## Control Structure

Programming Language Theory

# Topics

- Control Structure
  - Expressions and Their Evaluation
  - Statement
  - Control Flow and Recursion

# Expressions

## Expression

- An Expression is a syntactic entity whose evaluation either produces a
  value or undefined (which fails to terminate).
- Expressions are one of the basic components of every programming language.
- Although there are languages such as functional languages which do not have statements, expressions exist in every language.

# How to Represent?

Operator and Operands.

```
• x + y, b - 1, f(3) >= 0
```

- Prefix, Infix, Postfix notations.
  - Based on the location of operators,
  - fix> ::= <op><prefix><prefix>|...
  - <infix> ::= <infix><op><infix> | ...
  - <postfix> ::= <postfix><postfix><op>| ...

## Notations

- Consider mathematical equation: a + b \* c + d
- Infix Notation: (a + b) \* (c + d)
- Prefix Notation: \* + a b + c d Also called prefix Polish notation.
  - or (\* (+ a b) (+ c d)) Cambridge Polish notation, puts operators inside parentheses.
- Postfix Notation
  - ab+cd+\*

## Semantics

- The semantics of expressions (or how they are evaluated) can be changed according to notations.
- For instance, infix expressions without parentheses may cause ambiguity in its evaluation.
  - a + b \* c + d
  - a + (b \* c) + d? or (a + b) \* (b + c)?
- With *Infix Notation*, we need to consider *Precedence* and *Associativity* of operators.

### Precedence

- Operator Precedence decides which operators should be considered first.
- We need to define such precedence to make evaluation of expression match to our intuition.
  - For 1 + 2 \* 3, we want its value to be 7, not 9.

• 
$$1 + (2 * 3) = 7 \text{ vs.} (1 + 2) * 3 = 9$$

So we need precedence rules to prevent such cases.

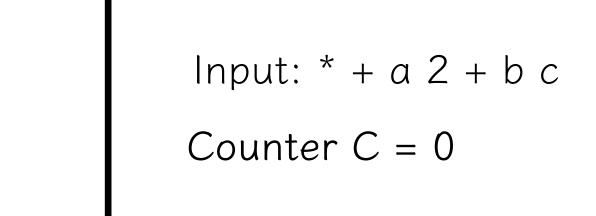
# Associativity

- However, precedence is not enough to correctly evaluate expressions.
- We also need to consider *operator associativity*, tells us how an operator associates with its operands.
  - 10 5 3
    - (10 5) 3 = 2 vs. 10 (5 3) = 8
- Most of arithmetic operators associate from left to right,
  - but there is a case like exponentiation,
  - $5^{32} = 5^3 2 \rightarrow 5^3$

## Precedence and Associativity

- Most languages have intuitive precedence and associativity.
- We need to carefully consider them when writing code.
- If you have any suspicion, use parentheses to clarify your intention.
  - $(1 + 2) * 3, (10 5) 3, (5^3)^2$

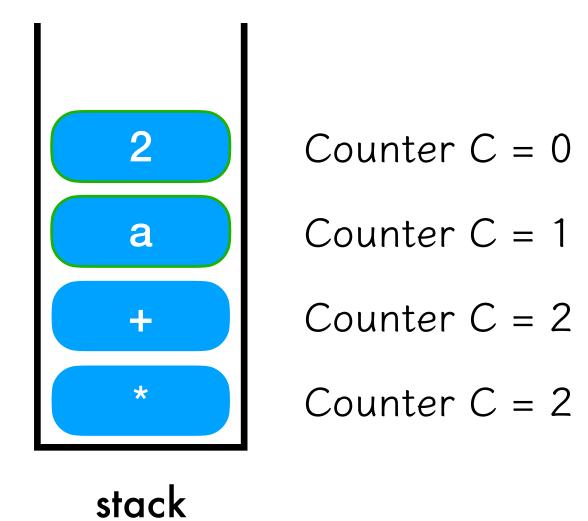
- Unlike infix notations, prefix notation has no such ambiguity, if we know the *arity* (# of operands) of an operator.
- We can consider a simple algorithm to evaluate prefix expressions with a stack and a counter.
  - \* + a 2 + b c
  - a = 1, b = 2, c = 3



