Java Exceptions Throw no Surprises

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Abstract

We present a summary of our formalization of the static and dynamic semantics of Java related to exceptions. We distinguish between normal execution, where no exception is thrown – or, more precisely, any exception thrown is handled – and abnormal execution, where an exception is thrown and not handled. The type system distinguishes normal types which describe the possible outcomes of normal execution, and abnormal types which describe the possible outcomes of abnormal execution. The type of a term consists of its normal type and its abnormal type.

The meaning of our subject reduction theorem we prove with this set-up is stronger than usual: it guarantees that normal execution returns a value of a type compatible with the normal type of the term, and that abnormal execution throws an exception compatible with the abnormal type of the term.

1 Introduction

Exceptions and exception handling aim to support the development of robust programs with reliable error detection, and fast error handling [7]. Although integration of exception handling mechanisms and object-oriented languages is often considered as conflicting [3, 11], exceptions have been incorporated in most larger programming languages, e.g. Ada, Smalltalk, C++, SML, etc. In this paper we present a summary of our formalization of the static and dynamic semantics of Java related to exceptions. The complete formalization of the Java subset we have considered so far can be found in [6].

As in earlier works [4, 5] we define Java*, a provably safe subset of Java containing some primitive types, interfaces, classes with instance variables and instance methods, inheritance, hiding of instance variables, overloading and overriding of instance methods, arrays, the null value, object and array creation, field and array access, method call and dynamic method binding, assignment, and exception treatment.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Java} & \supset \text{Java}^* \overset{\text{C}}{\longrightarrow} \text{Java}^b \subset \text{Java}^r \overset{\gamma}{\rightarrow} \text{Java}^r \\
\downarrow & \quad \downarrow & \quad \downarrow & \quad \downarrow & \quad \downarrow \\
\text{Type} & = \quad \text{Type} & = \quad \text{Type} & \geq_{\omega} \quad \text{Type}
\end{align*}
\]

The execution of Java programs requires some type information at run-time, e.g. field and method descriptors. For this reason, we defined Java\textsuperscript{b}, an enriched version of Java\textsuperscript{*} containing compile-time type information necessary for the execution of method call and field access. Compilation C maps Java\textsuperscript{*} terms to Java\textsuperscript{b} terms preserving their types. Execution of run-time terms may produce terms which are not described by Java\textsuperscript{b}. Therefore we extended Java\textsuperscript{b}, obtaining Java\textsuperscript{r}, which describes run-time terms, including addresses.

Execution may proceed normally, where no exception is thrown – or, more precisely, any exception thrown is handled – or abnormally (abruptly in Java terminology), where an exception is thrown and not handled. A term therefore has a type which is a pair of a normal type and an
abnormal type. The normal type describes the possible outcomes of normal execution. A normal
type may be either a class, an interface, a primitive type, void, or ⊥ for terms which definitely
will throw exceptions. The abnormal type describes the possible outcomes of abnormal execution.
An abnormal type is represented by a set of subclasses of the predefined Throwable class.

Excluding ⊥, normal types are “usual” types, whereas abnormal types correspond to effect
systems [10, 18]. Rewriting a term preserves both the normal type and the abnormal type; any
exception it may raise is described by the abnormal type, i.e. by the effect system.

We define widening for types. A type T widens to another type T′, if the normal part of T is ⊥,
or identical to or a subclass or subinterface of, the normal part of T′, and if the abnormal part of T
consists of classes which are unchecked exceptions, or identical to or subclasses of, corresponding
ones in the abnormal part of T′.

We prove a subject reduction theorem [20] which states that term execution preserves types
up to widening. Our definition of types as pairs of normal—abnormal types makes the meaning
of the subject reduction theorem stronger, namely that normal execution will return a value of
a type compatible with the normal type, and abnormal execution will throw an exception whose
class is a subclass of one of the classes in its abnormal type.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we describe Java exceptions through
an example. Because exceptions are run-time events, we concentrate on the run-time language
Javaa defined in section 3. The operational semantics for Javaa related to exceptions is described
in section 4. In section 5 we discuss the types of Javaa terms. In section 6 we define widening
and state the subject reduction theorem. Finally, in section 7 we draw some conclusions and
describe further work. In appendix A1 we outline the requirements for complete, well-formed
Javaa programs. In appendix A2 we demonstrate the execution of an example.

2 An example demonstrating exceptions

Exception handling in programming languages supports the development of robust programs [7].
When an exception is raised – thrown in Java terminology – control is transferred to the nearest
handler – catch clause in Java – for that exception found in the dynamic call stack.

In Java [8] exceptions are objects, and behave as such (i.e. they can be assigned, passed as
parameters, etc.) until they are thrown.

Exceptions are objects of the predefined class Throwable or its subclasses. Java distinguishes
between checked and unchecked exceptions. The unchecked exceptions are exempt from the re-
quirement of being declared. Unchecked exceptions are the subclasses of class RuntimeException
describing run-time errors, e.g. dereferencing null or division by zero, and the subclasses of
Error describing linkage and virtual machine errors, e.g. the absence of a *.class file or verifica-
tion errors. All the other exceptions are checked exceptions.

Checked exceptions are intended to determine at compile-time whether such if thrown are
either declared or handled. A method, therefore, must mention in its header all the checked
exceptions that might escape from execution of its body, and the compiler ensures that callers of
a method either handle this method’s potential exceptions, or they themselves explicitly mention
these exceptions in their headers.

C++ [16] and SML [12] exceptions are similar to Java exceptions in the way they are propagated
and caught, and in that exceptions behave as ordinary objects/values unless explicitly thrown.
Unlike Java, C++ exceptions do not need to be objects of a special exception class; SML exceptions
are special values of any type which have been annotated as exception. Neither C++, nor SML
programmers are expected to declare the exceptions which escape a function.1

Exception throwing is subtle in Java. So, assignment to an array component
null[k] = 3/0; causes ArithmeticException whereas similar assignment
null[k] = 3+0; will throw NullPointerException. Even if array address i ≠ null then
i[k] = 7; may cause IndexOutOfBoundsException if k is out of the array’s bounds.

