

Chapter 6:: Control Flow

Programming Language Pragmatics

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Control Flow

- control flow or ordering
 - fundamental to most models of computing
 - determines ordering of tasks in a program

Control Flow

- basic categories for control flow
 - sequencing: order of execution
 - selection (also alternation): choice among two or more statements or expressions
 - **if** or **case** statements
 - iteration: loops
 - **for**, **do**, **while**, **repeat**
 - procedural abstraction: parameterized subroutines

Control Flow

- basic categories for control flow (cont.)
 - recursion: expression defined in terms of (simpler versions of) itself
 - concurrency: two or more program fragments are executed at the same time
 - in parallel on separate processors
 - interleaved on a single processor
 - exception handling and speculation
 - nondeterminancy: order or choice is deliberately left unspecified

Control Flow

- previous eight categories cover all of the control-flow constructs in most programming languages
- better to think in these categories rather than the specifics of a single programming language
 - easier to learn new languages
 - evaluate tradeoffs among languages
 - design and evaluate algorithms

Control Flow

- importance of different categories varies across programming language paradigms
 - sequencing central in imperative and object-oriented languages, but less important in functional languages
 - functional languages use recursion heavily, while imperative languages focus more on iteration
 - logic languages hide control flow entirely and allow the system to find an order in which to apply inference rules

Expression Evaluation

- expression consists of a simple object (literal, variable, constant) or an operator or function call
 - function: **my_func (A, B, C)**
 - operators: simple syntax, one or two operands
 - **a + b**
 - **-c**
 - sometimes operators are syntactic sugar
 - in C++, **a + b** short for **a.operator+(b)**
- some languages impose an ordering for operators and their operands
 - prefix and postfix sometimes referred to as Polish prefix and Polish postfix after Polish logicians who studied and popularized them

Prefix, Infix, and Postfix Notation

- ordering for operators and their operands
 - prefix: `op a b` or `op(a,b)`
 - Lisp: `(* (+ 1 3) 2)`
 - Cambridge prefix: function name inside parentheses; also used with multiple operands: `(+ 2 4 5 1)`
 - infix: `a op b`
 - standard method
 - C: `a = b != 0 ? a/b : 0`
 - postfix: `a b op`
 - least common - used in Postscript, Forth, and intermediate code of some compilers
 - C (and its descendants): `x++`
 - Pascal: pointer dereferencing operator (^)

Expression Evaluation

- arithmetic and logic operations may be ambiguous without parentheses
 - Fortran: $a + b * c ** d ** e / f$
- languages set precedence and associativity rules to determine order of operations
 - precedence rules: order of types of operations
 - $2 + 3 * 4$ (14 or 20?)
 - associativity rules: order of operations at same precedence
 - $9 - 3 - 2$ (4 or 8?)

Expression Evaluation

- languages have individual precedence and associativity rules
 - C has 15 levels – too many to remember
 - Pascal has 3 levels – too few for good semantics
 - Fortran has 8
 - Ada has 6
 - when unsure, use parentheses

Expression Evaluation

Fortran	Pascal	C	Ada
		++, -- (post-inc., dec.)	
**	not	++, -- (pre-inc., dec.), +, - (unary), &, * (address, contents of), !, ~ (logical, bit-wise not)	abs (absolute value), not, **
*, /	*, /, div, mod, and	* (binary), /, % (modulo division)	*, /, mod, rem
+, - (unary and binary)	+, - (unary and binary), or	+, - (binary)	+, - (unary)
		<<, >> (left and right bit shift)	+, - (binary), & (concatenation)
.eq., .ne., .lt., .le., .gt., .ge. (comparisons)	<, <=, >, >=, =, <>, IN	<, <=, >, >= (inequality tests)	=, /=, <, <=, >, >=
.not.		==, != (equality tests)	
		& (bit-wise and)	
		^ (bit-wise exclusive or)	
		(bit-wise inclusive or)	
.and.		&& (logical and)	and, or, xor (logical operators)
.or.		(logical or)	
.eqv., .neqv. (logical comparisons)		?: (if...then...else)	
		=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %= >>=, <<=, &=, ^=, = (assignment)	
		, (sequencing)	

