# CS342: Organization of Prog. Languages

## **Topic 10: Control Flow**

- Statements vs Expressions
- Flow of execution
- Contitional execution
- Loops
- Iterator objects and Generators

### **Order of Computation**

- Some programming langs require **explicit control** of the order in which the parts of a program are evaluated/performed.
- Some programming langs evaluate the arguments of functions before calling the function (eager evaluation).
   Others defer the evaluation of arguments until their values are ultimately required (lazy evaluation).
- Some programming langs are inherently
   serial, others have support for concurrent execution.

### **Statements vs Expressions**

• Some imperative languages, like C, are *statement*-based.

A program consists of a series of commands, and the computation is viewed as the *execution* of statements for their side effects.

The the execution order of the statements is called the *control flow*.

• Some imperative languages, like Lisp, are A program consists of an expression. Computation consists of the *evaluation* of the expression for its resulting value (and possibly side effects).

Evaluation of the expression consists of evaluating sub-expressions and using their values to determine the value of the entire expression.

The the evaluation order of subexpressions is the *control flow* in this case.

• Statement-based languages often have an expression-based sublanguage to compute values.

We will talk about statements and expressions interchangeably since the ideas of control flow apply equally to both.

### **Examples**

• In C, some expressions/statements have defined order of evaluation:

```
(i < n) && a[i] != 0
(a < 0) ? f(a) : g(a)
for (i = 0; i < n; i++) f(i);</pre>
```

• For others, the order of evaluation is undefined:

```
h(i++, i++)
(i < n) & a[i] != 0
```

## **Sequential Evaluation**

• C:

```
{ s1; s2; s3; }
```

• Scheme:

```
(lambda varlist e1 e2 ...)
```

and derived forms

```
(begin e1 e2 e3)
```

• Pascal:

### **Boolean expression evaluation**

- Many imperative languages have boolean operations which do not evaluate their 2nd (etc) arguments unless they have to.
- This uses the properties:  $\forall x$ . F and x = F  $\forall x$ . T or x = T
- C: a && b a || b
- Scheme: (and e1 e2 ...) (or e1 e2 ...)
- Ada: a and then b a or else b
- This saves computation, and simplifies program text when evaluation of both arguments could generate an error.

```
if (i < n && a[i] != 0) { STUFF }
if (i < n) {
      if (a[i] != 0) { STUFF }
}</pre>
```

### Conditional evaluation – If

• **If-then** in various syntactic forms:

```
if (expr) stat
if expr then stat
if expr then stat endif
if expr then stat fi
(if expr expr)
...
```

• If-then-else in its various syntactic forms:

```
if (expr) stat else stat
if expr then stat else stat
if expr then stat else stat endif
(if expr expr expr)
expr? expr: expr
...
```

The syntactic form with a closing keyword avoids the "dangling else" problem:

```
if expr then
  if expr then stat
else
  stat
```

### • Multi-way if-then-else.

if expr then stat

This syntactic sugar helps to write programs without deeply nested if-then-else-s.

```
elseif expr then stat
...
elseif expr then stat
else stat
endif

c1 ? e1 : c2 ? e2 : c3 ? e3 : e4

(cond (c1 e11 ...) (c2 e21 ...) ...)
{ c1 => e1; c2 => e2; ...; eN }
```

### • Arithmetic if [Fortran]

Goto one of three labels according as an expression is -ve, zero, +ve.

Now deprecated.

This allowed programmers to do decide among three cases with one test.

• Conditional sequence exit [Axiom]

This generalizes the multi-way if-then-else to allow computations before the tests:

```
r := \{ e1; c2 => e2; e3; c4 => e4; e5; e6 \}
This is a syntactic sugar for
r := {
       e1:
       if c2 then e2 else {
              e3;
              if c4 then e4 else { e5; e6 }
       }
This can be done in Scheme as
(set! r (if (begin e1 c2) e2 (if (begin e3 c4) e4 (begin e5 e6))))
```

#### Nondeterministic if

Each of the alternatives is a "guarded statement."

Of all the branches for which the condition is true, choose one at random and execute the statement.

$$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{if} \ c_1 \rightarrow s_1 \\ \textbf{[]} \ c_2 \rightarrow s_2 \\ \dots \\ \textbf{[]} \ c_n \rightarrow s_n \\ \textbf{fi} \end{array}$$

### **Iteration – Loops**

### Loop with boolean test at beginning

Each iteration test condition.

Depending on value, either execute body or end loop.

```
while expr do body od while (expr) body
```

Evaluates body zero or more times.

#### Loop with boolean test at end

Each iteration execute body, then test condition.

Depending of value, either rexecute the body or end the loop.

```
do body while (expr)
repeat body until expr
```

Evaluates the body one or more times.

Useful when the action of the body sets up values to test in the condition.

• Depending on the language, either of these kinds of loop may use a positive or negative end test. Often this is indicated by a keyword while or a keyword until.

