

15

Using Conditionals

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General control issues: Chapter 19

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A CONDITIONAL IS A STATEMENT that controls the execution of other statements; execution of the other statements is “conditioned” on statements such as *if*, *else*, *case*, and *switch*. Although it makes sense logically to refer to loop controls such as *while* and *for* as conditionals too, by convention they’ve been treated separately. Chapter 16, on loops, will examine *while* and *for* statements.

15.1 *if* Statements

Depending on the language you’re using, you might be able to use any of several kinds of *if* statements. The simplest is the plain *if* or *if-then* statement. The *if-then-else* is a little more complex, and chains of *if-then-else-if* are the most complex.

Plain *if-then* Statements

Follow these guidelines when writing *if* statements:

KEY POINT

Write the nominal path through the code first; then write the unusual cases

Write your code so that the normal path through the code is clear. Make sure that the rare cases don't obscure the normal path of execution. This is important for both readability and performance.

Make sure that you branch correctly on equality

Using > instead of >= or < instead of <= is analogous to making an off-by-one error in accessing an array or computing a loop index. In a loop, think through the endpoints to avoid an off-by-one error. In a conditional statement, think through the equals case to avoid an off-by-one error.

Put the normal case after the if rather than after the else

Put the case you normally expect to process first. This is in line with the general principle of putting code that results from a decision as close as possible to the decision. Here's a code example that does a lot of error processing, haphazardly checking for errors along the way:

Visual Basic Example of Code That Processes a Lot of Errors Haphazardly

```

40  OpenFile( inputFile, status )
41  If ( status = Status_Error ) Then
42      error case |   errorType = FileOpenError
43  Else
44      nominal case |   ReadFile( inputFile, fileData, status )
45                      |   If ( status = Status_Success ) Then
46      nominal case |       SummarizeFileData( fileData, summaryData, status )
47                      |       If ( status = Status_Error ) Then
48      error case |           errorType = ErrorType_DataSummaryError
49                      |       Else
50      nominal case |           PrintSummary( summaryData )
51                      |           SaveSummaryData( summaryData, status )
52                      |           If ( status = Status_Error ) Then
53      error case |               errorType = ErrorType_SummarySaveError
54                      |           Else
55      nominal case |               UpdateAllAccounts()
56                      |               EraseUndoFile()
57                      |               errorType = ErrorType_None
58                      |           End If
59                      |       End If
60                      |   Else
61                      |       errorType = ErrorType_FileReadError
62                      |   End If
63  End If

```

This code is hard to follow because the nominal cases and the error cases are all mixed together. It's hard to find the path that is normally taken through the code.

In addition, because the error conditions are sometimes processed in the *if* clause rather than the *else* clause, it's hard to figure out which *if* test the normal case goes with. In the rewritten code below, the normal path is consistently coded first, and all the error cases are coded last. This makes it easier to find and read the nominal case.

Visual Basic Example of Code That Processes a Lot of Errors Systematically

```

73 OpenFile( inputFile, status )
74 If status = Status_Success Then
75     nominal case | ReadFile( inputFile, fileData, status )
76                   | If status = Status_Success Then
77                   |     nominal case | SummarizeFileData( fileData, summaryData, status )
78                   |     If status = Status_Success Then
79                   |         nominal case | PrintSummary( summaryData )
80                   |         SaveSummaryData( summaryData, status )
81                   |         If status = Status_Success Then
82                   |             nominal case | UpdateAllAccounts()
83                   |             EraseUndoFile()
84                   |             errorType = ErrorType_None
85                   |         Else
86                   |             error case | errorType = ErrorType_SummarySaveError
87                   |         End If
88                   |     Else
89                   |         error case | errorType = ErrorType_DataSummaryError
90                   |     End If
91                   | Else
92                   |     error case | errorType = ErrorType_FileReadError
93                   | End If
94                   | Else
95                   |     error case | errorType = ErrorType_FileOpenError
96                   | End If

```

In the revised example, you can read the main flow of the *if* tests to find the normal case. The revision puts the focus on reading the main flow rather than on wading through the exceptional cases. The code is easier to read overall. The stack of error conditions at the bottom of the nest is a sign of well-written error-processing code.

