

CONCEPTS OF Programming Languages



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Chapter 7-8

Expressions, Assignment
Statements, Statement Level
Control Structures

Chapter 7 Topics

- Introduction
- Arithmetic Expressions
- Overloaded Operators
- Type Conversions
- Relational and Boolean Expressions
- Short-Circuit Evaluation
- Assignment Statements
- Mixed-Mode Assignment

Introduction

- Expressions are the fundamental means of specifying computations in a programming language
- To understand expression evaluation, need to be familiar with the orders of operator and operand evaluation
- Essence of imperative languages is dominant role of assignment statements

Arithmetic Expressions

- Arithmetic evaluation was one of the motivations for the development of the first programming languages
- Arithmetic expressions consist of operators, operands, parentheses, and function calls

Arithmetic Expressions: Design Issues

- Design issues for arithmetic expressions
 - Operator precedence rules?
 - Operator associativity rules?
 - Order of operand evaluation?
 - Operand evaluation side effects?
 - Operator overloading?
 - Type mixing in expressions?

Arithmetic Expressions: Operators

- A unary operator has one operand
- A binary operator has two operands
- A ternary operator has three operands

Arithmetic Expressions: Operator Precedence Rules

- The *operator precedence rules* for expression evaluation define the order in which “adjacent” operators of different precedence levels are evaluated
- Typical precedence levels
 - parentheses
 - unary operators
 - ****** (if the language supports it)
 - *****, **/**
 - **+**, **-**

Arithmetic Expressions: Operator Associativity Rule

- The *operator associativity rules* for expression evaluation define the order in which adjacent operators with the same precedence level are evaluated
- Typical associativity rules
 - Left to right, except **, which is right to left
 - Sometimes unary operators associate right to left (e.g., in FORTRAN)
- APL is different; all operators have equal precedence and all operators associate right to left
- Precedence and associativity rules can be overridden with parentheses

Expressions in Ruby and Scheme

- Ruby
 - All arithmetic, relational, and assignment operators, as well as array indexing, shifts, and bit-wise logic operators, are implemented as methods
 - One result of this is that these operators can all be overridden by application programs
- Scheme (and Common LISP)
 - All arithmetic and logic operations are by explicitly called subprograms
 - $a + b * c$ is coded as ¹⁻⁹ `(+ a (* b c))`



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Arithmetic Expressions: Conditional Expressions

- Conditional Expressions

- C-based languages (e.g., C, C++)
- An example:

```
average = (count == 0)? 0 : sum / count
```

- Evaluates as if written as follows:

```
if (count == 0)
    average = 0
else
    average = sum / count
```

Arithmetic Expressions: Operand Evaluation Order

- *Operand evaluation order*
 1. Variables: fetch the value from memory
 2. Constants: sometimes a fetch from memory; sometimes the constant is in the machine language instruction
 3. Parenthesized expressions: evaluate all operands and operators first
 4. The most interesting case is when an operand is a function call

Arithmetic Expressions: Potentials for Side Effects

- *Functional side effects*: when a function changes a two-way parameter or a non-local variable
- Problem with functional side effects:
 - When a function referenced in an expression alters another operand of the expression; e.g., for a parameter change:

```
a = 10;
```

```
/* assume that fun changes its parameter */
```

```
b = a + fun(&a);
```



Functional Side Effects

- Two possible solutions to the problem
 1. Write the language definition to disallow functional side effects
 - No two-way parameters in functions
 - No non-local references in functions
 - **Advantage:** it works!
 - **Disadvantage:** inflexibility of one-way parameters and lack of non-local references
 2. Write the language definition to demand that operand evaluation order be fixed
 - **Disadvantage:** limits some compiler optimizations
 - Java requires that operands appear to be evaluated in left-to-right order

Referential Transparency

- A program has the property of *referential transparency* if any two expressions in the program that have the same value can be substituted for one another anywhere in the program, without affecting the action of the program

```
result1 = (fun(a) + b) / (fun(a) - c);
```

```
temp = fun(a);
```

```
result2 = (temp + b) / (temp - c);
```