The following example Pn demonstrates some of these issues.

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1This is why the SML formal description[12] does not have a concept corresponding to our abnormal types.
\[ P_{vr} = \]

class Worry extends Exception {}  

class Illness extends Exception {  
    int severity;  
    Illness treat() throws Worry {  
        if(...) throw new Worry(); else return this;  
    }  
    Illness cure() {  
        severity = -10; return this;  
    }  
}

class Person {  
    int age;  
    Illness diagnose() {return new Illness();}  
    void act() throws Worry, Illness {  
        try {  
            if (...) throw diagnose().treat(); else age=age+1;  
        }  
        catch(Illness i) {i.cure();}  
    }  
    void live() throws Worry, Illness{  
        act(); Doctor d=null; d.act();  
    }  
    void study() {  
        try {  
            act();  
        }  
        catch(Throwable x) {age=age+2;}  
    }  
}

class Doctor extends Person {  
    void act() throws Illness { throw diagnose(); }  
    void live() {  
        int i=diagnose().cure().severity;  
    }  
}

Consider the following declarations and initializations:

Person peter; peter = new Person();  
Doctor david; david = new Doctor();

The above example demonstrates:

- Exception classes are those declared as subclasses of Throwable. The predefined class Exception is a subclass of Throwable, therefore the classes Worry and Illness are exception classes.

- Exceptions are thrown by throw statements, e.g. execution of david.act() throws an exception of class Illness.

- Unless thrown, objects of an exception class behave as normal objects. So, execution of david.live() will not throw any exception: the call diagnose() returns an Illness object, which executes the method cure, and then returns its field severity. Therefore, the method live in class Doctor has no throws clause.

- A method header may mention one or more exception classes in its throws clause.

- The throws clause of a method header must mention the class or superclass of any checked exception that might be thrown during evaluation of its body, and during evaluation of any overriding method. Therefore, the method header of live in class Person, which calls the method act, has to mention the exceptions Illness and Worry, because these may be thrown when executing the nested call of act, i.e. the classes Illness and Worry. Similarly, the method header for act in class Person has to mention the class Worry, because it might
be thrown in its method body, and it also has to mention the exception Illness, because Illness is a possible exception of the overriding method act from class Doctor.

- Unchecked exceptions need not be mentioned in throws clauses. That is why, although execution of Doctor d=new; d.act(); inevitably throws a NullPointerException, this exception need not be mentioned in the throws clause of the header of the method live.

- An exception thrown and caught within a method need not be mentioned in the header of that method. For example, the method study of class Person does not mention any exception because any exception potentially thrown by the nested method call act() is caught by the catch clause.

- Once an exception is thrown, it is propagated through the dynamic chain of method calls, until a handler is reached. Thus, an exception of class Worry will be thrown when evaluating peter.act(). On the other hand, the call peter.study() will not terminate with a thrown exception, because any exception is caught inside the method body of study.

- Exception propagation follows the dynamic chain of method calls, and does not take overridden methods into account. Thus, david.act() will throw an exception of class Illness. This exception will not be caught in the catch clause of act in class Person; it will be propagated to the expression that contained the method call david.act().

- In general, it is unpredictable whether a term will evaluate with or without exceptions. For example, depending on the outcome of the evaluation of the condition in the method treat, the term new Illness().treat() may throw an exception of class Worry, or it may return an object of class Illness.

3 Java$, the run-time language

Because exceptions are run-time events we concentrate our discussion on the run-time language Java$. Java$ is used only for execution, and therefore it contains terms only, and does not contain class, method, or interface definitions. Java$ terms correspond to Java terms, except that we sometimes omit separators like { }, ( ), , and ; when obvious. Furthermore, Java$ is enriched with type information for execution (which is part of Java) and also allows for run-time artifacts not possible in the source language or Java$.

The type information necessary for execution consists of field and method descriptors. For example, the Java$ field access peter.age is represented in Java$ as peter.Age. Also the Java$ method call peter.act() is represented in Java$ as peter.[act()] - the method descriptor is empty because there are no parameters.

The run-time artifacts are addresses, the null value in field access and method call, and statements as expressions. Addresses have the form i, l, u, etc.; they represent references to objects and arrays, and may appear wherever a value is expected, as well as in array access and field access. Therefore, Java$ variables may have the form i, ClassName$VarName or i[Expr], and expressions may have the form i. An access to null may arise during evaluation of array access or field access; therefore, Java$ expressions may have the form null,[ClassName$VarName or null][Expr]. Furthermore, in order to describe method evaluation through in-line expansion rather than closures and stacks, we allow an expression in Java$ to consist of a sequence of statements, so that in the operational semantics a method call can be rewritten to a statement sequence.