- Counter C = 0.
- Push each symbol to a stack.
  - If it is an operator, update C with the arity.
  - Each operand symbol, decrease C.
  - If C = 0, apply operator and store the result R to the stack, then delete evaluated symbols.
  - Update C for new operator.

$$a = 1, b = 2, c = 3$$
  
Input: \* + a 2 + b c

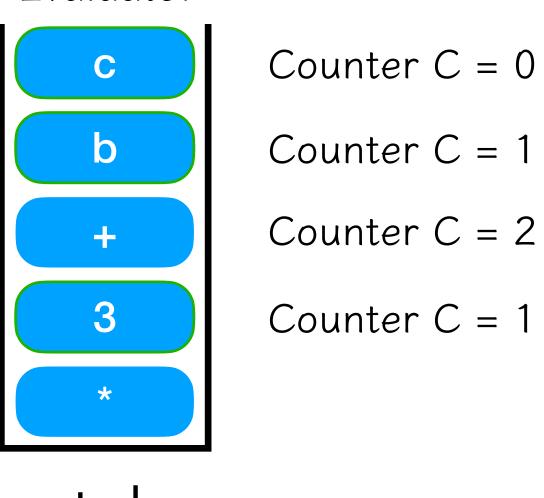
#### Evaluate!



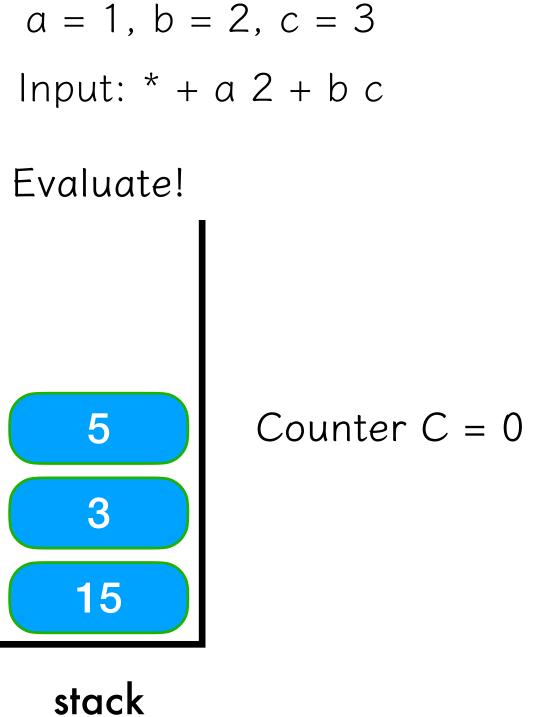
- Counter C = 0.
- Push each symbol to a stack.
  - If it is an operator, update C with the arity.
  - Each operand symbol, decrease C.
  - If C = 0, apply operator and store the result R to the stack, then delete evaluated symbols.
  - Update C for new operator.

$$a = 1, b = 2, c = 3$$
  
Input: \* + a 2 + b c

#### Evaluate!



- Counter C = 0.
- Push each symbol to a stack.
  - If it is an operator, update C with the arity.
  - Each operand symbol, decrease C.
  - If C = 0, apply operator and store the result R to the stack, then delete evaluated symbols.
  - Update C for new operator.



### Postfix Notation

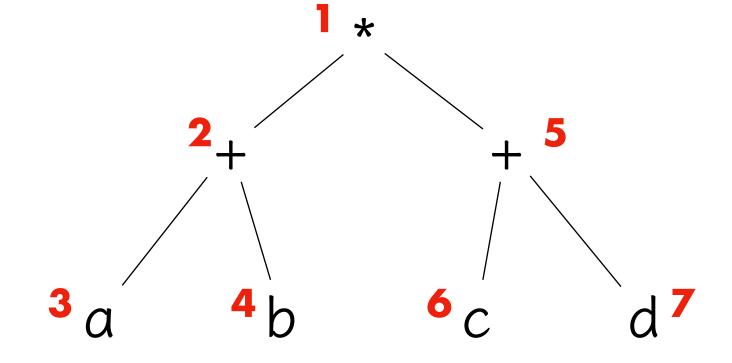
- In postfix notation, it is even simpler.
- We can read symbols from left to right, and every time we meet an operator, apply it to previous symbols based on its arity.