If `fun` has no side effects, `result1 = result2`

Otherwise, not, and referential transparency is violated

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Referential Transparency

(continued)

- Advantage of referential transparency
 - Semantics of a program is much easier to understand if it has referential transparency
- Because they do not have variables, programs in pure functional languages are referentially transparent
 - Functions cannot have state, which would be stored in local variables
 - If a function uses an outside value, it must be a constant (there are no variables). So, the value of a function depends only on its parameters

Overloaded Operators

- Use of an operator for more than one purpose is called *operator overloading*
- Some are common (e.g., + for `int` and `float`)
- Some are potential trouble (e.g., * in C and C++)
 - Loss of compiler error detection (omission of an operand should be a detectable error)
 - Some loss of readability

Overloaded Operators (continued)

- C++, C#, and F# allow user-defined overloaded operators
 - When sensibly used, such operators can be an aid to readability (avoid method calls, expressions appear natural)
 - Potential problems:
 - Users can define nonsense operations
 - Readability may suffer, even when the operators make sense

Type Conversions

- A *narrowing conversion* is one that converts an object to a type that cannot include all of the values of the original type
e.g., `float` to `int`
- A *widening conversion* is one in which an object is converted to a type that can include at least approximations to all of the values of the original type
e.g., `int` to `float`

Type Conversions: Mixed Mode

- A *mixed-mode expression* is one that has operands of different types
- A *coercion* is an implicit type conversion
- Disadvantage of coercions:
 - They decrease in the type error detection ability of the compiler
- In most languages, all numeric types are coerced in expressions, using widening conversions
- In Ada, there are virtually no coercions in expressions
- In ML and F#, there are no coercions in expressions



Explicit Type Conversions

- Called *casting* in C-based languages
- Examples
 - C: `(int) angle`
 - F#: `float(sum)`

Note that F#'s syntax is similar to that of function calls

Errors in Expressions

- Causes
 - Inherent limitations of arithmetic
e.g., division by zero
 - Limitations of computer arithmetic
e.g. overflow
- Often ignored by the run-time system

Relational and Boolean Expressions

- Relational Expressions
 - Use relational operators and operands of various types
 - Evaluate to some Boolean representation
 - Operator symbols used vary somewhat among languages (`!=`, `/=`, `~=`, `.NE.`, `<>`, `#`)
- JavaScript and PHP have two additional relational operator, `===` and `!==`
 - Similar to their cousins, `==` and `!=`, except that they do not coerce their operands
 - Ruby uses `==` for equality relation operator that uses coercions and `eq?` for those that do not

Relational and Boolean Expressions

Relational and Boolean Expressions

- Boolean Expressions
 - Operands are Boolean and the result is Boolean
 - Example operators
- C89 has no Boolean type--it uses `int` type with 0 for false and nonzero for true
- One odd characteristic of C's expressions: `a < b < c` is a legal expression, but the result is not what you might expect:
 - Left operator is evaluated, producing 0 or 1
 - The evaluation result is then compared with the third operand (i.e., `c`)

Short Circuit Evaluation

- An expression in which the result is determined without evaluating all of the operands and/or operators

- Example: $(13 * a) * (b / 13 - 1)$

If a is zero, there is no need to evaluate $(b / 13 - 1)$

- Problem with non-short-circuit evaluation

```
index = 0;
```

```
while (index <= length) && (LIST[index] != value)
```

```
    index++;
```

- When $\text{index} = \text{length}$, $\text{LIST}[\text{index}]$ will cause an indexing problem (assuming LIST is $\text{length} - 1$ long)



Short Circuit Evaluation (continued)