Expression Evaluation

- example:
 - $3 + 2^{2^3}$
 - exponentiation has higher precedence than addition
 - exponentiation has right to left associativity
 - use parentheses to force other interpretations
 - $3 + 2^{(2^3)}$
 - $(3 + 2)^{2^3}$

Assignment

- typically, a variable takes on a new value
- assignment is a side effect
 - something that influences later computation or output and is not a return value
 - C: assignment does yield a value
- l-value: term on left side of =
- r-value: term on right side of =

Assignment

- ordering of operand evaluation
 - generally none
- application of arithmetic identities
 - commutativity is assumed to be safe
 - associativity (known to be dangerous)

`(a + b) + c`

works if **`a ~= maxint`** and **`b ~= minint`** and **`c < 0`**

`a + (b + c)`

does not

Expression Evaluation

- short-circuiting
 - consider `(a < b) && (b < c)`
 - if `a >= b` there is no point evaluating whether `b < c` because `(a < b) && (b < c)` is automatically false
 - other similar situations
 - `if (b != 0 && a/b == c) ...`
 - `if (p && p->foo) ...`
 - `if (unlikely_condition && expensive_fn()) ...`
- be cautious - need to be sure that your second half is valid, or else coder could miss a runtime error without proper testing

Expression Evaluation

- variables as values vs. variables as references
 - value-oriented languages
 - C, Pascal, Ada
 - reference-oriented languages
 - most functional languages (Lisp, Scheme)
 - Java deliberately in-between
 - built-in types are values
 - user-defined types are objects - references

Expressions vs. Statements

- most languages distinguish between expressions and statements
 - expressions always produce a value, and may or may not have a side effect
 - Python: `b + c`
 - statements are executed solely for their side effects, and return no useful value
 - Python: `mylist.sort()`
- a construct has a side effect if it influences subsequent computation in some way (other than simply returning a value)

Expression Evaluation

- expression-oriented vs. statement-oriented languages
 - expression-oriented
 - functional languages (Lisp, Scheme, ML)
 - statement-oriented:
 - most imperative languages
 - C halfway in-between
 - allows expression to appear instead of statement, but not the reverse

Assignment Shortcuts

- assignment
 - statement (or expression) executed for its side effect
 - key to most programming languages you have seen so far
 - assignment operators
 - `+=`, `-=`, etc.
 - handy shortcuts
 - avoid redundant work
 - reduce programmer errors
 - perform side effects exactly once
 - example: `A[index_fn(i)]++`;
 - vs. `A[index_fn(i)] = A[index_fn(i)] + 1`;

Multiway Assignment

- some languages (including Python and Ruby) allow multiway assignment
 - example: `a,b = c,d;`
 - defines a tuple, equivalent to `a = c; b = d;`
- can simplify computation
 - `a,b = b,a` (no need for a temp variable)
 - `a,b,c = foo(d,e,f)` (allows a single return)

C: Assignments within Expressions

- combining expressions with assignments can have unfortunate side effects, depending on the language
 - C has no true boolean type (just uses int's or their equivalents), and allows assignments within expressions
 - example

```
if (a = 0) {  
    ...  
}
```

What does this do?

Expression Evaluation

- side effects are a fundamental aspect of the whole von Neumann model of computation.
 - what is the von Neumann architecture?
- in (pure) functional and logic languages, there are no such changes
 - single-assignment languages
 - very different

Expression Evaluation

- some languages outlaw side effects for functions
 - easier to prove things about programs
 - closer to Mathematical intuition
 - easier to optimize
 - (often) easier to understand
- but side effects can be nice
 - consider **rand()**

More on Side Effects

- side effects are a particular problem if they affect state used in other parts of the expression in which a function call appears
 - example: $a - f(b) - c*d$
 - good not to specify an order, because it makes it easier to optimize
 - unfortunately, compilers can't check this completely, and most don't at all

Code Optimization

- most compilers attempt to optimize code
 - example: $a = b + c$ then $d = c + e + b$
- evaluating part of each statement can speed up code
 - $a = b / c / d$ then $e = f / d / c$
 - $t = c * d$ and then $a = b / t$ and $e = f / t$
- arithmetic overflow can really become a problem here
 - can be dependent on implementation and local setup
 - checking provides more work for compiler, so slower
 - with no checks, these can be hard to find