Follow the if clause with a meaningful statement

Sometimes you see code like the next example, in which the *if* clause is null.

Java Example of a Null *if* Clause

```

105 if ( SomeTest )
106     ;
107 else {

```

CODING HORROR

108
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110
111 **CROSS-REFERENCE** One
112 key to writing an effective *if*
113 statement is writing the right
114 boolean expression to control
115 it. For details on using
116 boolean expressions
effectively, see Section 19.1,
“Boolean Expressions.”

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HARD DATA

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```
// do something
...
}
```

Most experienced programmers would avoid code like this if only to avoid the work of coding the extra null line and the *else* line. It looks silly and is easily improved by negating the predicate in the *if* statement, moving the code from the *else* clause to the *if* clause, and eliminating the *else* clause. Here’s how the code would look after such a change:

Java Example of a Converted Null *if* Clause

```
if ( ! SomeTest ) {
    // do something
    ...
}
```

Consider the else clause

If you think you need a plain *if* statement, consider whether you don’t actually need an *if-then-else* statement. A classic General Motors analysis found that 50 to 80 percent of *if* statements should have had an *else* clause (Elshoff 1976).

One option is to code the *else* clause—with a null statement if necessary—to show that the *else* case has been considered. Coding null *elses* just to show that that case has been considered might be overkill, but at the very least, take the *else* case into account. When you have an *if* test without an *else*, unless the reason is obvious, use comments to explain why the *else* clause isn’t necessary. Here’s an example:

Java Example of a Helpful, Commented *else* Clause

```
// if color is valid
if ( COLOR_MIN <= color && color <= COLOR_MAX ) {
    // do something
    ...
}
else {
    // else color is invalid
    // screen not written to -- safely ignore command
}
```

Test the else clause for correctness

When testing your code, you might think that the main clause, the *if*, is all that needs to be tested. If it’s possible to test the *else* clause, however, be sure to do that.

Check for reversal of the if and else clauses

A common mistake in programming *if-thens* is to flip-flop the code that's supposed to follow the *if* clause and the code that's supposed to follow the *else* clause or to get the logic of the *if* test backward. Check your code for this common error.

Chains of *if-then-else* Statements

In languages that don't support *case* statements—or that support them only partially—you will often find yourself writing chains of *if-then-else* tests. For example, the code to categorize a character might use a chain like this one:

C++ Example of Using an *if-then-else* Chain to Categorize a Character

```
if ( inputCharacter < SPACE ) {
    characterType = CharacterType_ControlCharacter;
}
else if (
    inputCharacter == ' ' ||
    inputCharacter == ',' ||
    inputCharacter == '.' ||
    inputCharacter == '!' ||
    inputCharacter == '(' ||
    inputCharacter == ')' ||
    inputCharacter == ':' ||
    inputCharacter == ';' ||
    inputCharacter == '?' ||
    inputCharacter == '-'
) {
    characterType = CharacterType_Punctuation;
}
else if ( '0' <= inputCharacter && inputCharacter <= '9' ) {
    characterType = CharacterType_Digit;
}
else if (
    ( 'a' <= inputCharacter && inputCharacter <= 'z' ) ||
    ( 'A' <= inputCharacter && inputCharacter <= 'Z' )
) {
    characterType = CharacterType_Letter;
}
```

Here are some guidelines to follow when writing such *if-then-else* chains:

Simplify complicated tests with boolean function calls

One reason the code above is hard to read is that the tests that categorize the character are complicated. To improve readability, you can replace them with

CROSS-REFERENCE For more details on simplifying complicated expressions, see Section 19.1, “Boolean Expressions.”

185 calls to boolean functions. Here's how the code above looks when the tests are
 186 replaced with boolean functions:

187 **C++ Example of an *if-then-else* Chain That Uses Boolean Function Calls**

