Control

CS251 Handout #40 4 May 2006

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What is Control?

In program execution, control is characterized by two components:

- 1. the expression/statement currently being evaluated:
 - CS111: the red control dot.
 - CS240: the program counter.
 - CS251: the argument to eval in the substitution model
- 2. The **continuation** = all pending operations to be performed when the value of current expression is returned:
 - CS111: the pending frames in the Java Execution Model.
 - CS240: the stack of procedure call activation frames.
 - CS251: the context surrounding the current expression in the substitution model

We will call the pair of (1) and (2) a **control point**. All computation is an iteration through control points.

Control Point Example 1

Expression

Continuation

(/ (+ (* 6 5) (- 7 3)) 2) k_{top} \Rightarrow (+ (* 6 5) (- 7 3)) $k_1 = (\lambda (v_1) (k_{top} (/ v_1 2)))$ \Rightarrow (* 6 5) \Rightarrow (- 7 3) \Rightarrow (+ 30 4) k_1 \Rightarrow (/ 34 2) k_{top} \Rightarrow 17

$k_2 = (\lambda (v_2) (k_1 (+ v_2 (- 7 3))))$ $k_3 = (\lambda (v_3) (k_1 (+ 30 v_3)))$

Notes:

Continuations are modeled as single-argument functions.

- \bullet k_{top} designates the top-level continuation (eg, prints result).
- The above assumes left-to-right evaluation of arguments. (MIT Scheme evaluates them right-to-left.)

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Control Point Example 2: Recursive Factorial

```
(def (fact-rec n)
  (if (= n 0))
       1
       (* n (fact-rec (- n 1)))))
```

Expression

Continuation

\Rightarrow	(fact-rec 3)	k_{top}
\Rightarrow	(fact-rec 2)	k_1 = (λ (v_1) (k_{top} (* 3 v_1)))
\Rightarrow	(fact-rec 1)	k_2 = (λ (v_2) (k_1 (* 2 v_2)))
\Rightarrow	(fact-rec 0)	$k_3 = (\lambda (v_3) (k_2 (* 1 v_3)))$
\Rightarrow	(* 1 1)	k_2
\Rightarrow	(* 2 1)	k_1
\Rightarrow	(* 3 2)	k_{top}
\Rightarrow	6	

Control Point Example 3: Iterative Factorial

```
(def (fact-iter n) (fact-tail n 1))
   (def (fact-tail num ans)
      (if (= num 0))
            ans
            (fact-tail (- num 1) (* num ans))))
     Expression
                           Continuation
\Rightarrow (fact-iter 3)
                                 k_{top}
                                 k_{top}
\Rightarrow (fact-tail 3 1)
\Rightarrow (fact-tail 2 3)
                                 k_{top}
\Rightarrow (fact-tail 1 6)
                                 k_{top}
\Rightarrow (fact-tail 0 6)
                                 k_{ton}
\Rightarrow 6
```

Note: A function call is tail recursive if it does not alter continuation

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Control Aspects of Familiar Constructs

- Evaluating nested subexpressions requires choosing an order and remembering what to do next.
 - Argument evaluation order is left-to-right in most language.
 - Evaluation order unspecified in Scheme (right-to-left in MIT-Scheme).
- Sequencing of statements in imperative language.
- Conditionals allow branches in control flow.
- Loops/tail recursion specify iterations.
- Function/procedure call and return:
 - In many execution models (e.g., C, Pascal, Java), calling a procedure pushes an activation frame on the call stack and returning from a procedure pops the activation from from the call stack.
 - In properly tail-recursive languages (e.g. Scheme, most ML implementations) stack is pushed by subexpression evaluation and procedure calls act like gotos that pass arguments (see Guy Steele's *The Expensive Procedure Call Myth or Lambda: The Ultimate Goto*).