• 
$$ab + cd + *, a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4$$

• 
$$\underline{ab} + cd + * \rightarrow 3\underline{cd} + * \rightarrow 37* \rightarrow 21$$

# Using Syntax Tree

- We can also parse an expression into a syntax tree, then consider it with different traversal orders.
  - Non-leaf nodes are operators,
  - leaf nodes are operands.
- a + b \* c + d



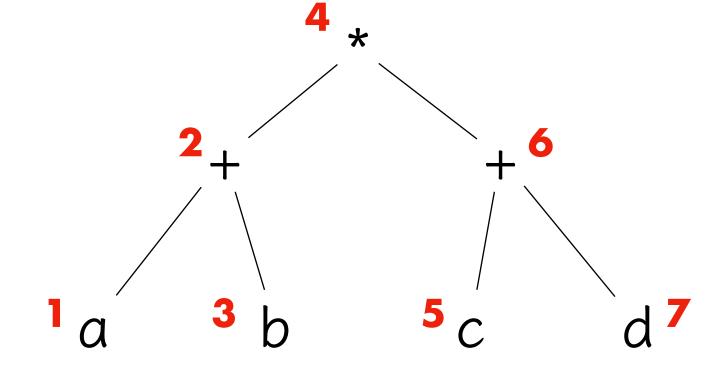
Pre-order 
$$* + a b + c d$$

In-order

Post-order

# Using Syntax Tree

- We can also parse an expression into a syntax tree, then consider it with different traversal orders.
  - Non-leaf nodes are operators,
  - leaf nodes are operands.
- a + b \* c + d

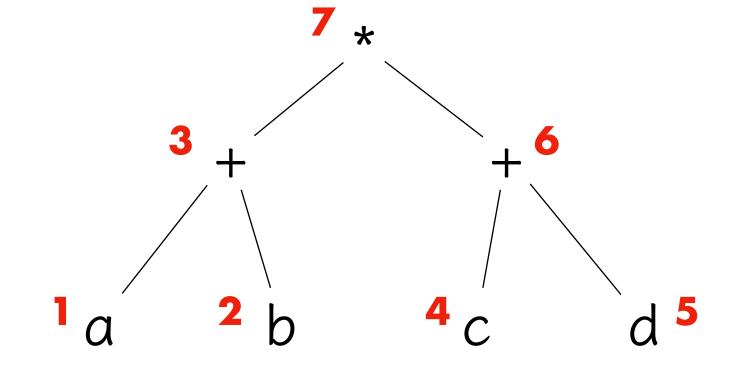


In-order 
$$a + b * c + d$$

Post-order

# Using Syntax Tree

- We can also parse an expression into a syntax tree, then consider it with different traversal orders.
  - Non-leaf nodes are operators,
  - leaf nodes are operands.
- a + b \* c + d



Pre-order 
$$* + a b + c d$$
In-order  $a + b * c + d$ 
Post-order  $a b + c d + *$ 

## Expression Evaluation

- In mathematics, a b + c and a + c b do not have different results they are mathematically equivalent.
- However, in PL expressions, such Subexpression Evaluation Order can actually modify the result.
- Hence we have to consider subexpression evaluation order.
- There are several reasons why we should be careful.

## Side Effect

• In imperative languages, it is possible that evaluation itself modifies the value of a variable through side effect.

• 
$$(a + b++) * (c + b--)$$

• 
$$(a + f(b)) * (c + f(d))$$

 A component of a program has a side effect if it modifies the state of a program by execution.

## Finite Arithmetic

- Numbers represented in a computer are *finite*.
- e.g.) In C, we have different integer types such as short, int, and long, which can represent different range of integers.
- If the result of a computation (or evaluation of a subexpression) exceeds the boundaries, there will be overflow or underflow.
  - $a-b+c \rightarrow (a-b)+c \ vs. \ (a+c)-b, \ b > c$
  - In computer there might be a problem for the latter, if (a+c) is out of range, while the former can be OK due to (a-b).