- C, C++, and Java: use short-circuit evaluation for the usual Boolean operators (`&&` and `||`), but also provide bitwise Boolean operators that are not short circuit (`&` and `|`)
- All logic operators in Ruby, Perl, ML, F#, and Python are short-circuit evaluated
- Ada: programmer can specify either (short-circuit is specified with **`and then`** and **`or else`**)
- Short-circuit evaluation exposes the potential problem of side effects in expressions
e.g. `(a > b) || (b++ / 3)`

Assignment Statements

- The general syntax

`<target_var> <assign_operator> <expression>`

- The assignment operator

`=` Fortran, BASIC, the C-based languages

`:=` Ada

- `=` can be bad when it is overloaded for the relational operator for equality (that's why the C-based languages use `==` as the relational operator)

Assignment Statements: Conditional Targets

- Conditional targets (Perl)

```
($flag ? $total : $subtotal) = 0
```

Which is equivalent to

```
if ($flag) {  
    $total = 0  
} else {  
    $subtotal = 0  
}
```

Assignment Statements: Compound Assignment Operators

- A shorthand method of specifying a commonly needed form of assignment
- Introduced in ALGOL; adopted by C and the C-based languages
 - Example

$a = a + b$

can be written as

$a += b$

Assignment Statements: Unary Assignment Operators

- Unary assignment operators in C-based languages combine increment and decrement operations with assignment
- Examples

`sum = ++count` (count incremented, then assigned to sum)

`sum = count++` (count assigned to sum, then incremented)

`count++` (count incremented)

`-count++` (count incremented then negated)



Assignment as an Expression

- In the C-based languages, Perl, and JavaScript, the assignment statement produces a result and can be used as an operand

```
while ((ch = getchar()) != EOF) {...}
```

`ch = getchar()` is carried out; the result (assigned to `ch`) is used as a conditional value for the `while` statement

- Disadvantage: another kind of expression side effect

Multiple Assignments

- Perl, Ruby, and Lua allow multiple-target multiple-source assignments

```
($first, $second, $third) = (20, 30, 40);
```

Also, the following is legal and performs an interchange:

```
($first, $second) = ($second, $first);
```


Assignment in Functional Languages

- Identifiers in functional languages are only names of values
- ML
 - Names are bound to values with `val`

```
val fruit = apples + oranges;
```
 - If another `val` for `fruit` follows, it is a new and different name
- F#
 - F#'s `let` is like ML's `val`, except `let` also creates a new scope¹⁻³³

Mixed-Mode Assignment

- Assignment statements can also be mixed-mode
- In Fortran, C, Perl, and C++, any numeric type value can be assigned to any numeric type variable
- In Java and C#, only widening assignment coercions are done
- In Ada, there is no assignment coercion

Summary

- Expressions
- Operator precedence and associativity
- Operator overloading
- Mixed-type expressions
- Various forms of assignment

Chapter 8 Topics

- Introduction
- Selection Statements
- Iterative Statements
- Unconditional Branching
- Guarded Commands
- Conclusions

Levels of Control Flow

- Within expressions (Chapter 7)
- Among program units (Chapter 9)
- Among program statements (this chapter)

Control Statements: Evolution

- FORTRAN I control statements were based directly on IBM 704 hardware
- Much research and argument in the 1960s about the issue
 - One important result: It was proven that all algorithms represented by flowcharts can be coded with only two-way selection and pretest logical loops

Control Structure

- A *control structure* is a control statement and the statements whose execution it controls
- Design question
 - Should a control structure have multiple entries?

Selection Statements

- 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 Selection Statements

- General form:

```
if control_expression
    then clause
    else clause
```

- Design Issues:

- What is the form and type of the control expression?
- How are the **then** and **else** clauses specified?
- How should the meaning of nested selectors be specified?