**NB** An until keyword does not guarantee the test is at the end. Check the definition of the language.

#### Nondeterministic do

do 
$$c_1 \rightarrow s_1$$
[]  $c_2 \rightarrow s_2$ 
...
[]  $c_n \rightarrow s_n$ 
od

At each iteration, randomly choose one of the  $s_i$  for which the  $c_i$  is true and evaluate it. If none of the  $c_i$  are true, then the loop terminates.

• **Discrete steps** integral or enumerated values.

```
do i = 1,100
    ...
end do

do i = 1, 100, 2
    ...
end do

do i = 100, 1, -2
    ...
end do
```

If the step direction is not determinable at compile time, then an extra the end test has to be decided to be "i < limit" or "i > limit" at run time.

For this reason some languages have two forms:

```
for var := start to limit by step do ... for var := start downto limit by step do ...
```

This simplifies the code executed, and it can be somewhat more efficient.

#### • Elements of a structure

Some programming languages have primitive iteration over the elements of a homogeneous aggregate.

```
numlist := [1, 2, 99, 88, 23];
for n in numlist do ... od
```

Programmer-defined stepping

```
E.g. in C, for ( init ; test ; step ) ...

E.g. in Scheme, (do ((var_1init_1step_1) ...) (test\ fini_1 ...) body_1 ...
```

Programmer-defined **iterator objects** can provide an interface used generically in these kinds of loops:

```
//
// A class to specify generic iteration.
//
template<class T> class Iter {
public:
    virtual int        isEmpty() = 0;
    virtual void        step () = 0;
    virtual T        value() = 0;
};
```

```
//
// Iteration over arrays
//
template<class T>
class ArrayIter : public Iter<T> {
   T
       *_a;
    int _i, _end;
public:
   ArrayIter(T *a, int start, int end)
        : _a(a), _i(start), _end(end) { }
          isEmpty() { return _i > _end; }
    int
   void step() { _i++; }
      value() { return _a[_i]; }
};
```

```
//
// Linked lists and their iterator
//
template<class T> struct Cons {
           _car;
    Cons * _cdr;
    Cons(T a, Cons *d) : _car(a), _cdr(d) { };
};
template<class T>
class ConsIter : public Iter<T> {
    Cons<T> * _cons;
public:
    ConsIter(Cons<T> *pcons) : _cons(pcons) {};
           isEmpty() { return _cons == 0; }
    int
           step() { _cons = _cons->_cdr; }
    void
           value() { return _cons->_car; }
};
```

```
//
// A function which uses generic iteration.
//
#include <iostream.h>
template<class T>
void looper(Iter<T>& iter)
{
    int i = 1;
    for ( ; !iter.isEmpty(); iter.step())
        cout << i++
             << " => "
             << iter.value()</pre>
             << "\n";
```

```
//
// Examples using the generic iteration.
//
#define N 10
int main(int argc, char **argv) {
   // Set up two data structures
   Cons<int> *list = 0;
              i, p, nums[N];
    int
   for (p = i = 1; i < N; p *= i++) {
        list = new Cons<int>(p, list);
       nums[i] = p;
    }
   // Create iterator objects
   ArrayIter<int> niter(nums, 1, N-1);
   ConsIter <int> citer(list);
   // Iterate over them
   looper(niter);
   looper(citer);
   return 0;
```

### • Programmer-defined generators

The previous (iterator) approach required the programmer to keep track of the current state of a structure's traversal in an auxilliary object.

Instead, some languages allow the programmer to keep track of this in the state of a traversal program.

They define the notion of a generator, a program which can yield values to the calling program, and then be resumed on the next iteration.

```
values(a: Array DoubleFloat) == generate {
    -- Any pgm can go here, with yields anywhere.
    i: SingleInteger := 0;
    while i < #a repeat {</pre>
        yield a.i;
        i := i + 1;
a0: Array DoubleFloat := [1.414, 2.718, 3.1416];
// The "for x in ..." iterates over a generator.
for x in values a0 repeat { ... }
```

 With user-defined generators, a useful notion is that of parallel iteration:

```
dot(u, v) == {
    sum := 0;
    for eu in u for ev in v repeat
        sum := sum + eu*ev;
    sum
}
```

Each iteration both variables receive new values.

This is very different than the two nested loops

Here ev takes on all possible values for each value of eu.

• Early exit. Many languages have a notion of a statement which causes the enclosing loop to terminate (break in C, exit in Ada).

Some languages allow this statement to take a numeric argument, which is the number of levels of loop to break out of.

Others allow the statement to refer to a loop label to indicate which loop shall be terminated.

• **Skip to next iteration**. Many languages have a statement which causes the enclosing loop to quit executing the current loop body iteration and skip to the of the next iteration (continue in C, iterate in Aldor).

Collection vs Looping.

In an expression based language, there is the question of the value of the loop.

There are three possible answers:

Nothing.

The *last* body value.

The values of all executions of the body.

• A collect form gathers the values of all the bodies. E.g.

```
lsq := [i^2 for i in 1..10];
tot := sum(3*k + 1 for k in 1..100);
```