```

188 if ( IsControl( inputCharacter ) ) {
189     characterType = CharacterType_ControlCharacter;
190 }
191 else if ( IsPunctuation( inputCharacter ) ) {
192     characterType = CharacterType_Punctuation;
193 }
194 else if ( IsDigit( inputCharacter ) ) {
195     characterType = CharacterType_Digit;
196 }
197 else if ( IsLetter( inputCharacter ) ) {
198     characterType = CharacterType_Letter;
199 }
  
```

200 ***Put the most common cases first***

201 By putting the most common cases first, you minimize the amount of exception-
 202 case handling code someone has to read to find the usual cases. You improve
 203 efficiency because you minimize the number of tests the code does to find the
 204 most common cases. In the example above, letters would be more common than
 205 punctuation but the test for punctuation is made first. Here's the code revised so
 206 that it tests for letters first:

207 **C++ Example of Testing the Most Common Case First**

```

208 This test, the most common, if ( IsLetter( inputCharacter ) ) {
209     is now done first.     characterType = CharacterType_Letter;
210 }
211 else if ( IsPunctuation( inputCharacter ) ) {
212     characterType = CharacterType_Punctuation;
213 }
214 else if ( IsDigit( inputCharacter ) ) {
215     characterType = CharacterType_Digit;
216 }
217 This test, the least common, else if ( IsControl( inputCharacter ) ) {
218     is now done last     characterType = CharacterType_ControlCharacter;
219 }
  
```

220 ***Make sure that all cases are covered***

221 Code a final *else* clause with an error message or assertion to catch cases you
 222 didn't plan for. This error message is intended for you rather than for the user, so
 223 word it appropriately. Here's how you can modify the character-classification
 224 example to perform an "other cases" test:

225 **CROSS-REFERENCE** This
 226 is also a good example of
 227 how you can use a chain of
 228 *if-then-else* tests instead of
 229 deeply nested code. For
 230 details on this technique, see
 231 Section 19.4, “Taming
 232 Dangerously Deep Nesting.”

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C++ Example of Using the Default Case to Trap Errors

```
if ( IsLetter( inputCharacter ) ) {
    characterType = CharacterType_Letter;
}
else if ( IsPunctuation( inputCharacter ) ) {
    characterType = CharacterType_Punctuation;
}
else if ( IsDigit( inputCharacter ) ) {
    characterType = CharacterType_Digit;
}
else if ( IsControl( inputCharacter ) ) {
    characterType = CharacterType_ControlCharacter;
}
else {
    DisplayInternalError( "Unexpected type of character detected." );
}
```

Replace if-then-else chains with other constructs if your language supports them

A few languages—Visual Basic and Ada, for example—provide *case* statements that support use of strings, enums, and logical functions. Use them. They are easier to code and easier to read than *if-then-else* chains. Here’s how the code for classifying character types would be written using a *case* statement in Visual Basic;

Visual Basic Example of Using a *case* Statement Instead of an *if-then-else* Chain

```
Select Case inputCharacter
    Case "a" To "z"
        characterType = CharacterType_Letter
    Case " ", ",", ".", "!", "(", ")", ":", ";", "?", "-"
        characterType = CharacterType_Punctuation
    Case "0" To "9"
        characterType = CharacterType_Digit
    Case FIRST_CONTROL_CHARACTER To LAST_CONTROL_CHARACTER
        characterType = CharacterType_Control
    Case Else
        DisplayInternalError( "Unexpected type of character detected." )
End Select
```

15.2 *case* Statements

The *case* or *switch* statement is a construct that varies a great deal from language to language. C++ and Java support *case* only for ordinal types taken one value at

a time. Visual Basic supports *case* for ordinal types and has powerful shorthand notations for expressing ranges and combinations of values. Many scripting languages don't support *case* statements at all.

The following sections present guidelines for using *case* statements effectively.

Choosing the Most Effective Ordering of Cases

You can choose from among a variety of ways to organize the cases in a *case* statement. If you have a small *case* statement with three options and three corresponding lines of code, the order you use doesn't matter much. If you have a long *case* statement—for example, a *case* statement in an event-driven program—order is significant. Here are some ordering possibilities:

Order cases alphabetically or numerically

If cases are equally important, putting them in A-B-C order improves readability. A specific case is easy to pick out of the group.

Put the normal case first

If you have one normal case and several exceptions, put the normal case first. Indicate with comments that it's the normal case and that the others are unusual.

Order cases by frequency

Put the most frequently executed cases first and the least frequently executed last. This approach has two advantages. First, human readers can find the most common cases easily. Readers scanning the list for a specific case are likely to be interested in one of the most common cases. Putting the common ones at the top of the code makes the search quicker.

In this instance, achieving better human readability also supports faster machine execution. Each case represents a test that the machine performs at run time. If you have 12 cases and the last one is the one that needs to be executed, the machine executes the equivalent of 12 *if* tests before it finds the right one. By putting the common cases first, you reduce the number of tests the machine must perform and thus improve the efficiency of your code.

Tips for Using *case* Statements

Here are several tips for using *case* statements:

CROSS-REFERENCE For other tips on simplifying code, see Chapter 24, "Refactoring."

Keep the actions of each case simple

Keep the code associated with each case short. Short code following each case helps make the structure of the *case* statement clear. If the actions performed for a case are complicated, write a routine and call the routine from the case rather than putting the code into the case itself.

Don't make up phony variables in order to be able to use the case statement

A *case* statement should be used for simple data that's easily categorized. If your data isn't simple, use chains of *if-then-elses* instead. Phony variables are confusing, and you should avoid them. Here's an example of what not to do:

CODING HORROR

Java Example of Creating a Phony case Variable—Bad Practice