In order to give a succinct description of the operational semantics of exception propagation (i.e. term’s abnormal execution) and typing, we introduce the notion of context via which an exception thrown is propagated. The context of an exception, defined in figure 2, encompasses all enclosing terms up to the nearest enclosing try-catch or try-catch-finally clause, i.e. up to the first possible position at which the exception can be handled.
\[ \text{Stmts} ::= \text{(Stmt ;)}^{*} \]
\[ \text{Stmt} ::= \text{if} \ \text{Exp} \ \text{then} \ \text{Stmts} \ \text{else} \ \text{Stmts} \mid \text{Var} = \text{Exp} \]
\[ \mid \text{Expr}[\text{ArgType}]\text{MethodName}(\text{Expr}^{*}) \mid \text{throw} \ \text{Exp} \]
\[ \mid \text{try} \ \text{Stmts} \ (\text{catch} \ \text{ClassName} \ \text{id} \ \text{Stmts})^{*} \text{finally} \ \text{Stmts} \]
\[ \mid \text{try} \ \text{Stmts} \ (\text{catch} \ \text{ClassName} \ \text{id} \ \text{Stmts})^{+} \]
\[ \text{Expr} ::= \text{Value} \mid \text{Var} \mid \text{Expr}[\text{ArgType}]\text{MethodName}(\text{Expr}^{*}) \]
\[ \mid \text{new} \ \text{ClassName}() \mid \text{new} \ \text{SimpleType} ((\text{Expr}^{+})^{+}([]))^{*} \]
\[ \mid \text{Stmts} \ [\text{return} \ \text{Exp}] \mid \text{this} \]
\[ \text{Var} ::= \text{Name} \mid \text{Expr}[\text{ClassName}]\text{VarName} \mid \text{Expr}[\text{Exp}] \]
\[ \mid \text{RefValue}[\text{ClassName}]\text{VarName} \mid \text{RefValue}[\text{Exp}] \]
\[ \text{Value} ::= \text{PrimValue} \mid \text{RefValue} \]
\[ \text{RefValue} ::= \text{intValue} \mid \text{charValue} \mid \text{boolValue} \mid \ldots \]
\[ \text{SimpleType} ::= \text{PrimType} \mid \text{ClassName} \mid \text{InterfaceName} \]
\[ \text{PrimType} ::= \text{bool} \mid \text{char} \mid \text{int} \mid \ldots \]

Figure 1: Java\textsuperscript{5} terms

\[ \text{Context} ::= \text{C} \cdot \text{C}[\text{ClassName}]\text{VarName} \mid \text{C} \cdot \text{C}[\text{Exp}] \mid \text{Exp}[\text{C} \cdot \text{C}] \]
\[ \mid \text{new} \text{VarType}[\text{Exp}] \ldots \text{C} \cdot \text{C}[\text{Exp}]_{n} \]
\[ \mid \text{C} \cdot \text{C}[\text{ArgType}]\text{MethodName}(\text{Expr}^{*}) \]
\[ \mid \text{Expr}[\text{ArgType}]\text{MethodName}(\text{Expr}, \ldots, \text{C} \cdot \text{C}[\text{Exp}]) \]
\[ \text{where} \ n \geq 1,1 \leq k \leq n \]
\[ \mid \text{C} \cdot \text{C} = \text{Exp} \mid \text{Var} = \text{C} \cdot \text{C} \]
\[ \mid \text{if} \ \text{C} \cdot \text{C} \ \text{then} \ \text{Stmts} \ \text{else} \ \text{Stmts} \]
\[ \mid \text{C} \cdot \text{C} ; \text{return} \ \text{Exp} \mid \text{C} \cdot \text{C} ; \text{Stmt} \]
\[ \mid \text{return} \ \text{C} \cdot \text{C} \mid \text{throw} \ \text{C} \cdot \text{C} \]

Figure 2: Java\textsuperscript{5} exception contexts

4 The operational semantics

Evaluation of Java\textsuperscript{5} terms takes place in the context of a state and a program. Therefore, we define a small steps operational semantics as following:
\[ \leadsto : \ \text{Java}^b \ \text{program} \rightarrow \text{Java}^\text{5-term} \times \text{state} \rightarrow (\text{Java}^\text{5-term} \times \text{state}) \cup (\text{state}) \]
for a given program \( P \) the small rewriting steps are defined as:
\[ \gamma^p : \ \text{Java}^5 \times \text{state} \rightarrow (\text{Java}^\text{5-term} \times \text{state}) \cup (\text{state}) \].
States map identifiers onto primitive values or addresses, and addresses onto objects or arrays. Objects are annotated by their classes. This annotation is used for example, when binding methods according to the run-time class of the receiver. The objects contain the name of their fields, the classes which contain the field declaration and the value of these fields. The explanation can be found in e.g. [6]. For example, \( \sigma_{10} \) is a possible state with:
\[ \sigma_{10}(\text{Peter}) = \mu_{11} \]
\[ \sigma_{10}((\mu_{11}) \quad \ll \text{Age Person} : 0 \gg \text{Person} \]

We discuss some of the rules of the operational semantics. Figure 3 describes the evaluation of assignments. According to the first rule, the left-hand side is evaluated first, until it becomes l-ground (i.e. of the form \( t = \text{id}. \text{f} \text{c} h \text{f} \), or \( t = \text{null}. \text{c} h \text{f} \), or \( t = \text{i} \text{k} \), or \( t = \text{null}[k] \) for some identifier \( \text{id} \), class \( \text{C} \), field \( \text{f} \), integer \( k \), or address \( i \) ). Then, according to the next rule, the right-hand side of the assignment is evaluated, up to the point of obtaining a ground term.
Assignment to variables or to object or array components modifies the state accordingly.

Assignment to array (object) components may throw various exceptions. Firstly they check whether the array (object) address is not null; if no, NullPE is generated to throw. Secondly, they check if the array index is within the array bounds; if not – IndOutBndE will be thrown. Thirdly, they check fitting the value to the array type; if this is not the case, ArrStoreE is to throw. Finally, if these requirements are satisfied, then the assignment is performed.

Figure 4 describes the operational semantics related to exceptions. NE, AE, X abbreviations in the titles of inference rules mean normal execution, abnormal execution, exception correspondingly.

Execution of try-catch and try-catch-finally statements proceeds by execution of the try part. If no exception is thrown in the try part, then the most enclosing try-catch statement terminates, whereas the most enclosing try-catch-finally statement proceeds to execute the finally part.