# Undefined Operands

- Two strategies of Operator Application: eager evaluation or lazy evaluation.
- Eager evaluation first computes all subexpressions, then apply operators.
- Lazy evaluation decides the evaluation of a subexpression later.
  - a == 0?  $b : b/a \rightarrow$  "b over a" means "a divided by b".
  - If we evaluate all the operands first, it will cause an error while evaluating b/a, since *divide by 0 is undefined*.
  - But it is okay if we only evaluate an operand which need to be evaluated  $\alpha == 0$ , then b or  $\alpha != 0$  then b/a.

# Short-circuiting

- Short-circuiting is a technique to only evaluate a partial expression when the other is not required to be evaluated.
  - if(str!= null && str.length() > 0) ...
  - If str != null is not satisfied, we don't need to evaluate str.length().
  - Actually, evaluating str.length() before str != null will cause a problem.

# Code Optimization

• The subexpression evaluation order may affect the efficiency of evaluation itself, considering code optimization.

```
• a = array[i];

b = a*a + c/d;
```

- As you may already know, value of a should be read from the memory.
- Hence it might be more efficient to evaluate c/d first.

## Statements

### Statement

- A Statement is a syntactic entity whose evaluation doesn't necessarily return a value, but can have a side effect.
- Statements are not present in all programming languages, but they are typically used by *Imperative Languages*.
- By executing (or evaluating) statements, we can keep changing a program's state.
  - e.g.) print("Hello World!")

## Ambiguity in Definition

- We used the term "evaluation", which is not precisely and exactly defined, to define expression and statement.
- In different languages, an expression may have a side-effect, and a statement can have a return value.
  - In C, an assignment modifies the value of a variable, as well as returns the value.
- The key distinction is that when the state is fixed before the evaluation,
  - the result of expression evaluation is a value,
  - while the result of statement evaluation is change of the state.

## The Concept of Variable

- In programming languages, two models of variables are employed.
- Modifiable Variable
  - A variable is considered as a container or location, which stores a value.
  - The value is "modifiable", by executing assignments.
- Reference Model
  - A variable is considered as a reference to a value stored in the memory, not a container of a value.

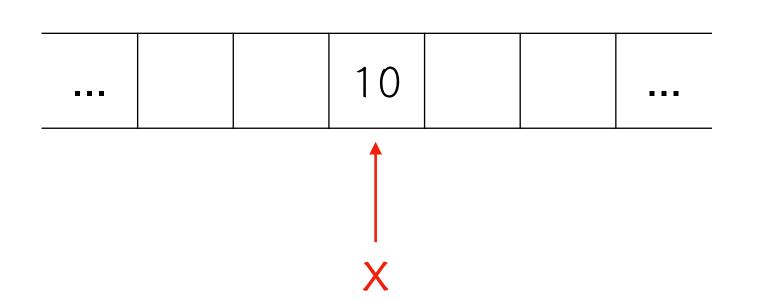
# The Concept of Variable

- In modifiable variable, a variable itself is a container.
- In reference model, a variable is merely a reference to a memory location.
- Note that this is the concept of variable, and its implementation can be different in each language.

Modifiable Variable

10

Reference Model



# Assignment

- Assignment is a statement which modifies a value associated with a modifiable variable.
- <assign> ::= <expr1><opAssign><expr2>
- For <expr1>, we use the *I-value*, and for <expr2> we need the *r-value*.
  - x = 3; x = x + 1;
  - On the left side, we use *l-value of* × (the location), and on the right side, we use *r-value of* × (value 3).

# Assignment

- How assignment works with a variable of reference model?
  - x = y
  - It doesn't mean copying the value of y to variable x.
  - Rather they are now two references to the same object.
    - We can modify y and it can be seen via x.
    - Similar to pointer variables, but in reference model, we can only modify the value indirectly with assignments.
- Java is a language employs reference model for variables of class types.

## Control Flow and Recursion

#### Control Flow

- There are several kinds of control flow in programming language.
- Sequence
- Selection (or conditional)
- Iteration

## Sequence Control Statement

- Sequential and Composite
  - Sequence of statements often indicated as ";".
    - S1; S2  $\rightarrow$  execution of S2 starts right after S1 terminates.
  - We can group a sequence of statements into a Composite statement.
    - Usually using { } code blocks.