```

action = userCommand[ 0 ];
switch ( action ) {
    case 'c':
        Copy();
        break;
    case 'd':
        DeleteCharacter();
        break;
    case 'f':
        Format();
        break;
    case 'h':
        Help();
        break;
    ...
    default:
        HandleUserInputError( ErrorType.InvalidUserCommand );
}

```

The variable that controls the *case* statement is *action*. In this case, *action* is created by peeling off the first character of the *userCommand* string, a string that was entered by the user.

This troublemaking code is from the wrong side of town and invites problems. In general, when you manufacture a variable to use in a *case* statement, the real data might not map onto the *case* statement the way you want it to. In this example, if the user types “copy,” the *case* statement peels off the first “c” and correctly calls the *Copy()* routine. On the other hand, if the user types “cement overshoes,” “clambake,” or “cellulite,” the *case* statement also peels off the “c” and calls *Copy()*. The test for an erroneous command in the case statement's *else* clause won't work very well because it will miss only erroneous first letters rather than erroneous commands.

This code should use a chain of *if-then-else-if* tests to check the whole string rather than making up a phony variable. A virtuous rewrite of the code looks like this:

CROSS-REFERENCE In contrast to this advice, sometimes you can improve readability by assigning a complicated expression to a well-named boolean variable or function. For details, see “Making Complicated Expressions Simple” in Section 19.1.

Java Example of Using *if-then-elses* Instead of a Phony case Variable—Good Practice

```
341 if ( UserCommand.equals( COMMAND_STRING_COPY ) ) {
342     Copy();
343 }
344 else if ( UserCommand.equals( COMMAND_STRING_DELETE ) ) {
345     DeleteCharacter();
346 }
347 else if ( UserCommand.equals( COMMAND_STRING_FORMAT ) ) {
348     Format();
349 }
350 else if ( UserCommand.equals( COMMAND_STRING_HELP ) ) {
351     Help();
352 }
353 ...
354 else {
355     HandleUserInputError( ErrorType_InvalidCommandInput );
356 }
```

Use the default clause only to detect legitimate defaults

You might sometimes have only one case remaining and decide to code that case as the default clause. Though sometimes tempting, that's dumb. You lose the automatic documentation provided by *case*-statement labels, and you lose the ability to detect errors with the default clause.

Such *case* statements break down under modification. If you use a legitimate default, adding a new case is trivial—you just add the case and the corresponding code. If you use a phony default, the modification is more difficult. You have to add the new case, possibly making it the new default, and then change the case previously used as the default so that it's a legitimate case. Use a legitimate default in the first place.

Use the default clause to detect errors

If the default clause in a *case* statement isn't being used for other processing and isn't supposed to occur, put a diagnostic message in it. An example follows.

Java Example of Using the Default Case to Detect Errors—Good Practice

```
373 switch ( commandShortcutLetter ) {
374     case 'a':
375         PrintAnnualReport();
376         break;
377     case 'p':
378         // no action required, but case was considered
379         break;
```