A throw statement evaluates the corresponding expression – note that evaluation of that expression might itself throw a further expression. If the expression evaluates to null, then a NullPE will be thrown. Once the expression following throw is ground, i.e. once it reaches the form ι, the exception is propagated.

Thus, the exception reaches either the outer level of the program, or it reaches an enclosing try-catch or try-catch-finally statement. An exception of a class not covered by any of the classes in the catch clauses is propagated out of an enclosing try-catch statement. Also, an exception of a class not covered by any of the classes in the catch clauses causes execution of the finally part of an enclosing try-catch-finally statement followed by renewed throwing of the original exception.

An exception is handled by the first handler whose class is a superclass of the exception’s class: the statements of the corresponding catch clause are executed with the catch clause variable (ν₁) pointing to the exception object. The finally clause, if any, will follow execution of the handler independently of whether the handler executed normally or abnormally.

The last two rules in figure 4 reflect the contents of pages 291-294 of the Java specification where the evaluation of try-catch and try-catch-finally is described using twenty two rules written in natural language.

\[ v \text{ is not } l\text{-ground} \quad \frac{\gamma, \nu \vdash v \sigma'}{\nu = e, \gamma, \nu \vdash v = e, \sigma'} \]

val, k are ground
\[ \text{id} = \text{val}, \gamma, \nu \vdash \text{id} \rightarrow \text{val} \]
\[ \nu, \gamma, [f] = \text{val}, \gamma, \nu \vdash f \text{. C} \rightarrow \text{val} \]

null, C \[\text{null} \vdash \text{val}, \gamma, \nu \vdash \text{throw new NullPE(}), \sigma \]
\[ \text{null}[k] = \text{val}, \gamma, \nu \vdash \text{throw new NullPE}(), \sigma \]

val, k are ground
\[ \sigma(\iota) = [\text{val}_0 .. \text{val}_n]^{\varepsilon, \ldots, \varepsilon} \]
\[ 0 \leq k \leq n - 1 \]
\[ \text{val does not fit } T[\varepsilon, \ldots, \varepsilon] \text{ in } P, \sigma \]
\[ \text{new ArrStoreE(}), \sigma \]
\[ \nu, \gamma, \nu \vdash \text{throw new ArrStoreE}(), \sigma \]

val, k are ground
\[ \sigma(\iota) = [\text{val}_0 .. \text{val}_n]^{\varepsilon, \ldots, \varepsilon} \]
\[ 0 \leq k \leq n - 1 \]
\[ \text{val fits } T[\varepsilon, \ldots, \varepsilon] \text{ in } P, \sigma \]
\[ \nu, \gamma, \nu \vdash \text{throw new ArrStoreE}(), \sigma \]

Figure 3: Assignment execution

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2 The judgement P ⊆ C ⊆ C' means that C is a subclass of C'.

3 The appendix outlines possible exceptions of the term `peter.[`act(…`)`. 

6
\[ \text{try} : \text{NE} : \text{statsEvaluation} \]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{try stats catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n, \sigma \\
\quad \gamma \text{try stats' catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n, \sigma' \\
\text{try stats catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n \text{ finally } \text{ stats}_n+1, \sigma \\
\quad \gamma \text{try stats' catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n \text{ finally } \text{ stats}_n+1, \sigma' \\
\end{array}
\]

\[ \text{try} : \text{NE} : \text{noXthrowing} \]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{try stats catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n, \sigma' \\
\quad \gamma \text{try stats' catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n, \sigma'' \\
\end{array}
\]

\[ \text{throw} : \text{NE} : \text{Xevaluation} \]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{throw e}, \sigma, \gamma \text{throw e}', \sigma' \\
\end{array}
\]

\[ \text{throw} : \text{NE} : \text{NullPX generating} \]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{throw null}, \sigma, \gamma \text{throw new \NullPE()}, \sigma \\
\end{array}
\]

\[ \text{try} : \text{AE} : \text{Xpropagation} \]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{con} \bigcirc \text{a context} \\
\text{con throw i}, \sigma, \gamma \text{throw i}, \sigma \\
\end{array}
\]

\[ \text{try} : \text{AE} : \text{Xthrowing} \]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\sigma(i) = \ll \ldots \gg \\
\forall k \in \{1 \ldots n\} \quad \text{P} \not\vdash \text{E} \sqsupset \text{E}_k \\
\text{try throw i catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n, \sigma, \gamma \text{throw i}, \sigma' \\
\end{array}
\]

\[ \text{try} : \text{AE} : \text{Xcatching} \]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\exists i \in \{1 \ldots n\} : \quad \text{P} \vdash \text{E} \sqsupset \text{E}_1 \quad \text{AND} \quad \forall k \in \{1 \ldots i-1\} \quad \text{P} \not\vdash \text{E} \sqsupset \text{E}_k \\
\text{stats}' = \text{stats}_i[z/v_1], z \text{ new in stats}_i \text{ and in } \sigma \\
\sigma' = \sigma[z \mapsto i] \\
\text{try throw i catch E}_1 \text{ v}_1 \text{ stats}_1 \ldots \text{ catch E}_n \text{ v}_n \text{ stats}_n, \sigma, \gamma \text{stats'}, \sigma' \\
\end{array}
\]

Figure 4: Exception throwing, propagation and handling
5 The Java\textsuperscript{2} type system

A Java\textsuperscript{2} term has a normal type which characterizes its normal execution, and an abnormal type which characterizes its abnormal execution.

