



Control

Contents

• Simple statements	245
• Basic structured statements	245
• Sequence	247
• Selection	248
• Iteration	253
• Jump	258
• Guarded commands	259

පරිවර්තනය කිරීම

Simple statements

(in imperative languages)

assignment, empty statement,
procedure call, jump, exit,
compound statement (yes, in context!).

Structured statements

There are three fundamental and indispensable mechanisms for arranging simple statements:

- sequence (**begin-end**) compound statement
- selection (**if-then-else**) conditional statement
- iteration (**while-do**) loop statement

They are used to build structured statements.

All other structuring mechanisms can be easily derived from the basic three mechanisms:

if C then S \equiv if C then S else null

repeat S until C $\equiv S$; while $\neg C$ do S

for $i := lo$ to hi do $S \equiv$
 $i := lo$; while $i \leq hi$ do
 begin S ; $i := succ(i)$ end

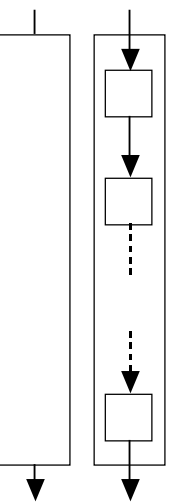
case i of
 $C_1: S_1$ $\dots \dots \dots \equiv$
 if $i = C_1$ then S_1 else $\dots \dots \dots$

and so on.

Sequence

- Algol, Pascal, Ada, ... begin ... end
(there also are blocks)
 - C { ... }
 - Fortran (older) nothing
 - Prolog implicit
 - a :- b, c, d.
- Evaluate (execute) b, then c, then d.

A compound statement **begin ... end** is treated syntactically as a simple statement. This is an important abstraction principle.



The inner structure can be “abstracted away”.

begin and end are syntactic brackets. In Algol 68 there are pairs if-fi, do-od, case-esac etc.

Selection

if C then S1 else S2 Pascal

A possible ambiguity of

if C1 then if C2 then S1 else S2
is resolved in Pascal by the nearest-then rule:

if C1 then begin if C2 then S1 else S2 end

if C then *single-S1* else S2 Algol 60

No ambiguity is possible:

if C1 then if C2 then S1 else S2
would be syntactically incorrect.

if C then S1 else S2 end Modula-2

No ambiguity—one of these must be used:

if C1 then if C2 then S1 else S2 end end

if C1 then if C2 then S1 end else S2 end

if C then S1 else S2 end if Ada

Nested selection in Ada:

if C1 then S1 elsif C2 then S2

..... elsif Cn then Sn

else Sn+1 end if

Special forms of selection

Computed goto in Fortran: primitive.

GO TO ($label_1$, \dots , $label_n$), $expression$

Assigned goto in Fortran: peculiar.

ASSIGN $label_i$ TO $variable$

GO TO $variable$ ($label_1$, \dots , $label_n$)

Switch statement in C: similar to computed goto.

```
switch ( $expression$ ) {
```

```
  case  $const_1$ :  $S_1$ ;
```

```
  ...
```

```
  case  $const_n$ :  $S_n$ ;
```

```
  default:  $S_{n+1}$ ;
```

After S_i has been executed, control "falls through" to the subsequent case: S_{i+1} is executed next. This can be avoided by adding break statements:

```
switch ( $expression$ ) {
```

```
  case  $const_1$ :  $S_1$ ; break;
```

```
  ...
```

```
  case  $const_n$ :  $S_n$ ; break;
```

```
  default:  $S_{n+1}$ ;
```

Case statement in Pascal: cases are separate.

```
case  $expression$  of
```

```
   $constList_1$ :  $S_1$ ;
```

```
  ...
```

```
   $constList_n$ :  $S_n$ ;
```

```
  else  $S_{n+1}$ 
```

```
end
```

Case statement in Ada is similar.

```
case  $expression$  is
```

```
  when  $constList_1$  =>  $S_1$ ;
```

```
  ...
```

```
  when  $constList_n$  =>  $S_n$ ;
```

```
  when others =>  $S_{n+1}$ ;
```

```
end case;
```

Selection in Prolog is driven by success-failure, not by truth-falsity. It is implicit in backtracking.

```
eat_or_drink(Stuff) :-
```

