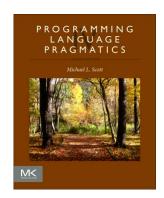
Chapter 6:: Control Flow

Programming Language Pragmatics, Fourth Edition

Michael L. Scott





Introduction

- Core issues in language design
- The issue of *control flow* or *ordering in program execution*
 - determines what should be done first, what second, and so forth, to accomplish some desired task.
- Order of execution matters for statements, and for expressions with *side effects*.



- An expression is any legal combination of symbols that represents a value.
- An expression generally consists of either
 - a simple object (e.g., a literal constant, or a named variable or constant) or
 - an operator or function applied to a collection of operands or arguments, each of which in turn is an expression.
- Example: x + 5
 - + operator (built-up function)
 - x and 5: operands (arguments of an operator)



• A language may specify that function calls employ prefix, infix, or postfix notation.

```
prefix: op a b or op (a, b) or (op a b) infix: a op b postfix: a b op
```

• Most imperative languages use infix notation for binary operators and prefix notation for unary operators and (with parentheses around the arguments) other functions.



- Precedence rules specify that certain operators, in the absence of parentheses, group "more tightly" than other operators.
- Levels of precedence for several well-known languages (see Figure 6.1)
 - C has 15 levels too many to remember
 - Pascal has 3 levels too few for good semantics
 - Fortran has 8
 - Ada has 6
 - **Lesson**: When unsure, use parentheses!



Fortran	Pascal	С	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)		?: (ifthenelse)	
		=, +=, -=, *=, /=, %=, >>=, <<=, &=, ^=, = (assignment)	
		, (sequencing)	

Figure 6.1 Operator precedence levels in Fortran, Pascal, C, and Ada. The operators at the top of the figure group most tightly.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = ++a-b;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  C:
  a:
  b:
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = ++a-b;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  c: 4
  a: 5
  b: 1
```



```
a = 4
b = 1
a += 1
c = a - b
print("c:", c)
print("a:", a)
print("b:", b)
```

C:

a:

b:



```
a = 4
b = 1
a += 1
c = a - b
print("c:", c)
print("a:", a)
print("b:", b)
```

c: 4
a: 5
b: 1



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = a-b++;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  C:
  a:
  b:
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = a-b++;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  c: 3
  a: 4
  b: 2
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = a*++b;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  C:
  a:
  b:
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = a*++b;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  c: 8
  a: 4
  b: 2
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = a++*b-1;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  C:
  a:
  b:
```



```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
 int a = 4;
     int b = 1;
     int c = a++*b-1;
     printf("c: %d \n", c);
     printf("a: %d \n", a);
     printf("b: %d \n", b);
     return 0;
  c: 3
  a: 5
  b: 1
```



- Associativity rules specify whether sequences of operators equal precedence group to the right or left.
- The basic arithmetic operators almost always associate left-to-right, so 9 3 2 is 4 and not 8.
 - In Fortran, the exponentiation operator (**) associates right-to-left, so 4**3**2 is 262144 and not 4096.
 - In Ada, exponentiation does not associate, one must write either (4**3)**2 or 4**(3**2).



- Associativity rules (cont.)
 - Lesson: Rules for precedence and associativity vary so much from one language to another. When unsure, use parentheses!
 - Precedence and associativity rules can be overridden with parentheses.



Expression-oriented languages:

- Expressions are the building blocks of programs
- Computation consists entirely of expression evaluation
- Functional languages (Lisp, Scheme, ML)

Statement-oriented languages:

- Computation typically consists of an ordered series of changes to the values of variables in memory
- Assignments provide the principal means by which to make the changes
- Most imperative languages



• Assignment

- Statement (or expression) executed for its side effect
- Executed solely for their *side effects*



- A programming language construct is said to have a side effect if it influences subsequent computation (and ultimately program output) in any way other than by returning a value for use in the surrounding context.
- Assignment is perhaps the most fundamental side effect:
 - They change the value of a variable
 - Thereby influencing the result of any later computation in which the variable appears



- Often discussed in the context of functions
- When a function changes a two-way parameter or a nonlocal variable
- Side effects are fundamental to the whole Von Neumann model of computing

```
#include <iostream>
   using namespace std;
   int total=0;
   // function sum changes non-local variable
   int sum(int x, int y)
       total = x + y;
        return total;
11
12
13 }
14
   int main()
16- {
17
18
        sum (100, 200);
19
        cout << "Total: " << total << endl;</pre>
20
        return 0;
```

^{*} Sebesta

- Often discussed in the context of functions
- When a function
 changes a two-way
 parameter or a non-local variable
- Side effects are fundamental to the whole Von Neumann model of computing

```
x = 0
def foo():
     global x
     x += 5
     return x
a = foo() + x + foo()
print(a)
print(x)
```



^{*} Sebesta

- Often discussed in the context of functions
- When a functionchanges a two-wayparameter or a non-local variable
- Side effects are fundamental to the whole Von Neumann model of computing

```
int x = 0;
int foo() {
    x+=5;
    return x;
}

int a = foo() + x + foo();
cout << a;
cout << x;</pre>
```





- Many imperative languages distinguish between expressions and statements
 - Expressions always produce a value, and may or may not have side effects
 - Statements are executed solely for their side effects, and return no useful value
- Imperative programming is sometimes described as "computing by means of side effects."