Normal types are either $\bot$, or primitive types, like \texttt{int}, \texttt{char}, \texttt{bool}, or interfaces, or classes, or \texttt{void}: these are denoted by $T$, $T'$, \textit{etc}. The least normal type, $\bot$, describes terms which definitely will throw exceptions. To describe normal types for statement sequence and conditional, we define the operations $\cap$ and $\cup$ giving pessimistic union and optimistic intersection of normal types:

\begin{itemize}
  \item $T \cap T' = \begin{cases} 
    \bot & \text{iff } T = \bot \\
    T' & \text{otherwise}
  \end{cases}$
  \item $T \cup T' = \begin{cases} 
    \bot & \text{iff } T = \bot \text{ and } T' = \bot \\
    \text{void} & \text{(} T = \text{void or } T' = \text{void}) \text{ and } T, T' \in \{\text{void}, \bot\}
  \end{cases}$
\end{itemize}

Abnormal types are sets of subclasses of the predefined class Throwable: those are denoted by ET, ET', \textit{etc}., or by sets like $\{E_1, \ldots, E_n\}$. For example, \textit{Illness}, \textit{Person}, \texttt{void} are normal types; \{\textit{Illness}, \textit{Worry}\}, \{\texttt{NullPointerException}, \textit{Worry}\} are abnormal types.\footnote{\textit{Compares with} [21], normal types correspond to the sets $X$; abnormal types correspond to the sets $P$.} To express conformance and difference for exceptions we introduce the relation $\subseteq$, and operation $\setminus$ over abnormal types which are the set-theoretic subset and difference taking subclasses into account, \textit{i.e}.

\begin{itemize}
  \item $P \vdash ET \subseteq ET'$ iff $\forall E \in ET : P \vdash E \subseteq \text{Error}$, or $P \vdash E \subseteq \text{RuntimeException}$, or $\exists E' \in ET : P \vdash E \subseteq E'$
  \item $ET \setminus \setminus ET = \{E' | E' \in ET \text{ and } \forall E \in ET : \neg P \vdash E' \subseteq E\}$
\end{itemize}

The type of an address $i$ depends on the object or array it points at in the current state $\sigma$. Therefore, Java\textsuperscript{2} type judgements take states $\sigma$ into account, and have the form $P, V, \sigma \mid E : T \parallel ET$ for Java\textsuperscript{2} term $t$, normal type $T$, abnormal type ET, program $P$, and environment $V$ mapping variables to their types. In figure 5 we show the type rules for some Java\textsuperscript{2} terms.\footnote{In our current work, in order to model separate compilation we define typings in terms of declarations $D$ derived from programs rather than the programs themselves. For simplicity of presentation we dropped the distinction between $D$ and $P$ in this paper.}

We first examine the normal types of the terms. If an object is stored at address $i$, \textit{i.e}., $\sigma(i) = \ll \ldots \gg$, then its class $C$ is the normal type of $i$. An assignment is type correct, and has normal type \texttt{void}, if its right-hand side has a type which widens (is a subclass) of that of the left-hand side. The normal type of a method call is the return type of the method that fits the method descriptor $T_1 \times \ldots \times T_n$ stored with the method call, provided that the arguments have types that can be widened to the corresponding argument types in the method descriptor. A \textit{throw} statement has normal type $\bot$, provided that $E$, the normal type of the expression $e$ is an exception class (\textit{i.e}., a subclass of Throwable). The context of a term with $\bot$ normal type has also $\bot$ normal type. A \textit{try-catch} abnormal type has normal type \texttt{void}, provided that all classes mentioned in the \textit{catch} clauses are exception classes, and that the \textit{catch} clauses are well-typed. With the same conditions, a \textit{try-catch-finally} statement has the type of its \textit{finally} block’s statements. Finally, a statement sequence has $\bot$ if the first statements has $\bot$; otherwise it has the same type as its last statement. If either branch of a conditional has type \texttt{void}, then the conditional has the type \texttt{void}; otherwise (\textit{i.e.} both have $\bot$) it has the type $\bot$.

We next examine the abnormal types of the terms. The abnormal type of an address $i$ is empty -- no consistency can be violated. In most cases, the abnormal type of a term is the union of the abnormal types of its subterms (\textit{e.g.} assignment, statement sequence, conditional statement). The abnormal type of a method call consists of the union of the abnormal types of the receiver, the arguments, and the abnormal type declared in the \textit{throws} part of the method header ($\text{Exc} \tau(\text{meth})$). The abnormal type of a \textit{throw} statement is the union of the set of the normal type (E) and the
\[\begin{align*}
\text{\textbf{Figure 5: Types for some Java terms.}}
\end{align*}\]
abnormal type \( \text{ET} \) of the expression \( e \) that follows the \text{throw}, if \( e \) is different from \text{null}. Namely, if evaluation of \( e \) succeeds, then the \text{throw} statement will throw an exception compatible with \( \text{E} \); if evaluation of \( e \) throws an exception compatible with \( \text{ET} \), then the \text{throw} statement will throw an exception compatible with \( \text{ET} \). The abnormal type of a \text{throw} statement with \text{null} expression is set of \text{NullPE}. The context of a term with \( \bot \) normal type has the same abnormal type as the term. Finally, the abnormal type of a \text{try-catch} statement is the abnormal type of the \text{try} part from which we exclude the exception classes from the \text{catch} clauses, united with the abnormal types of the \text{catch} clauses. Similar requirements for \text{try-catch-finally} statements.

Concerning with our example, and taking \( V_{\text{sr}} = \text{Person peter} \) and a state \( \sigma \) with \( \sigma(\ell) = \text{Illness} \), we obtain the following typings:

\[
\begin{align*}
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma &\vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{Illness} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma &\vdash \text{null} \,: \, \text{Illness} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma &\vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma &\vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma &\vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\( V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma \vdash \text{throw } \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma \vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma \vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma \vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
V_{\text{sr}}, \sigma \vdash \ell. \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
\]

6 Widening and subject reduction

Widening, \( \leq_w \), is defined for all types excluding \( \bot \); some rules are given in figure 6.