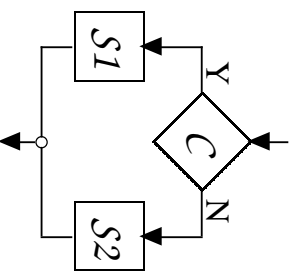
```
  solid(Stuff), eat(Stuff).
```

```
eat_or_drink(Stuff) :-
```

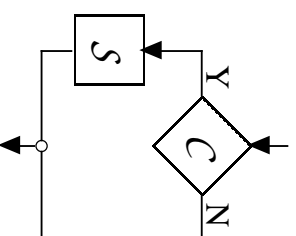
```
  liquid(Stuff), drink(Stuff).
```

Graphical representation of selection: flowgraphs
(flow diagrams, flowcharts)

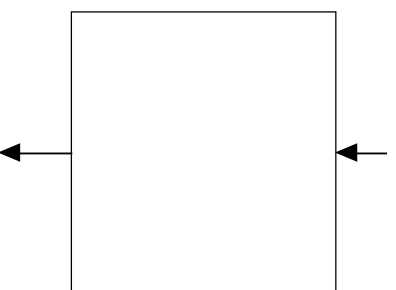
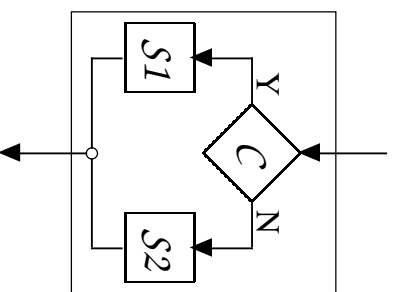
if-then-else



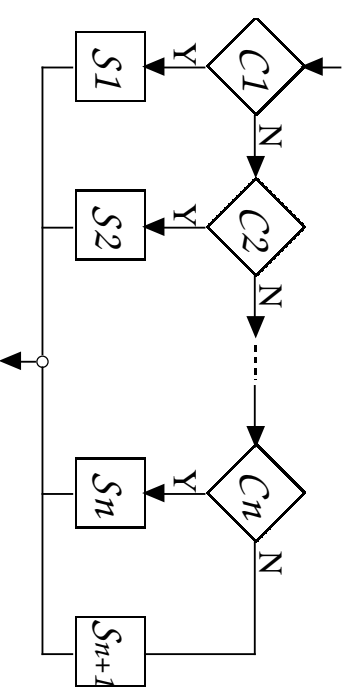
if-then



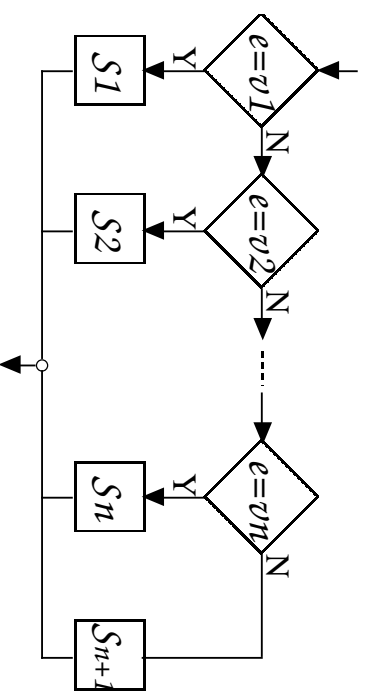
The abstraction principle:
begin if C then $S1$ else $S2$ end
is a simple statement.



if-then-elseif-then-...-else



case e of $v1$: $S1$; ... else S_{n+1} end



Iteration

Variations: pretest iteration or posttest iteration.

while C do S Pascal

repeat S until C

while ($expr$) S ; C

do S while ($expr$);

while C loop S end loop; Ada

no posttest iteration

In Ada, the prefix while C is an extension of the basic iterative statement:

loop S end loop;

Another prefix: for i in $range$

The bare loop statement must be stopped from inside the loop.

Forced exit closes the nearest iteration:

exit; -- no conditions
exit when C ;

The while prefix is an abbreviation:

while C loop S end loop;

is equivalent to

loop
 exit when not C ;
 S
end loop;

☒ Example of use of exit: sum up non-zero data.

<pre>SUM := 0; loop get(X); exit when X = 0; SUM := SUM + X; end loop; put (SUM);</pre>	<pre>SUM := 0; get(X); while X /= 0 loop SUM := SUM + X; get(X); end loop; put (SUM);</pre>
---	---

Simpler, more intuitive.