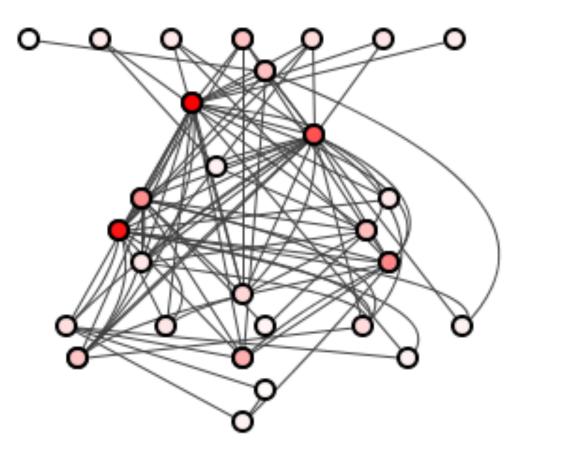
#### Goto

- Similar to Jump instructions in assembly language.
- goto Label
- Immediately jump to the Label.
- If this statement is not used carefully, it easily generates a "spaghetti code".

# Spaghetti Code

- If goto statement makes jumps to arbitrary locations in the code,
  - it is very difficult to trace the execution of a program.
- When we represent the connections made by the jumps,
  - It may look similar to spaghetti tangled in a plate.

```
    function a() {
        goto B;
        goto E;
        A: ....
        goto D;
        goto C;
    }
```



From edmundkirwan blog

#### Demise of Goto

- In modern languages, goto statement is no longer popular.
- Also it is recommended not to use goto statements unless it is absolutely necessary.
- Most of its behavior can be supported by other statements in limited ways like return, break or continue.
- Although it has some historic value to know the evolution of programming languages, we will skip the details in this course.

## Conditional Statements

- Evaluate a given boolean expression, and execute statements based on its value.
- Mostly it has a form like the following.
  - if <bool\_expr> then C1 else C2
- Handling nested if statements.
  - if <bool\_expr> then C1 else C2 endif Using terminator
  - if <bool\_expr1> then C1
     else if <bool\_expr2> then C2
     ....
     else Cn