Widening for normal types corresponds to subtyping. A normal type widens to another normal type if they are not \( \bot \), or are identical, or if the first is a subclass or subinterface or a subclass of a class that implements interface of, the latter. Widening for normal types is required for assignments and for parameter passing. For example,

\[ V_{\text{sr}} \vdash \text{Doctor } \leq_w \text{Person} \]

which makes the assignment \( \text{peter=David;} \) type-correct.

A normal-abnormal type \( \text{widens} \) to another type if the normal type of the first is either \( \bot \), or widens to the normal type of the latter, and if every class in the abnormal type of the first is either an unchecked exception (i.e. subclass of \text{Error} or \text{Runtime}Exception) or has a superclass in the abnormal type of the latter. Widening for normal-abnormal type is used to express subject reduction.\(^6\)

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
P \vdash T \subseteq T' & P \vdash T \leq_w T' \text{ or } T = \bot \text{ and } P \vdash T' \bowtie_{\text{NormalType}}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
P \vdash T \leq_w T' & P \vdash ET \subseteq ET'
\end{array}
\]

Figure 6: Widening – some rules

Applying these rules to our example:

\[
\begin{align*}
P_{\text{sr}} &\vdash \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
P_{\text{sr}} &\vdash \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
P_{\text{sr}} &\vdash \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
P_{\text{sr}} &\vdash \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
P_{\text{sr}} &\vdash \text{null} \,: \, \text{null} \,\| \, \{\text{worry}\} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Execution is well-defined only if some conformance requirements are satisfied. We outline these requirements here, more can be found in [6]. A state \( \sigma \) \text{conforms} to \( P \) and \( V \), \( i.e. \), \( P, V \vdash \sigma \bowtie \), if all variables and addresses of \( \sigma \) contain values which \text{conform} to the variable type expected in \( V \) and \( P \), \emph{e.g.} objects are required to be constructed according to their classes, etc. An environment \( V \)

\(^6\)In systems where a term is allowed to throw any exception the situation is much simpler, and abnormal types need not be considered. A \text{raise} expression may have any type \( \tau \) in [12]. In [5, 4], where we had not yet considered the requirement to declare exceptions in \text{throws} clauses, the type \text{E-Thrown} widens to any normal type.
conforms to an environment \( V' \), i.e. \( V \subseteq V' \), if \( V \) contains all variable declarations from \( V' \). Finally, a configuration \( t, \sigma \) conforms to type \( T \), i.e. \( P, V \vdash t, \sigma \triangleleft T \), if \( P, V \vdash \sigma \diamond \) and \( P, V, \sigma \vdash t : T \).

For subject reduction we also need the notion of complete program, \( \equiv P \Diamond \), which guarantees that the Java\(^{2} \) program \( P \) satisfies all the well-formedness requirements of Java and that it is complete, i.e. all the necessary classes have been linked and checked (see in appendix A1).

The subject reduction theorem states that execution of a term either terminates in a new state, or it produces a new term whose type widens to that of the original. Therefore, the theorem guarantees that normal execution returns a value compatible with the normal type of the original term, and abnormal execution terminates with an exception compatible with the abnormal type of the term.

**Theorem 1 Subject Reduction** For Java\(^{2} \) program \( P \) with \( \models P \Diamond \), environment \( V \), state \( \sigma \), non-ground Java\(^{2} \) term \( t \), type \( T \) with \( P, V \vdash t, \sigma \triangleleft T \) either

- \( \exists \sigma', V', t', T' \) such that:
  - \( t, \sigma \triangleright t', \sigma' \) and
  - \( V' \subseteq V \), and
  - \( P, V \vdash t', \sigma' \triangleleft T' \) and \( P \vdash T' \leq_{w} T \)

or

- \( \exists \sigma', ET : t, \sigma \triangleright \sigma' \) and \( P, V \vdash \sigma' \Diamond \) and \( T = \text{void} \parallel ET \)

Going again to our example, the subject reduction theorem and the typing

\[ \text{Pet.} \cdot \sigma_{10} \models \text{pet.} \cdot \llbracket \text{act()} \rrbracket : \text{void} \parallel \{ \text{Worry, Illness} \} \]

guarantee that execution of the term \text{pet.} \cdot \llbracket \text{act()} \rrbracket in the state \( \sigma_{10} \) will either terminate successfully or throw an exception of class \text{Worry} or \text{Illness} (or a subclass), or throw an unchecked exception such as \text{NullPointerException} or \text{OutOfMemoryError}. In appendix A2 we follow three possible execution paths, one where no exception is thrown, one where an \text{Illness} exception thrown and caught, and one where a \text{Worry} exception thrown, and demonstrate that in all cases the final state conforms to the program and the environment.

7 Conclusions, Comparisons and Further Work

To our knowledge, our work is the first to model Java exceptions, and to demonstrate that the type system guarantees that the classes mentioned in the throws-clauses of methods indeed describe any potentially escaping unchecked exceptions. In [13, 4, 1, 12] operational semantics and type systems for Java and SML exceptions are developed where method types do not mention the exceptions potentially escaping from their bodies. [2] model Java exception handling and virtual machine subroutines, and prove that the compilation of exception related features from Java to JVM is meaning preserving.

The formal system we have developed is very close to Java and to programmers' intuitive ideas about program compilation and execution. The proofs of the lemmas and theorem can be found in [6]. The work would benefit from the use of a theorem prover, as e.g. in [19, 17].