```

380     case 'q':
381         PrintQuarterlyReport();
382         break;
383     case 's':
384         PrintSummaryReport();
385         break;
386     default:
387         DisplayInternalError( "Internal Error 905: Call customer support." );
388 }

```

Messages like this are useful in both debugging and production code. Most users prefer a message like “Internal Error: Please call customer support” to a system crash—or worse, subtly incorrect results that look right until the user’s boss checks them.

If the default clause is used for some purpose other than error detection, the implication is that every case selector is correct. Double-check to be sure that every value that could possibly enter the *case* statement would be legitimate. If you come up with some that wouldn’t be legitimate, rewrite the statements so that the default clause will check for errors.

In C++ and Java, avoid dropping through the end of a case statement

C-like languages (C, C++, and Java) don’t automatically break out of each case. Instead, you have to code the end of each case explicitly. If you don’t code the end of a case, the program drops through the end and executes the code for the next case. This can lead to some particularly egregious coding practices, including the following horrible example:

CROSS-REFERENCE This code’s formatting makes it look better than it is. For details on how to use formatting to make good code look good and bad code look bad, see “Endline Layout” in “Endline Layout” in Section 31.3 and the rest of Chapter 31.

C++ Example of Abusing the case Statement

```

switch ( InputVar )
{
    case 'A': if ( test )
                {
                    // statement 1
                    // statement 2
    case 'B':    // statement 3
                // statement 4
                ...
                }
                ...
                break;
    ...
}

```

This practice is bad because it intermingles control constructs. Nested control constructs are hard enough to understand; overlapping constructs are all but impossible. Modifications of case ‘A’ or case ‘B’ will be harder than brain

surgery, and it's likely that the cases will need to be cleaned up before any modifications will work. You might as well do it right the first time. In general, it's a good idea to avoid dropping through the end of a *case* statement.

In C++, clearly and unmistakably identify flow-throughs at the end of a case statement

If you intentionally write code to drop through the end of a case, comment the place at which it happens clearly and explain why it needs to be coded that way.

C++ Example of Documenting Falling Through the End of a case Statement

```
switch ( errorDocumentationLevel ) {  
    case DocumentationLevel_Full:  
        DisplayErrorDetails( errorNumber );  
        // FALLTHROUGH -- Full documentation also prints summary comments  
  
    case DocumentationLevel_Summary:  
        DisplayErrorSummary( errorNumber );  
        // FALLTHROUGH -- Summary documentation also prints error number  
  
    case DocumentationLevel_NumberOnly:  
        DisplayErrorNumber( errorNumber );  
        break;  
  
    default:  
        DisplayInternalError( "Internal Error 905: Call customer support." );  
}
```

This technique is useful about as often as you find someone who would rather have a used Pontiac Aztek than a new Corvette. Generally, code that falls through from one case to another is an invitation to make mistakes as the code is modified and should be avoided.

CHECKLIST: Conditionals

if-then Statements

- ☐ Is the nominal path through the code clear?
- ☐ Do *if-then* tests branch correctly on equality?
- ☐ Is the *else* clause present and documented?
- ☐ Is the *else* clause correct?
- ☐ Are the *if* and *else* clauses used correctly—not reversed?
- ☐ Does the normal case follow the *if* rather than the *else*?

***if-then-else-if* Chains**

- ☐ Are complicated tests encapsulated in boolean function calls?
- ☐ Are the most common cases tested first?
- ☐ Are all cases covered?
- ☐ Is the *if-then-else-if* chain the best implementation—better than a *case* statement?

***case* Statements**

- ☐ Are cases ordered meaningfully?
 - ☐ Are the actions for each case simple—calling other routines if necessary?
 - ☐ Does the *case* statement test a real variable, not a phony one that's made up solely to use and abuse the *case* statement?
 - ☐ Is the use of the default clause legitimate?
 - ☐ Is the default clause used to detect and report unexpected cases?
 - ☐ In C, C++, or Java, does the end of each case have a *break*?
-

Key Points

- For simple *if-elses*, pay attention to the order of the *if* and *else* clauses, especially if they process a lot of errors. Make sure the nominal case is clear.
- For *if-then-else* chains and *case* statements, choose an order that maximizes readability.
- Use the default clause in a *case* statement or the last *else* in a chain of *if-then-elses* to trap errors.
- All control constructs are not created equal. Choose the control construct that's most appropriate for each section of code.