Altering the Normal Flow of Control

Sometimes want to alter the normal flow of control:

- to immediately stop execution of the program, due to a user request (typing Control-C) or encountering an error. E.g. halt opcode in assembly language; error in HOFL, Scheme;
- to return an answer immediately without processing all pending computations. E.g. encountering a zero when finding the product of elements in a list, array, or tree.
- to handle an unusual situation that may need to be handled differently in different contexts (an exception). E.g., division by zero, out-of-bounds array access, unbound variables in environment lookup.

Altering normal flow of control can be very convenient and efficient, but can lead to "spaghetti code". Dijkstra's *Goto Considered Harmful* and the structured programming movement of the 1970s advocated control constructs with one control input and one control output.

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Non-local Exits: return

In C, C++, and Java, return can force early exit of a function/method.

Example (Java): calculating array product. Want to return early if encounter a zero. Also suppose that encountering any negative number should cause the result to be -1.

```
public static int arrayProd (int[] a)
{
    int prod = 1;
    for (int i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {
        if (a[i] == 0)
            return 0; // Non-local exit from loop
        else if (a[i] < 0) then
            return -1; // Non-local exit from loop
        else
            prod = a[i] * prod;
    }
    return prod;
}</pre>
```

```
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```

Non-local Exits: break

Java has labeled break statements for breaking out of a loop and continue statement to jump to end of loop. C's unlabeled break and continue work on innermost enclosing loop.

```
public static int sumArrayProds (int[][] a)
{
    int sum = 0;
    outer: for (int i = 0; i < a.length; i++) {
        int prod = 1;
        inner:for (int j = 0; i < a[i].length; j++) {
            if (a[i][j] < 0) // return current sum</pre>
                break outer; // on negative num
            else if (a[i][j] == 0)
                prod = 0; break inner;
            // Alternatively: continue outer;
            else
                prod = a[i][j] * prod;
        }
        sum = sum + prod;
    }
    return sum;
}
```

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Non-Local Exits: goto

In Pascal, can only express non-local exits via goto:

```
function product (outer_lst: intlist): integer;
  label 17; {labels are denoted by numbers 0 to 9999}
  function inner (lst: intlist): integer;
   begin
     if lst = nil then
      inner := 1
     else if lst^{.head} = 0 then
      begin
       product := 0; {sets return value of function}
       goto 17; {control jumps to label 17}
      end;
     else
      inner := lst^.head * inner(lst^.tail)
   end;
begin
    product := inner (outer_lst);
    17: {end of program}
end;
```

Non-Local Exits: label and jump

We will study non-local exits in Scheme by extending it with the following label and jump constructs:

- (label I_{cp} E_{body}) evaluates E_{body} in a lexical environment in which the name I_{cp} is bound to a first-class control point that represents the continuation of the entire label expression. label returns the value of E_{body} unless jump is called on I_{cp} , in which case the value supplied to jump is returned.
- (jump E_{cp} E_{val}) returns the value of E_{val} to the control point that is the value of E_{cp} . jump signals an error if E_{cp} is not a control point.

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label and jump: Simple Examples

```
(+ 1 (label exit (* 2 (- 3 (/ 4 1)))))
```

(+ 1 (label exit (* 2 (- 3 (/ 4 (jump exit 5)))))

(+ 1 (label exit (* 2 (- 3 (/ 4 (jump exit (+ 5 (jump exit 6)))))))

label and jump: List Product

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label and jump: List Product Alternative

Unlike the previous version, a jump is performed here on the way out of the recursion rather than on the way in.

Control Points Introduced by label are First-Class

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First-class Control Points are Strange and Powerful

```
(let ((g (lambda (x) x)))
  (letrec ((fact (lambda (n)
                     (if (= n 0))
                         (label base
                            (begin
                              (set! g (lambda (y)
                                         (begin
                                           (set! g (lambda (z) z))
                                           (jump base y))))
                              1))
                         (* n (fact (- n 1))))))
    (+ (g 1)
       (+ (fact 3); Cont. = (\lambda (v) (+ 1 (+ v ...)))
          (+ (g 10)
              (+ (fact 4) ; Cont. = (\lambda (v) (+ 1 (+ 60 (+ 10 (+ v ...))))))
                 (g 100)))))))
```

Scheme's call-with-current-continuation

Off-the-shelf Scheme does not support label and jump. But it does support call-with-current-continuation (sometimes abbreviated cwcc) which encapsulates both label and jump and can be used to implement many advanced control constructs.