Modelling Java exceptions and, in particular, the dual role they play whereby they may be used as any object in normal execution until explicitly thrown was quite challenging. Formalization of language features leads to better understanding; for example, introducing \( \bot \) as the least type for a normal type, consideration type as normal-abnormal types combination, or our succinct description of the operational semantics of exception propagation and handling, etc. Our recent work on Java dynamic linker-loader, take the linkage exceptions \text{NoClassDefFoundError}, \text{IncompatibleClassChangeError} into account and give the complete picture of dynamic linking. We hope that our more concise description influences the next version of the Java specification.
On a related topic, the inference of the throws clauses – as opposed to simple checking as in Java – has attracted great interest. The precision of that information has considerable practical implications: An over-cautious programmer, who declares too many exceptions in throws clauses, makes his methods more heavy-weight to call. A tool which analyzes exception flow in Java source code [15], and, in particular, detects exceptions handled through subsumption demonstrated that commercial packages tend to handle exceptions at too coarse a grain. A constraint system [21] gives an exception flow analysis algorithm independent of the programmer’s specifications. This problem has also attracted research in languages where the counterpart of throws clauses does not exist. Control-flow analysis and effects systems have been applied for the estimation of uncaught exceptions in SML programs [22, 14].

Exceptions introduce the potential for non-determinism. For example, the expression e1 and e2 is not equivalent to e2 and e1, because e1 and e2 might raise different exceptions, one of which might be caught. Such considerations could restrict language implementations, i.e. expressions could not be re-arranged unless it can be proven that they raise no exceptions. In [9] a semantics dealing with imprecise exceptions based on the IO monad in Haskell is suggested. This approach is not directly applicable to Java because of the presence of the IO monad, but the issue it tackles is applicable to any language.

The question of imprecise exceptions becomes even more pertinent for Java, because the language deliberately under-specifies the time and exact nature of loading and linkage-related errors, although it does place some constraints, e.g. ch. 12.1.2 in [8]. A semantics for this part of the Java language, which would characterize a whole family of non-deterministic implementations and their properties, is an interesting open task.

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References


\[
\begin{array}{c}
D(P) \vdash P \diamond \\
\vdash P \diamond \\
\hline
D \vdash D(P) \diamond \\
\forall C \ CDef(P, C) \neq \text{Undef} \implies D \vdash CDef(P, C) \diamond \\
\hline
D \vdash \forall P \diamond \\
\forall C \ CDef(P, C) \not\equiv \text{Undef} \implies D \vdash CDef(P, C) \diamond \\
\hline
meth \in MDef(P, C, m) \quad \text{with} \quad \text{meth} = T = \{T_i, T_{i+1}, \ldots, T_n, \text{p}_n\} \quad \text{throws} \ E_1, \ldots, E_q \quad \{\text{mBody}\} \\
\implies D \vdash \text{this; } T_i, T_{i+1}, \ldots, T_n, \text{p}_n; \diamond \\
\forall T', \exists T\, D, C \text{this; } T_i, T_{i+1}, \ldots, T_n, \text{p}_n; \diamond \quad \text{mBody} : T' \parallel ET' \\text{and} \\
D \vdash T' \parallel ET' \leq_m T \parallel \{E_1, \ldots, E_q\}
\end{array}
\]

\[
D \vdash \forall C \ CDef(P, C) \not\equiv \text{Undef} \implies D' \vdash IDef(D, I) \diamond \\
\forall C' \ CDef(D', C') \not\equiv \text{Undef} \implies D' \vdash CDef(D', C') \diamond \\
\hline
\begin{array}{c}
I' \in \text{Interfs}(D, I) \implies D \vdash I' \leq I' \\
\text{meth}_H \in MDef(D, I, m) \\
\implies D \vdash \text{RetT(meth}_H) \diamond \text{NOrType} \\
D \vdash \text{ArgsT(meth}_H) \diamond \text{ArgsType} \\
D \vdash \text{ExcT(meth}_H) \diamond \text{AbsType} \\
\text{meth}_H_1 \in MDef(D, I, m) \text{ and meth}_H_2 \in MDef(D, I, m) \text{ and meth}_H_1 \neq \text{meth}_H_2 \\
\implies D \vdash \text{ArgT(meth}_H_1) \neq \text{ArgT(meth}_H_2) \\
\forall m, \forall I' \in \text{Interfs}(D, I), \\
meth_H \in MDef(D, I, m), \text{meth}'_H \in \text{Meths}(D, I', m), \text{ArgT(meth}_H) = \text{ArgT(meth}'_H) \\
\implies D \vdash \text{RetT(meth}_H) = \text{RetT(meth}'_H), D \vdash \text{ExcT(meth}_H) \subseteq_e \text{ExcT(meth}'_H) \\
\hline
D \vdash IDef(D, I) \diamond \\
\begin{array}{c}
C' = \text{SuperC}(D, C) \implies D \vdash C' \subseteq C' \\
I \in \text{Interfs}(D, C) \implies D \vdash I \leq I \\
T f = \text{FDef}(D, C, f) \implies D \vdash T \diamond \text{VarType} \\
\text{meth}_H \in MDef(D, C, m) \quad \text{with} \quad \text{meth}_H = T = \{T_i, T_{i+1}, \ldots, T_n, \text{p}_n\} \quad \text{throws} \ E_1, \ldots, E_q; \\
\implies D \vdash T \diamond \text{NOrType} \\
D \vdash T_i \times \ldots \times T_n \diamond \text{ArgsType} \\
D \vdash \{E_1, \ldots, E_n\} \diamond \text{AbsType} \\
\text{meth}_H_1 \in MDef(D, C, m) \text{ and meth}_H_2 \in MDef(D, C, m) \text{ and meth}_H_1 \neq \text{meth}_H_2 \\
\implies D \vdash \text{ArgT(meth}_H_1) \neq \text{ArgT(meth}_H_2) \\
\forall m, \forall \text{meth}_H \in MDef(D, C, m), \text{meth}'_H \in \text{Meths}(D, C', m), \text{ArgT(meth}_H) = \text{ArgT(meth}'_H) \\
\implies D \vdash \text{RetT(meth}_H) = \text{RetT(meth}'_H), D \vdash \text{ExcT(meth}_H) \subseteq_e \text{ExcT(meth}'_H) \\
\forall m, \forall I \in \text{Interfs}(D, C), \text{meth}_H_1 \in MDef(D, I, m) \\
\implies D \vdash \text{RetT(meth}_H_1) = \text{RetT(meth}_H_2), D \vdash \text{ExcT(meth}_H_1) \subseteq_e \text{ExcT(meth}_H_2)
\end{array}
\end{array}
\]

Figure 7: Well-formed and complete Java8 programs
Appendix

A1. Well-formed and complete Java\(^b\) programs

We outline the requirements that make Java\(^b\) programs well-formed and complete, concentrating on the issues around exceptions. The requirements are formalized in figure 7.