Sequencing

- sequencing
 - specifies a linear ordering of statements
 - one statement follows another
 - imperative, Von-Neuman
- in assembly, the only way to "jump" around is to use branch statements
- early programming languages (such as C) mimicked this using **goto**

The End of goto

- in 1968, Edsger Dijkstra wrote an article condemning the **goto** statement
- while hotly debated, **goto** statements have essentially disappeared from modern programming languages
- did not fit structured programming model
 - top down design
 - modularization of code
 - structured types
 - descriptive variables
 - iteration

Alternatives to goto

- getting rid of **goto** was actually fairly easy, since it was usually used in certain ways
 - **goto** to jump to end of current subroutine
 - use return instead
 - **goto** to escape from the middle of a loop
 - use exit or break instead
 - much harder if nesting is deep
 - **goto** to repeat sections of code
 - use loops instead

Case for goto

- several settings are very useful for **goto** statements
 - to end a procedure/loop early (for example, if target value is found)
 - use break or continue instead
 - problem: bookkeeping
 - breaking out of code might end a scope
 - need to call destructors, deallocate variables, etc.
 - adds overhead to stack control
 - must be support for unwinding the stack

Case for goto

- another example: exceptions
- **goto** was generally used as error handling, to exit a section of code without continuing
- modern languages generally throw and catch exceptions instead
 - adds overhead
 - but allows more graceful recovery

Sequencing

- blocks of code are executed in a sequence
- blocks are generally indicated by { ... } or similar construct
- interesting note: without side effects, blocks are essentially useless
 - the value is just the last return
- in some languages, functions which return a value are not allowed to have a side effect at all
 - any function call will have the same value, no matter when it occurs
 - not always desirable, of course
 - **rand** function definitely should not return the same value every time!

Selection

- selection: introduced in Algol 60
 - sequential if statements

```
if ... then ... else
```

```
if ... then ... elsif ... else
```

- Lisp variant

```
(cond
```

```
    (C1) (E1)
```

```
    (C2) (E2)
```

```
    ...
```

```
    (Cn) (En)
```

```
    (T)  (Et)
```

```
)
```


Selection

- Algol 60 example

```
if a = b then PROC := 2
elseif a = c then PROC := 3
elseif a = d then PROC := 4
else PROC := 1
end;
```

- Lisp variant

```
(cond
  ((= A B) (2))
  ((= A C) (3))
  ((= A D) (4))
  (T      (1)))
```

)

Selection

- selection
 - Fortran computed **goto** statements
 - jump code
 - for selection and logically-controlled loops
 - no point in computing a Boolean value into a register, then testing it
 - instead of passing register containing Boolean out of expression as a synthesized attribute, pass inherited attributes INTO expression indicating where to jump to if true, and where to jump to if false

Selection

- jump is especially useful in the presence of short-circuiting
- example: suppose code is generated for the following

```
if ((A > B) and (C > D)) or (E <> F) then  
    then_clause  
else  
    else_clause
```

Selection

- code generated w/o short-circuiting (Pascal)

```

    r1 := A          -- load
    r2 := B
    r1 := r1 > r2
    r2 := C
    r3 := D
    r2 := r2 > r3
    r1 := r1 & r2
    r2 := E
    r3 := F
    r2 := r2 <> r3
    r1 := r1 | r2
    if r1 = 0 goto L2
L1:   then_clause    -- label not actually used
      goto L3
L2:   else_clause
L3:
```

Selection

- code generated w/ short-circuiting (C)

```
    r1 := A
    r2 := B
    if r1 <= r2 goto L4
    r1 := C
    r2 := D
    if r1 > r2 goto L1
L4:   r1 := E
      r2 := F
      if r1 = r2 goto L2
L1:   then_clause
      goto L3
L2:   else_clause
L3:
```

Selection: case/switch

- the case/switch statement was introduced to simplify certain if-else situations
- useful when comparing the same integer to a large variety of possibilities

Selection: case/switch

- example

```
i := ... (* potentially complicated expression *)  
IF i = 1 THEN  
    clause_A  
ELSIF i IN 2, 7 THEN  
    clause_B  
ELSIF i IN 3..5 THEN  
    clause_C  
ELSIF (i = 10) THEN  
    clause_D  
ELSE  
    clause_E  
END
```

can be re-written as

```
CASE ... (* potentially complicated expression *) OF  
    1:      clause_A  
|   2, 7:  clause_B  
|   3..5:  clause_C  
|   10:    clause_D  
    ELSE   clause_E  
END
```