```
(call-with-current-continuation E_{proc}) behaves like:
```

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Example of call-with-current-continuation

Continuation Passing Style (CPS)

The constructs we have seen so far rely on implicit continuations. It is possible to model non-local control fbw by passing explicit continuations in a style known as **continuation-passing style (CPS)**.

For example, here is a CPS version of recursive factorial:

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Exception Handling

Want to be able to "signal" exceptional situations and handle them differently in different contexts.

Many languages provide exception systems:

- Java's throw and try/catch
- OCaml's raise and try/with
- Common Lisp's throw and catch

raise, handle, and trap

We study exception handling in Scheme extended with:

- (raise I_{tag} E) Evaluate E to value V and raise exception with tag I_{tag} and value V.
- (handle $I_{tag} E_{handler} E_{body}$) First evaluate $E_{handler}$ to a one-argument handler function $V_{handler}$. Then evaluate E_{body} to value V_{body} . If no exception is encountered, return V_{body} . If an exception is raised with tag I_{tag} and value V_{body} , the call to handle returns with the value of the application ($V_{handler} V_{body}$) evaluated at the point of the handle (termination semantics).
- (trap $I_{tag} E_{handler} E_{body}$) is evaluated like (handle $I_{tag} E_{handler} E_{body}$) except that if an exception is raised with tag I_{tag} and value V_{body} , the call to raise returns with the value of the application ($V_{handler} V_{body}$) evaluated at the point of the raise (resumption semantics).

handle/trap effectively bind $V_{handler}$ in a *dynamically scoped* exception handler namespace, and (raise $I_{tag} E$) looks up I_{tag} in this namespace.

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Exception Handling Examples 1

(test)))

```
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```

Exception Handling Examples 2

What are the value of the following expressions, where *handler* ranges over {handle, trap}?

```
(handler c (lambda (x) (* x 10))
(+ 1 (raise c (+ 2 (raise c 4)))))
```

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Exception Handling In OCaml

OCaml's raise and try/with uses termination semantics.

In raise E, E must evaluate to an exception packet created by an exception constructor (where exceptions are effectively an extensible datatype).

try E_{body} with *clauses* evaluates E_{body} and returns its value unless an exception is raised, in which case the matching clause in *clauses* is evaluated and its value is returned as the value of try.

OCaml Exception Example

```
exception Neg of int
exception Even of int
let raiser x =
 if x < 0 then
   raise (Neg x)
 else if (x \mod 2) = 0 then
   raise (Even x)
 else
    х
let test () = (raiser 1) + (raiser -3) + (raiser 4)
let innerTest () = try test() with
                     Neg y -> raiser(7 + -y)
                   | Even z -> 3 * z
let outerTest () = try innerTest() with
                     Neg y -> -y
                   | Even z -> z * z
```

Can translate this example into Java using throw and try/catch.

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Implementing raise

Implementing handle and trap 1

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Implementing handle and trap 2

```
(trap tag handler body) desugars to
  (let ((*handler* handler) ; only evaluate once
        (*thunk* (lambda () body))) ; avoid capturing *handler*
    (with-handler 'tag
      (lambda (old-env)
        (lambda (value) (*handler* value))) ; ignores old-env
      *thunk*))
(handle tag handler body) desugars to
  (let ((*handler* handler) ; only evaluate once
        (*thunk* (lambda () body))) ;avoid capturing *handler*
     (call-with-current-continuation
      (lambda (handle-cont)
        (with-handler 'tag
          (lambda (old-env)
            (lambda (value)
              ;; Invoking HANDLE-CONT returns directly to
              ;; appropriate handle, ignoring current continuation.
              (begin
                 (set-handler-env! old-env) ; reinstall old-env
                 (handle-cont (*handler* value)))))
          *thunk*))))
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```