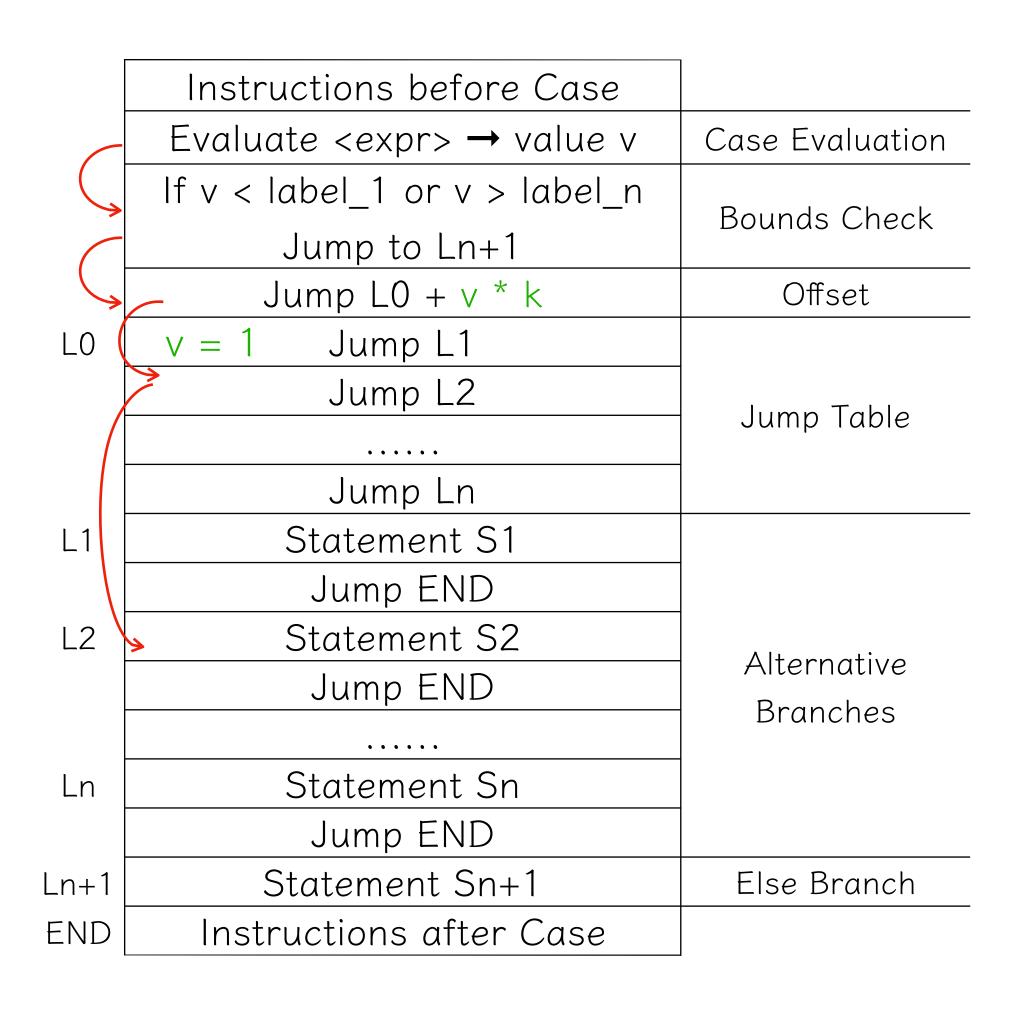
## Conditional Statements

- Case statement (or switch-case statement):
  - Handles many different branches.
  - Used when branches can be decided by an evaluation of an expression <expr>.
  - Each <|abe|> represents a constant value or values.
- It is more efficient than if-else statements when there are many branches.

```
switch(<expr>) {
   case < label 1>:
      S1;
      break;
   case < label 2>:
      S2;
      break;
```

