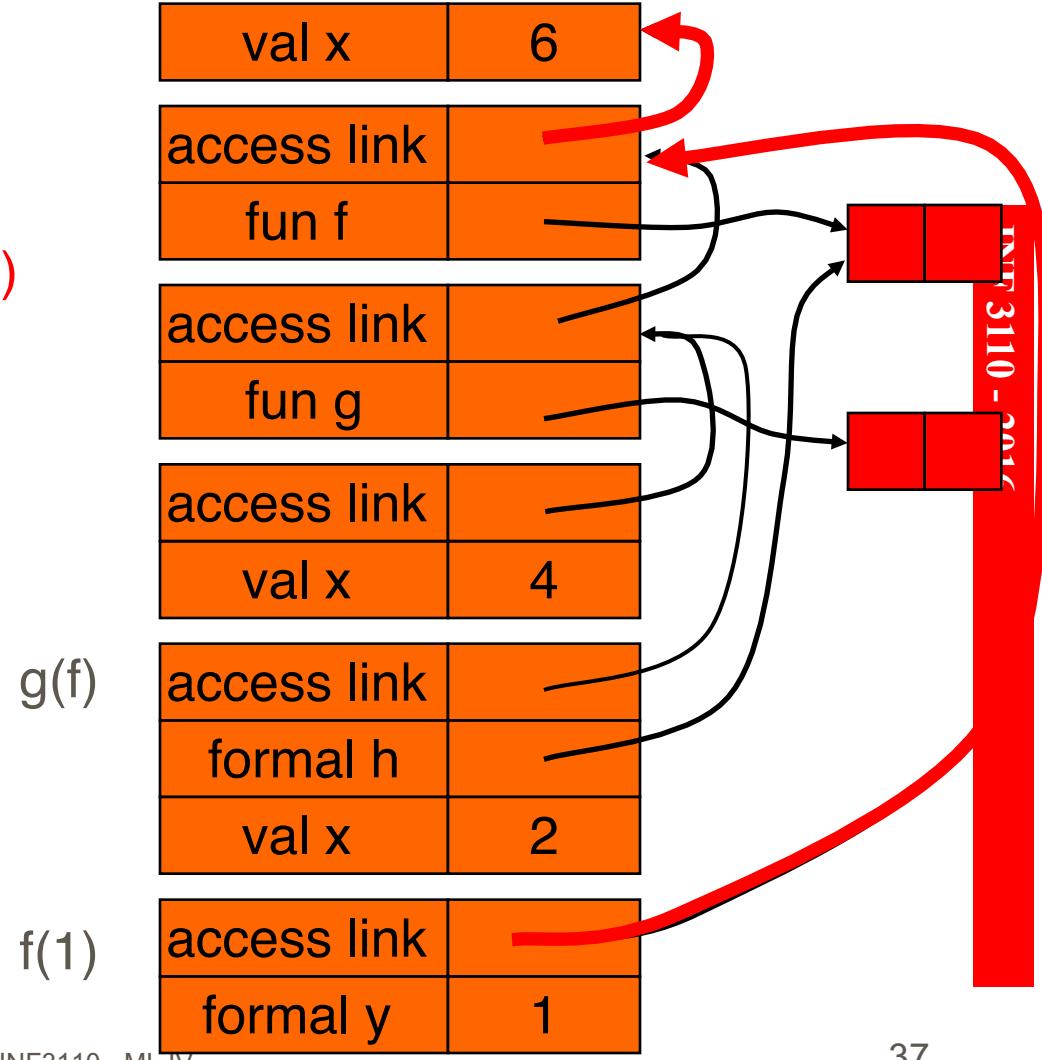
{ val x=6;
 (let fun f(y) = x
 and g(h) =
 let val x=2 in h(1)
 in
 let val x=4 in g(f)
 end); }

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;      [1,2,3] built in the heap, ref x pushed into stack
(let
  val x = ref [1,2,3]
in
  let
    val y = ref [4,5,6]
in
  ... raise X
end
end); handle X => ...

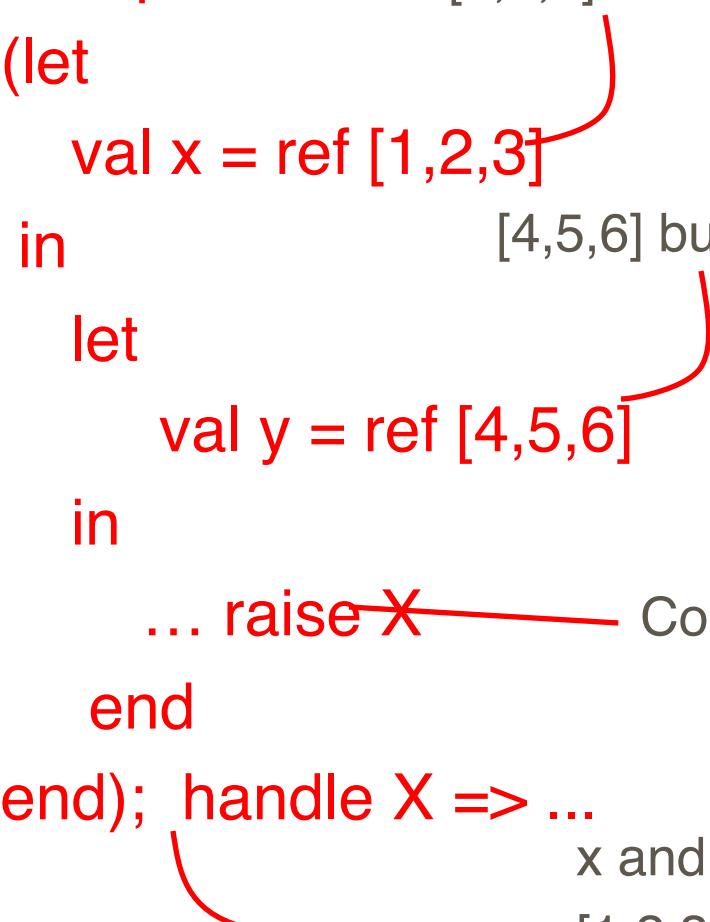
```

[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

ML summary

- ◆ Is ML unpractical?, what about
 - Input/Output, using files
 - Interacting with underlying OS
 - Making executable applications
 - etc. etc.
- ◆ We have focused on the basics
 - Basic ML constructs
 - Learning to think "functional", recursion
 - Higher order functions
 - Type system and type inference
 - Exceptions

Basic I/O example

```
val infile = TextIO.openIn("somefile.txt");
TextIO.lookahead infile ;
TextIO.inputN(infile,10);
TextIO.inputLine infile ;
TextIO.inputAll infile ;
print it ;
TextIO.lookahead infile ;
TextIO.closeIn infile ;
```