The Control Expression

- If the then reserved word or some other syntactic marker is not used to introduce the then clause, the control expression is placed in parentheses
- In C89, C99, Python, and C++, the control expression can be arithmetic
- In most other languages, the control expression must be Boolean

Clause Form

- In many contemporary languages, the then and else clauses can be single statements or compound statements
- In Perl, all clauses must be delimited by braces (they must be compound)
- In Fortran 95, Ada, Python, and Ruby, clauses are statement sequences
- Python uses indentation to define clauses

```
if x > y :  
    x = y  
    print "x was greater than y"
```

Nesting Selectors

- Java example

```
if (sum == 0)
    if (count == 0)
        result = 0;
    else result = 1;
```

- Which `if` gets the `else`?
- Java's static semantics rule: `else` matches with the nearest previous `if`

Nesting Selectors (continued)

- To force an alternative semantics, compound statements may be used:

```
if (sum == 0) {  
    if (count == 0)  
        result = 0;  
}  
else result = 1;
```

- The above solution is used in C, C++, and C#

Nesting Selectors (continued)

- Statement sequences as clauses: Ruby

```
if sum == 0 then  
  if count == 0 then  
    result = 0  
  else  
    result = 1  
  end  
end
```

Nesting Selectors (continued)

- Python

```
if sum == 0 :  
    if count == 0 :  
        result = 0  
    else :  
        result = 1
```

Selector Expressions

- In ML, F#, and LISP, the selector is an expression
- F#

```
let y =  
    if x > 0 then x  
    else 2 * x
```

- If the `if` expression returns a value, there must be an `else` clause (the expression could produce output, rather than a value)

Multiple-Way Selection Statements

- Allow the selection of one of any number of statements or statement groups
- Design Issues:
 1. What is the form and type of the control expression?
 2. How are the selectable segments specified?
 3. Is execution flow through the structure restricted to include just a single selectable segment?
 4. How are case values specified?
 5. What is done about unrepresented expression values?

Multiple-Way Selection: Examples

- C, C++, Java, and JavaScript

```
switch (expression) {  
    case const_expr1: stmt1;  
    ...  
    case const_exprn: stmtn;  
    [default: stmtn+1]  
}
```

Multiple-Way Selection: Examples

- Design choices for C's **switch** statement
 1. Control expression can be only an integer type
 2. Selectable segments can be statement sequences, blocks, or compound statements
 3. Any number of segments can be executed in one execution of the construct (*there is no implicit branch at the end of selectable segments*)
 4. **default** clause is for unrepresented values (if there is no **default**, the whole statement does nothing)

Multiple-Way Selection: Examples

- C#
 - Differs from C in that it has a static semantics rule that disallows the implicit execution of more than one segment
 - Each selectable segment must end with an unconditional branch (`goto` or `break`)
 - Also, in C# the control expression and the case constants can be strings

Multiple-Way Selection: Examples

- Ruby has two forms of case statements—we'll cover only one

```
leap = case  
  when year % 400 == 0 then true  
  when year % 100 == 0 then false  
  else year % 4 == 0  
end
```

Implementing Multiple Selectors

- Approaches:
 - Multiple conditional branches
 - Store case values in a table and use a linear search of the table
 - When there are more than ten cases, a hash table of case values can be used
 - If the number of cases is small and more than half of the whole range of case values are represented, an array whose indices are the case values and whose values are the case labels can be used

Multiple-Way Selection Using **if**

- Multiple Selectors can 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
```

Multiple-Way Selection Using **if**

- The Python example can be written as a Ruby `case`

`case`

`when count < 10 then bag1 = true`

`when count < 100 then bag2 = true`

`when count < 1000 then bag3 = true`

`end`

Scheme's Multiple Selector

- General form of a call to COND:

(COND

(predicate₁ expression₁)

...

(predicate_n expression_n)

[(ELSE expression_{n+1})]

)

- The ELSE clause is optional; ELSE is a synonym for true
- Each predicate-expression pair is a parameter
- Semantics: The value of the evaluation of COND is the value of the expression associated with the first predicate expression that is true

Iterative Statements

- The repeated execution of a statement or compound statement is accomplished either by iteration or recursion
- General design issues for iteration control statements:
 1. How is iteration controlled?
 2. Where is the control mechanism in the loop?

Counter-Controlled Loops

- A counting iterative statement has a loop variable, and a means of specifying the *initial* and *terminal*, and *stepsize* values
- Design Issues:
 1. What are the type and scope of the loop variable?
 2. Should it be legal for the loop variable or loop parameters to be changed in the loop body, and if so, does the change affect loop control?
 3. Should the loop parameters be evaluated only once, or once for every iteration?

Counter-Controlled Loops: Examples

- Ada