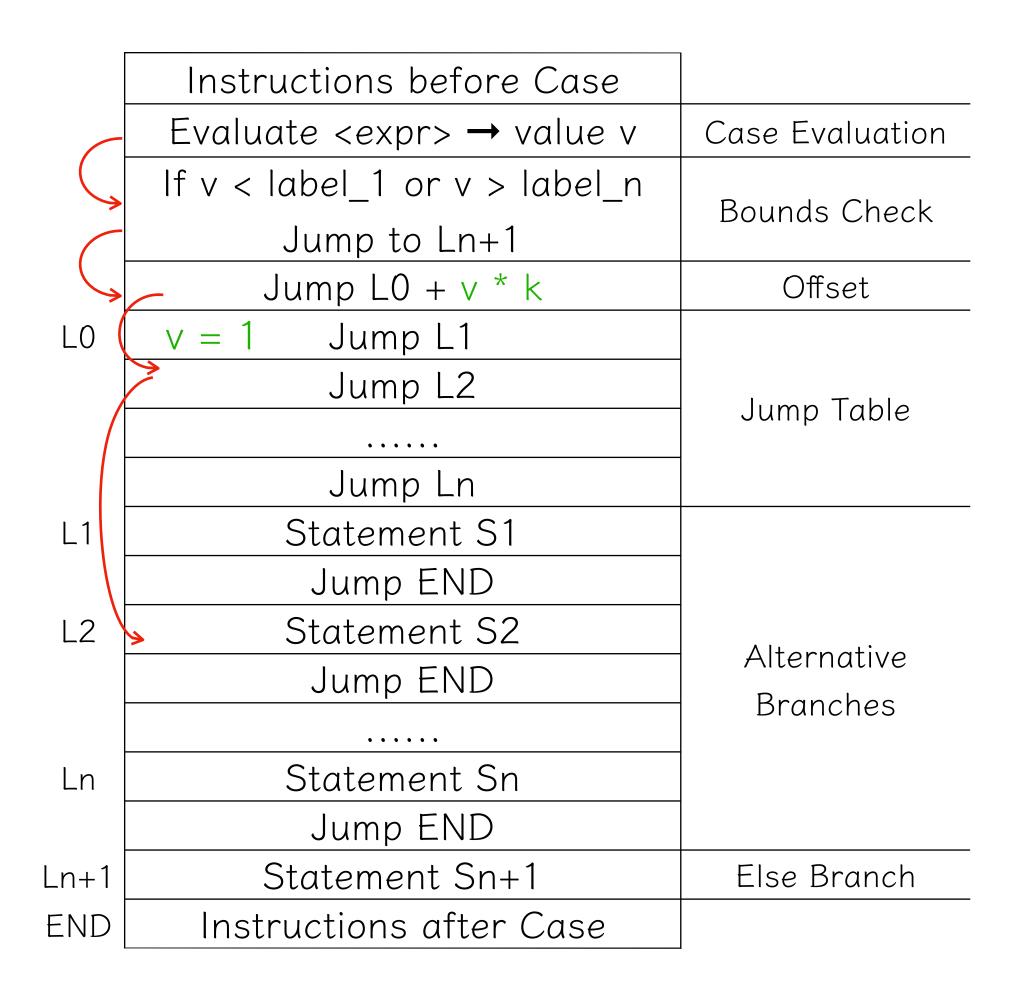
# Implementation of Case

- We can implement case statement with a Jump Table.
- Jump table contains jump instructions for each branch.
- After evaluate the value of <expr>, we can get an offset for the jump table.



# Implementation of Case

- Without Jump End (break), the execution will continue to the next.
- With this implementation, we need a large jump table if constants of label ranges widely.
  - e.g.) two cases 0 and 1000.
  - We need to have 1~999 in Jump Table although they are not used.
  - We can calculate jump address in different ways such as hashing.



## Iterations

- Iterative statements can be distinguished in two major categories:
  - Unbounded iteration
    - Often implemented as while statements.
  - Bounded iteration
    - Often implemented as for statements.
- Employing iterations gives the expressive powers so that a language can be Turing complete.
  - We can write all computable algorithms with this language.

## Unbounded Iteration

- Unbounded iteration is implemented by two parts:
  - a loop *condition* and a loop *body*.
  - while <bool\_expr> ← condition
     do
     <statement> ← body

 Repeats the execution of the body while the condition is satisfied (i.e. evaluated as true).

#### Bounded Iteration

- Bounded iteration is implemented with more complex components.
- for i = <start> to <end> by stepdo<statement> ← body
  - It usually has a variable i called the *index*, or *counter* or *control variable*.
  - Then it modifies the variable by step, which is a non-zero integer constant.
  - <start> and <end> are expressions for range.

## Unbounded vs. Bounded

- We cannot see many "pure" bounded iteration statements.
- For bounded iteration, at the start of iterations, we can know *the number of iterations*.
- This is not the case for unbounded iteration.
- e.g.) In C, for statement is not pure bounded iteration.

## Recursion

- A function or a procedure is called *recursive*, if it calls itself inside its body.
- Recursion is another mechanism to obtain Turing completeness.
- Recursion is appeared commonly in mathematics, which is often called inductive definition.
  - factorial(n) = 1 n = 1n\*factorial(n-1) otherwise

#### Recursion in PL

- Recursion is often considered inefficient compared to iteration.
- Because it continuously calls itself over and over.
- For each call, we have to push a new activation record into the stack, to store parameters and return values.

```
int fact(int n) {
   if(n == 1)
     return 1;
   else
     return n*fact(n-1);
}
```

```
fact(n-3)
fact(n-2)
fact(n-1)
fact(n)
```

#### Tail Recursion

- It would be much more efficient, if we share the activation records for each recursive call.
- It is possible with *tail recursion*, which only returns the return value of its recursive call, without any extra computation.
- We may introduce a new variable to store intermediate results as parameters.

```
Recursion
int fact(int n) {
  if(n == 1)
     return 1;
  else
     return n*fact(n-1);
Tail Recursion
int fact(int n, int acc) {
   if(n == 1)
                    Directly returns
     return(acc;)
                     parameters or
   else
                     return values
     return(fact(n-1, n*acc);)
```

## Tail Recursion

- It would be much more efficient, if we share the activation records for each recursive call.
- It is possible with *tail recursion*, which only returns the return value of its recursive call, without any extra computation.
- We may introduce a new variable to store intermediate results as parameters.

**Single Activation Record** 

# Summary

- Expressions and Their Evaluation
- Statement
- Control Flow Conditional, Iteration
- Tail Recursion