Selection: case/switch

- labels and arms must be disjoint
- label type must be discrete
 - integer, character, enumeration, subrange
- case/switch statements enhance code aesthetics, but principal motivation is to generate efficient target code

Selection: case/switch

- case can be translated as

```
    r1 := ...           -- calculate tested expression
    if r1  $\neq$  1 goto L1
    clause_A
    goto L6
L1: if r1 = 2 goto L2
    if r1  $\neq$  7 goto L3
L2: clause_B
    goto L6
L3: if r1 < 3 goto L4
    if r1 > 5 goto L4
    clause_C
    goto L6
L4: if r1  $\neq$  10 goto L5
    clause_D
    goto L6
L5: clause_E
L6:
```

```
CASE ... (* potentially complicated expression *) OF
    1:      clause_A
|   2, 7:   clause_B
|   3..5:   clause_C
|   10:     clause_D
    ELSE    clause_E
END
```

Selection: case/switch

- can use an array of jump addresses (jump table) instead

```
T:  &L1          -- tested expression = 1
    &L2
    &L3
    &L3
    &L3
    &L5
    &L2
    &L5
    &L5
    &L4          -- tested expression = 10
L6: r1 := ...    -- calculate tested expression
    if r1 < 1 goto L5
    if r1 > 10 goto L5  -- L5 is the "else" arm
    r1 -= 1           -- subtract off lower bound
    r2 := T[r1]
    goto *r2
L7:
```

```
CASE ... (* potentially complicated expression *) OF
    1:      clause_A
|   2, 7:   clause_B
|   3..5:   clause_C
|   10:     clause_D
    ELSE    clause_E
END
```

Selection: case/switch

- jump tables can take a lot of space if case covers large ranges or values or non-dense
- alternative methods
 - sequential testing
 - useful if number of case statements is small
 - hashing
 - useful if range of label values is large, but with many missing values
 - binary search
 - good for large ranges

Selection: case/switch

- languages differ in
 - syntax
 - punctuation
 - label ranges
 - default clause
 - some languages: else
 - Ada: all values must be covered
- handling of match failures
 - some languages will require program failure for unmatched value
 - C and C++: no effect

Selection: case/switch

- C/C++/Java switch

```
switch (... /* tested expression */) {  
    case 1: clause_A  
        break;  
  
    case 2:  
    case 7: clause_B  
        break;  
  
    case 3:  
  
    case 4:  
    case 5: clause_C  
        break;  
  
    case 10: clause_D  
        break;  
  
    default: clause_E  
        break;  
}
```

```
CASE ... (* potentially complicated expression *) OF  
    1:      clause_A  
|   2, 7:  clause_B  
|   3..5:  clause_C  
|   10:    clause_D  
    ELSE   clause_E  
END
```

Selection: case/switch

- C/C++/Java switch
 - each value must have its own label; no ranges allowed
 - lists of labels not allowed, but empty arms that fall through OK
 - **break** required at end of each arm that terminates
 - fall-through can cause unintentional hard-to-find bugs
 - C# requires each non-empty arm to end with **break**, **goto**, **continue**, or **return**
- fall-through convenient at times

```
letter_case = lower;
switch (c) {
    ...
    case 'A' :
        letter_case = upper;
        /* FALL THROUGH! */
    case 'a' :
        ...
        break;
    ...
}
```

Iteration

- ability to perform some set of operations repeatedly
 - loops
 - recursion
- without iteration, all code would run in linear time
- most powerful component of programming
- in general, loops are more common in imperative languages, while recursion is more common in functional languages
 - loops generally executed for their side effects

Iteration

- enumeration-controlled loop

- Pascal or Fortran-style for loops

```
do i = 1, 10, 2      -- index i, init val, bound, step
...                  -- body will execute 5 times
enddo
```

- changed to standard for loops later

```
FOR i := first TO last BY step DO
...
END
```


Iteration: Code Generation

- none of these initial loops allow anything other than enumeration over a preset, fixed number of values
- results in efficient code generation

```
    R1 := first
    R2 := step
    R3 := last
    goto L2

L1: ...                                --loop body, use R1 for i
    R1 := R1 + R2
L2: if R1 <= R3 goto L1
```

