

## Chapter 6:: Control Flow

*Programming Language Pragmatics*

Michael L. Scott

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



1

## Control Flow

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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



2

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



3

## 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
  - nondeterminacy: order or choice is deliberately left unspecified

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



4

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



5

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



6



## 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 =

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



13

## 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  $a \sim \text{maxint}$  and  $b \sim \text{minint}$  and  $c < 0$
      - $a + (b + c)$ 
        - does not

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



14

## Expression Evaluation

- short-circuiting
  - consider  $(a < b) \ \&\& \ (b < c)$ 
    - if  $a \geq b$  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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



15

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



16

## 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)

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



17

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



18

## 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`;

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



19

## 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)

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



20

## 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?

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



21

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



22

## 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()`

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



23

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



24

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



25

## 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**

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



26

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



27

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



28

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



29

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



30

## 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!

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



31

## 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)
)
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



32

## 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))
)
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



33

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



34

## 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
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



35

## 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:
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



36

## 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:

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



37

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



38

## 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

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



39

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



40

## Selection: case/switch

- case can be translated as

```

r1 := ...      -- calculate tested expression
if r1 <= 1 goto L1
  clause_A
goto L6
L1: if r1 = 2 goto L2
if r1 <= 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 <= 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

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



41

## Selection: case/switch

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

```

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

```

```

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

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



42

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



43

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



44

## 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 10: clause_D
    break;
  case 4: 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
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



45

## 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;
  ...
}
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



46

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



47

## 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
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



48



## 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

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



49

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



50

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



51

## 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'? *)

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



52

## 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;
}

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



53

## 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++) {
...
}

```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



54

## 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
```

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



55

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



56

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



57

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



58

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



59

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier



60

## 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

Copyright © 2009 Elsevier