- Purely functional languages have no side effects
 - Haskell and Miranda are purely functional
 - Many other languages are mixed:
 - ML and Lisp are mostly functional, but make assignment available to programmers who want it
 - C#, Python, and Ruby are mostly imperative, but provide a variety of features (e.g., first-class functions, polymorphism, functional values) that allow them to be used in a largely functional style

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
- A compiler that performs *short-circuit evaluation* of Boolean expressions will generate code that skips the second half of both of these computations when the overall value can be determined from the first half.



```
// Short-circuiting
      int main()
          int a = 5;
          int b = -10;
          // Here b == -10 is not evaluated because a!= 5 is false
  11
          if (a != 5 && b == -10) {
  12 -
  13
             printf("This won't be printed!\n");
          else {
  15 -
             printf("Else block is printed.");
  17
          return 0;
  21
  22
  23
 🕶 📝 🔏
Else block is printed.
```

...Program finished with exit code 0
Press ENTER to exit console.

Short-circuiting

- Short-circuit evaluation can save significant amounts of time in certain situations.
 - if (very_unlikely_condition && very_expensive_function()) ...
- There are situations in which short circuiting may not be appropriate.
- If expressions E1 and E2 both have side effects, we may want the conjunction E1 and E2 (and likewise E1 or E2) to evaluate both halves.



Sequencing

- Specifies a linear ordering on statements
 - One statement follows another
- List of statements can be enclosed with
 - begin end
 - **-** { }
- Such a delimited list is usually called a *compound* statement Block



- A selection statement provides the means of choosing between two or more paths of execution
- Two general categories:
 - Two-way selectors
 - Multiple-way selectors



• Two-way selectors

if control_expression

then clause

else clause



Multiple-way selectors

```
-C, C++, Java, and JavaScript
switch (expression) {
   case const_expr_1: stmt_1;
   ...
   case const_expr_n: stmt_n;
   [default: stmt_n+1]
}
```



- Multiple-way selectors
 - Can an appear as direct extensions to two-way selectors,
 using else-if clauses, for example in Python:

```
if count < 10 :
    bag1 = True

elif count < 100 :
    bag2 = True

elif count < 1000 :
    bag3 = True</pre>
```



```
#include <iostream>
     using namespace std;
     int main()
       int c;
        cout << "What grade are you in? "<< endl;</pre>
        cin >> c;
 11
 12 -
        switch(c) {
 13
        case 1:
 14
          cout << "Freshman! ";</pre>
 15
           break;
       case 2:
        cout << "Sophomore! ";</pre>
 18
       break;
 19
     case 3:
 20
       cout << "Junior! ";
 21
       break;
 22
     case 4:
 23
        cout << "Senior! ";</pre>
 24
        break;
 25
       default:
 26
            cout << "Hmmm... Experienced? :) ";</pre>
 27
            break;
 28
 29
        return 0;
 30 }
V 📝 🙎
```

What grade are you in? 2 Sophomore!

Iteration & Recursion

- *Iteration* and *recursion* allow to perform similar operations repeatedly.
- Iteration
 - -Programmers in imperative languages tend to use iteration
 - -More "natural" in imperative languages, because it is based on the repeated modification of variables
- Recursion
 - -More common in functional languages
 - -More "natural" in functional languages, because it does *not* change variables



- In most languages, iteration takes the form of *loops*.
- Two principal varieties of loops:
 - -Enumeration-Controlled Loops
 - "For every element of set"
 - Logically Controlled Loops
 - "While condition is true"



- Enumeration-Controlled Loops
 - Executed once for every value in a given finite set
 - The number of iterations is known before the first iteration begins
 - for loop (general term)

```
- for (i=0; i<5; i++) {
   // ... }</pre>
```

- for x in range(2, 6):
 print(x)



- Logically Controlled Loops
 - Executed until some Boolean condition (which must generally depend on values altered in the loop) changes value
 - while (condition)
 do statement (general)



```
• int i = 1;
  while (i < 6) {
     cout<<i<<endl;
     <u>i++;</u>
  int i = 0;
   do {
       System.out.println(i);
       <u>i++;</u>
    while (i < 10);
```



- Equally powerful to iteration
- Mechanical transformations back and forth
 - Functions can call themselves, or call other functions that then call them back in turn
- Is iteration more efficient than recursion?
 - "Naïve" implementation of iteration is usually more efficient than "naïve" implementation of recursion.
- As efficient in cases where you can use tail recursion



- Tail recursion
 - A tail-recursive function ends by the returning value of the recursive call
 - 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);
}
```

```
call f (3)
call 3 * f (2)
call 2 * f (1)
call 1 * f (0)
return 1
return 2
return 6
```

```
#include <iostream>
   using namespace std;
   int f (int n)
       if (n <= 0){
        return 1;
        return n*f(n-1);
   int main()
        cout \ll f(3) \ll endl;
18
19
        return 0;
20 }
```

- replace arguments with (3, 1)
- replace arguments with (2, 3)
- replace arguments with (1, 6)
- replace arguments with (0, 6)
- return 6

```
#include <iostream>
    using namespace std;
    int f_tail_recursion (int n, int i)
        if (n <= 0){
        return i;
13
        return f_tail_recursion(n-1, i*n);
14
    int main()
        cout << f_tail_recursion(3, 1) << endl;</pre>
18
        return 0;
```



References

- M. L. Scott, Programming Language Pragmatics (4th Edition), Morgan Kaufmann, 2016.
- R. W. Sebesta, Concepts of Programming Languages (11th Edition), Pearson, 2016.