Iteration: Code Generation

- translation can be optimized if the number of iterations can be precomputed, although need to be careful of overflow
 - precompute total count, and subtract 1 each time until we hit 0
 - we must be able to precompute
 - always possible in Fortran or Ada, but C (and its descendants) are quite different

Iteration: Some Issues

- can control enter or leave the loop other than through enumeration mechanism?
 - **break, continue, exit**
 - Fortran allowed **goto** to jump inside a loop
- what happens if the loop body alters variables used to compute end-of-loop condition?
 - some languages only compute the bound once (not C)
- what happens if the loop modifies the index variable itself?
 - most languages prohibit this entirely, although some leave it up to the programmer
- can the program read the index after the loop has been completed, and if so, what is its value?
 - ties into issue of scope, and is very language-dependent

Iteration: Some Issues

- example: what happens if the loop modifies the index variable itself?

```
for i := 1 to 10 by 2
```

```
...
```

```
  if i = 3
```

```
    i = 6
```

- example: can the program read the index after the loop has been completed, and if so, what is its value?

```
var c : 'a'..'z';
```

```
...
```

```
for c := 'a' to 'z' do begin
```

```
  ...
```

```
end;
```

```
(* what comes after 'z'? *)
```

Iteration: Combination Loops

- the **for** loop in C is called a combination loop
 - allows one to use more complex structures in the **for** loop
- the Modula-2 loop

```
FOR i := first TO last BY step DO
  ...
END
```

becomes

```
for (i = first; i <= last; i += step) {
  ...
}
```

which is equivalent to

```
i = first;
while (i <= last) {
  ...
  i += step;
}
```

Iteration: Combination Loops

- for loop useful in its compactness of clarity over while loop
- convenient to make loop iterator local to body of loop
- `for (int i = first; i <= last; i += step)`
- essentially, for loops are another variant of while loops, with more complex updates and true/false evaluations each time
- operator overloading (such as `operator++`) combined with iterators actually allow highly non-enumerative for loops
- example

```
for (list<int>::iterator it = mylist.begin();  
    it != mylist.end(); it++) {  
    ...  
}
```

Iteration: Iterators

- languages such as Python and C# require any container to provide an iterator that enumerates items in that class
- example

```
for item in mylist:  
    #code to look at items
```

Iteration: Logically Controlled Loops

- **while** loops are different from standard **for** loops
 - no set number of enumerations is predefined
- inherently strong
 - closer to **if** statements in some ways, but with repetition built in
- more difficult to code properly
- more difficult to debug
- code optimization is also harder
 - none of the **for** loop tricks will work

Recursion

- recursion
 - equally powerful to iteration
 - often more intuitive (sometimes less)
 - naive implementation less efficient
 - no special syntax required
 - fundamental to functional languages like Scheme

Recursion

- many criticize that recursion is slower and less efficient than iteration
 - alters the stack when calling a function
- a bit inaccurate – naively written iteration is probably more efficient than naively written recursion
- in particular, if the recursion is *tail recursion*, the execution on the stack for the recursive call will occupy the exact same spot as the previous method

Recursion

- tail recursion

- no computation follows recursive call

```
int gcd (int a, int b) {  
    /* assume a, b > 0 */  
    if (a == b) return a;  
    else if (a > b) return gcd (a - b, b)  
    else return gcd (a, b - a);  
}
```

- a good compiler will translate this to machine code that runs in place
 - essentially returning to the start of the function with new **a, b** values

Recursion

- even if not initially tail recursive, simple transformations can often produce tail-recursive code
- additionally, clever tricks - such as computing Fibonacci numbers in an increasing fashion, rather than via two recursive calls - can make recursion comparable

Order of Evaluation

- generally, we assume that arguments are evaluated before passing to a subroutine, in applicative order evaluations
- not always the case: lazy evaluation or normal order evaluation pass unevaluated arguments to functions, and value is only computed if and when it is necessary
- applicative order is preferable for clarity and efficiency, but sometimes normal order can lead to faster code or code that won't give as many run-time errors
- in particular, for list-type structures in functional languages, this lazy evaluation can be key