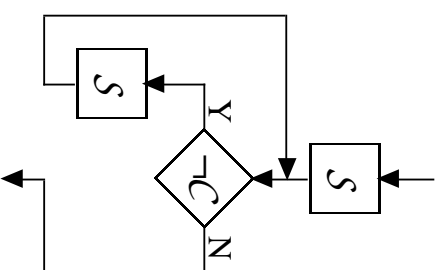
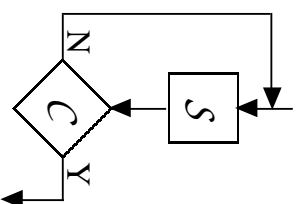
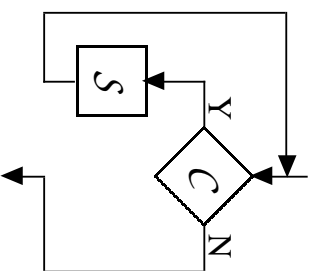
Condition reversed,
get appears twice.

Graphical representation of iteration

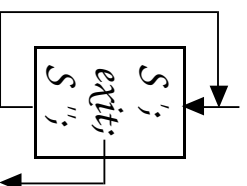
while-do

repeat-
until

repeat-
until



loop-end loop



For-loops ("counter-controlled") are historically earlier and less general than condition-controlled iterative structures.

DO *label var* = *lo*, *hi*

Fortran

...
label CONTINUE

DO *label var* = *lo*, *hi*, *incr*

for *var* := *expr* do *S*

Algol 60

for *var* := *lo* step *incr* until *hi* do *S*

for *var* := *expr* while *C* do *S*

Iterators can be combined:

for *i* := 0, *i*+1 while *i* ≤ *n* do *S*(*i*)

for *var* := *lo* to *hi* do *S*

Pascal

for *var* in *range*

Ada

loop *S* end loop;

for *var* in reverse *range*

loop *S* end loop;

for (*expr1*; *expr2*; *expr3*) *S*; C

This is equivalent to the following:

```
expr1;
while (expr2) { S; expr3; }
```

A typical application: *expr1* initializes a variable, *expr2* uses it and *expr3* increments it.

```
for (i = 0; i <= n ; i++) S(i);
```

Default *expr2* to "true". This is "loop *S* end loop";

```
for ( ;; ) S;
```

Iteration in Prolog is expressed by recursion. The same, by the way, can be done in Pascal etc.:

```
procedure iter(C: boolean; S: procedure) is
begin if C then S; iter(C, S); end if; end;
```

One Prolog example:

```
printlist([E | ES]) :-
    write(E), printlist(ES).
printlist([]) :-
    nl.
```

(The same effect is achieved if the order of clauses is inverted.)

Jump (the goto statement)

Unconstrained transfer of control is the only mechanism available in low-level languages. One-way selection and goto are all we need to express every other control structure.

The mechanism is dangerous, hurt readability, and should be avoided—advanced control structures work well for all typical and less typical uses.

Some languages restrict goto (e.g. do not allow jumps into an iteration or selection) and make it a pain to use it. Ada requires each label to be visible from far away, for all managers to see 😊:

```
sum := 0;
loop
    get(x);
    if x = 0 then goto DONE; end if;
    sum := sum + x;
end loop;
<<DONE>>
put(sum);
```

goto may leave “unfinished business”—active control structures that must be “folded” at once.

Guarded commands

A very general form of selection is Dijkstra's `if` with guarded commands (a guard is a boolean expression):

```

if
  guard1 → statements1
  guard2 → statements2
  . . .
  guardk → statementsk
fi
  
```

Evaluate all guards in parallel, choose any true guard, execute its statements. If more than one guard is true, the choice is non-deterministic.

It is an execution *error* not to find any true guards.

☒ This has “overlapping” guards:

```

if X ≤ Y → Max := Y
  X ≥ Y → Max := X
fi
  
```

A very general form of iteration is Dijkstra's `do` with guarded commands (again, boxes \square are used to separate guard-statements pairs):

```

do
  guard1 → statements1
  guard2 → statements2
  . . .
  guardm → statementsm
od
  
```

Repeat this: evaluate all guards in parallel, choose any true guard (perhaps non-deterministically), execute its statements. Terminate the loop if none of the guards is true.

☒ X, Y are integer variables with non-negative values. The loop terminates when $X = Y$.

```

do X ≠ Y →
  if X < Y → Y := Y - X
    X > Y → X := X - Y
  fi
od
  
```