```
for var in [reverse] discrete_range  
loop  
    ...  
end loop
```

- Design choices:

- Type of the loop variable is that of the discrete range (A discrete range is a sub-range of an integer or enumeration type).
- Loop variable does not exist outside the loop
- The loop variable cannot be changed in the loop, but the discrete range can; it does not affect loop control
- The discrete range is evaluated just once
 - Cannot branch into the loop body



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Counter-Controlled Loops: Examples

- C-based languages

for ([expr_1] ; [expr_2] ; [expr_3]) statement

- The expressions can be whole statements, or even statement sequences, with the statements separated by commas
 - The value of a multiple-statement expression is the value of the last statement in the expression
 - If the second expression is absent, it is an infinite loop

- Design choices:

- There is no explicit loop variable
- Everything can be changed in the loop
- The first expression is evaluated once, but the other two are evaluated with each iteration
- It is legal to branch into the body of a for loop in C



Counter-Controlled Loops: Examples

- C++ differs from C in two ways:
 1. The control expression can also be Boolean
 2. The initial expression can include variable definitions (scope is from the definition to the end of the loop body)
- Java and C#
 - Differs from C++ in that the control expression must be Boolean

Counter-Controlled Loops: Examples

- Python

`for loop_variable in object:`

- loop body

`[else:`

- else clause]

- The object is often a range, which is either a list of values in brackets (`[2, 4, 6]`), or a call to the range function (`range(5)`), which returns 0, 1, 2, 3, 4
- The loop variable takes on the values specified in the given range, one for each iteration
- The else clause, which is optional, is executed if the loop terminates normally



Counter-Controlled Loops: Examples

- **F#**

- Because counters require variables, and functional languages do not have variables, counter-controlled loops must be simulated with recursive functions

```
let rec forLoop loopBody reps =  
    if reps <= 0 then ()  
    else  
        loopBody()  
        forLoop loopBody, (reps - 1)
```

- This defines the recursive function `forLoop` with the parameters `loopBody` (a function that defines the loop's body) and the number of repetitions
- `()` means do nothing and return nothing

Logically-Controlled Loops

- Repetition control is based on a Boolean expression
- Design issues:
 - Pretest or posttest?
 - Should the logically controlled loop be a special case of the counting loop statement or a separate statement?

Logically-Controlled Loops: Examples

- C and C++ have both pretest and posttest forms, in which the control expression can be arithmetic:

while (control_expr)	do
loop body	loop body
	while (control_expr)

- In both C and C++ it is legal to branch into the body of a logically-controlled loop
- Java is like C and C++, except the control expression must be Boolean (and the body can only be entered at the beginning -- Java has no `goto`)

Logically-Controlled Loops: Examples

- F#
 - As with counter-controlled loops, logically-controlled loops can be simulated with recursive functions

```
let rec whileLoop test body =  
    if test() then  
        body()  
        whileLoop test body  
    else ()
```

- This defines the recursive function `whileLoop` with parameters `test` and `body`, both functions. `test` defines the control expression



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User-Located Loop Control Mechanisms

- Sometimes it is convenient for the programmers to decide a location for loop control (other than top or bottom of the loop)
- Simple design for single loops (e.g., `break`)
- Design issues for nested loops
 1. Should the conditional be part of the exit?
 2. Should control be transferable out of more than one loop?

User-Located Loop Control Mechanisms

- C , C++, Python, Ruby, and C# have unconditional unlabeled exits (`break`)
- Java and Perl have unconditional labeled exits (`break` in Java, `last` in Perl)
- C, C++, and Python have an unlabeled control statement, `continue`, that skips the remainder of the current iteration, but does not exit the loop
- Java and Perl have labeled versions of `continue`

Iteration Based on Data Structures

- The number of elements in a data structure controls loop iteration
- Control mechanism is a call to an *iterator* function that returns the next element in some chosen order, if there is one; else loop is terminate
- C's `for` can be used to build a user-defined iterator:

```
for (p=root; p!=NULL; traverse(p)) {  
    ...  
}
```

Iteration Based on Data Structures (continued)

- **PHP**
 - `current` points at one element of the array
 - `next` moves `current` to the next element
 - `reset` moves `current` to the first element
- **Java 5.0** (uses `for`, although it is called `foreach`)

For arrays and any other class that implements the `Iterable` interface, e.g., `ArrayList`

```
for (String myElement : myList) { ... }
```

Iteration Based on Data Structures (continued)

- C# and F# (and the other .NET languages) have generic library classes, like Java 5.0 (for arrays, lists, stacks, and queues). Can iterate over these with the `foreach` statement. User-defined collections can implement the `IEnumerator` interface and also use `foreach`.

```
List<String> names = new List<String>();  
names.Add("Bob");  
names.Add("Carol");  
names.Add("Ted");  
foreach (Strings name in names)  
    Console.WriteLine ("Name: {0}", name);
```


Iteration Based on Data Structures (continued)

- Ruby *blocks* are sequences of code, delimited by either braces or **do** and **end**

- Blocks can be used with methods to create iterators
- Predefined iterator methods (`times`, `each`, `upto`):

```
3.times {puts "Hey!"}
```

```
list.each {|value| puts value}
```

(`list` is an array; `value` is a block parameter)

```
1.upto(5) {|x| print x, " "}
```

- Ruby has a **for** statement, but Ruby converts them to `upto` method calls



Iteration Based on Data Structures (continued)

- Ada
 - Ada allows the range of a loop iterator and the subscript range of an array be connected

```
subtype MyRange is Integer range 0..99;  
MyArray: array (MyRange) of Integer;  
for Index in MyRange loop  
    ...MyArray(Index) ...  
end loop;
```

Unconditional Branching

- Transfers execution control to a specified place in the program
- Represented one of the most heated debates in 1960's and 1970's
- Major concern: Readability
- Some languages do not support `goto` statement (e.g., Java)
- C# offers `goto` statement (can be used in `switch` statements)
- Loop exit statements are restricted and somewhat camouflaged `goto`'s

Guarded Commands

- Designed by Dijkstra
- Purpose: to support a new programming methodology that supported verification (correctness) during development
- Basis for two linguistic mechanisms for concurrent programming (in CSP and Ada)
- Basic Idea: if the order of evaluation is not important, the program should not specify one

Selection Guarded Command

- Form

```
if <Boolean expr> -> <statement>  
[ ] <Boolean expr> -> <statement>  
...  
[ ] <Boolean expr> -> <statement>  
fi
```

- Semantics: when construct is reached,
 - Evaluate all Boolean expressions
 - If more than one are true, choose one non-deterministically
 - If none are true, it is a runtime error

Loop Guarded Command

- **Form**

do <Boolean> -> <statement>

[] <Boolean> -> <statement>

...

[] <Boolean> -> <statement>

od

- **Semantics: for each iteration**

- Evaluate all Boolean expressions
- If more than one are true, choose one non-deterministically; then start loop again
- If none are true, exit loop

Guarded Commands: Rationale

- Connection between control statements and program verification is intimate
- Verification is impossible with `goto` statements
- Verification is possible with only selection and logical pretest loops
- Verification is relatively simple with only guarded commands

Conclusions

- Variety of statement-level structures
- Choice of control statements beyond selection and logical pretest loops is a trade-off between language size and writability
- Functional and logic programming languages use quite different control structures