A Java\(^b\) program is well-formed and complete, i.e. \(\vdash P \ominus\), if it is well-formed in the context of its declarations, i.e. if \(\vdash \mathcal{D}(P) \vdash P \ominus\). \(P\) is well-formed in the context of some declarations \(\mathcal{D}\), i.e. \(\vdash \mathcal{D} \vdash P \ominus\), if the declarations of \(P\) are well-formed, i.e. \(\vdash \mathcal{D} \vdash \mathcal{D}(P) \ominus\), and if all class definitions in \(P\) are well-formed in \(\mathcal{D}\), i.e. if \(\vdash \mathcal{D} \vdash \text{CDef}(P, C) \ominus\) for all \(C\) defined in \(P\).

Well-formedness of class definitions requires all methods

\[
\text{meth} = \tau \mathcal{m}(T_1 \ldots T_k \ldots p_n) \text{ throws } E_1 \ldots E_q \{ \text{mBody} \}
\]

to be well-formed, and the method body \text{mBody} to be of type \(T' \parallel ET'\) where \(T'\) widens to the declared return type \(\tau\), and \(ET'\) consists of unchecked exceptions or subclasses of those declared in the \text{throws} clause. These two requirements are formalized as \(\vdash T' \parallel ET' \leq_w T \parallel \{E_1, \ldots, E_q\}\).

Well-formedness of declarations imposes several restrictions, e.g. unique declarations of classes, interfaces and fields, i.e. \(\vdash D \ominus_u\), acyclic subclass and subinterface hierarchies, i.e. \(D' \vdash D \ominus_u\).

With respect to exceptions it requires the \text{throws} clause of any method header \text{meth}\(H\) to consist of unchecked exceptions or of subclasses of the \text{throws} clause of any method header \text{meth}\(H'\) it overrides. In other words (c.f. figure 7, the fifth rule, last requirement), if \text{meth}\(H\) \(\in \text{MDecl}(D, I, m)\) – i.e. \text{meth}\(H\) belongs to interface \(I\) and \text{meth}\(H'\) \(\in \text{Meths}(D, I', m)\) with \(I' \in \text{Interfs}(D, I)\) and \(\text{Any}T(\text{meth}\(H\)) = \text{Any}T(\text{meth}\(H'\))\) – i.e. \text{meth}\(H\) is declared in a superinterface and has the same identifier and argument type as \text{meth}\(H'\) and therefore is overridden by \text{meth}\(H'\) – then \(\text{Exc}T(\text{meth}\(H\)) \subseteq \text{Exc}T(\text{meth}\(H'\))\). Similar requirements are for classes \((C)\) and their methods \((\text{meth}\(H\) \(\in \text{MDecl}(D, C, m))\) in the last rule of figure 7.

Appendix

A2. Example Execution

As an example of our subject reduction consider program \(P_{er}\) and the term \(\text{peterr}.\![\text{act()}]\) in a state \(\sigma_{10}\), where

\[
\sigma_{10}(\text{peterr}) = \tau_{11}, \quad \sigma_{10}(\tau_{11}) = \ll \text{age Person: } 0 \gg \text{Person}
\]

Disregarding the possibility for unchecked exceptions like null dereferencing, etc., there are three possible outcomes, namely:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_{11} & \quad \text{no exception thrown}, \\
\sigma_{14} & \quad \text{an Illness exception thrown and caught}, \\
\text{throw } \tau_{13}, \sigma_{13} & \quad \text{a Worry exception thrown}
\end{align*}
\]

where the states are:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_{11} & = \sigma_{10}[\tau_{11} \mapsto \ll \text{age Person: } 1 \gg \text{Person}] \\
\sigma_{12} & = \sigma_{10}[\tau_{12} \mapsto \ll \text{severity Illness: } 0 \gg \text{Illness}] \\
\sigma_{13} & = \sigma_{12}[\tau_{13} \mapsto \ll \gg \text{Worry}] \\
\sigma_{14} & = \sigma_{12}[\tau_{14} \mapsto \ll \text{severity Illness: } -10 \gg \text{Illness}]
\end{align*}
\]

The following table demonstrates execution of the term \(\text{peterr}.\![\text{act()}]\) in more detail. We group consecutive executions in marked blocks. At the end of block 1, depending on the outcome of the condition, execution may continue at block 2 or 3. Similarly, at the end of block 3 execution may continue at block 4 or 5.
Indeed, as stated in the subject reduction theorem (in section 6), for $V_{fr}$ and $P_{fr}$ the final states describing the three possible outcomes of the term rewriting we have:

$P_{fr},V_{fr} \vdash \sigma_11 \circ,$

$P_{fr},V_{fr} \vdash \sigma_11 \circ,$

$P_{fr},V_{fr} \vdash \text{throw } \iota_{13},\sigma_{13} \downarrow \lfloor \{\text{Worry}\} \text{ and }$

$P_{fr} \vdash \downarrow \lfloor \{\text{Worry}\} \leq_w \text{ void} \lfloor \{\text{Worry, Illness}\}.$