

Control flow in C++

Programação (L.EIC009)

José Proença (FCUP) & João Bispo (FEUP) – *slides by Eduardo R. B. Marques, FCUP*

- **Function calls:** call and return, call-by-value.
- **Choice instructions:** if, if-else, switch-case
- **Loop instructions:** while, for, do-while
- **More on functions:** function overloading, default values for parameters.
- **Reference variables,** call-by-reference.

Function calls

```
#include <iostream>

int factorial(int n) {
    int r = 1;
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) r = r * i;
    return r;
}

int main() {
    int n;
    std::cout << "n ? "; std::cin >> n;           // ask "n"
    std::cout << n << "! = " << factorial(n) << "\n"; // print "n!"
    return 0;
}
```

```
int factorial(int n) { // <- function declaration
    // -> function body
    . . .
}
int main() {
    . . .
}
```

From the declarations (also designated as prototypes or signatures):

- factorial returns int values, and takes one int argument
- main returns int values, and takes no arguments.

```
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```

```
int factorial(int n) {  
    . . .  
    return r; // function return  
}  
  
int main() {  
    . . .  
    // Call to factorial  
    . . . factorial(n) ...  
    return 0;  
}
```

```
::: columns ::: {.column width=50%} Control flow:
```

```
int factorial(int n) {  
    . . .  
    return r; // function return  
}  
  
int main() {  
    . . .  
    // Call to factorial  
    . . . factorial(n) ...  
    return 0;  
}
```

Call-by-value: the **value** of `n` in `main` is used to initialise the variable that (coincidentally) goes by the same name in `factorial`. The two variables are independent. Any change to `n` in `factorial` does not affect the value of `n` in `main`.

We will later discuss **call-by-reference**, where instead function arguments can be references to variables in the calling function.

Changes to `n` in `factorial` do not affect `n` in `main`, as in the following alternative implementation of `factorial`:

```
int factorial(int n) {  
    int r = 1;  
    while (n > 0) {  
        r = r * n;  
        n--; // decrement n  
    }  
    return r;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int n;  
    . . . factorial(n) ...  
    // n unchanged after the call  
    return 0;  
}
```


Function calls can be recursive. This does not make any difference to a normal function call: an independent set of local variables is associated to each function call.

Recursive implementation of factorial:

```
int factorial(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1)  
        return 1;  
    return n * factorial(n - 1);  
}
```

Function declarations can appear without an associated body. This is common for instance in header files (as we will see later in the semester).

In the example, we could have:

```
// just the declaration
```

```
int factorial(int n);
```

```
int main() { . . . }
```

```
// actual implementation
```

```
int factorial(int n) { ... }
```

Conditional control flow

if

```
if (condition)
```

```
    body
```

- body executes if condition is true (condition != 0)

if-else

```
if (condition)
```

```
    body_1
```

```
else
```

```
    body_2
```

- body_1 executes if condition is true (condition != 0), otherwise body_2 executes.

Example - possible implementations of `max` to compute the maximum value of two `int` values:

- using `if`:

```
int max(int a, int b) {  
    if (a > b)  
        return a;  
    return b;  
}
```

- using `if-else`

```
int max(int a, int b) {  
    if (a > b)  
        return a;  
    else // else is redundant  
        return b;  
}
```

Other variants with a single return point...

```
int max(int a, int b) {  
    int r = b;  
    if (a > b)  
        r = a;  
    return r;  
}
```

```
int max(int a, int b) {  
    int r;  
    if (a > b)  
        r = a;  
    else  
        r = b;  
    return r;  
}
```

More variants ... the ternary conditional operator ? : can be employed instead:

```
int max(int a, int b) {  
    int r = a > b ? a : b;  
    return r;  
}
```

r is redundant above, as it is used just once after definition. A simpler implementation is:

```
int max(int a, int b) {  
    return a > b ? a : b;  
}
```

A single if-body such as:

```
if (a > b)
    r = a;
```

is equivalent to

```
if (a > b) {
    r = a;
}
```

given that the if body has a single instruction.

However, **if an instruction body has more than one instruction, it must be enclosed between { and }.**

Python programmers beware:

```
if (a > b)
    r = a;
    x = y;
```

is **not equivalent** to

```
if (a > b) {
    r = a;
    x = y;
}
```

but instead equivalent to
(indentation has no semantic meaning)

```
if (a > b) {
    r = a;
}
x = y;
```

```
bool is_leap_year(int y) {  
    ...  
    // must return true IF  
    // - y % 400 == 0  
    // - OR ( y % 4 == 0 AND  
    //       y % 100 != 0 )  
}
```

A leap year has 366 days instead of 365 when its value is **(1)** divisible by 4 but not by 100,; **OR (2)** divisible by 400. For example: 2004 and 2000 are leap years, but 2005 and 2100 are not.

Simple implementation, without using if or if-else:

```
bool is_leap_year(int y) {  
    return (y % 4 == 0 &&  
            y % 100 != 0) ||  
            y % 400 == 0;  
}
```

?: modulo operator; ||: logical OR; &&: logical AND

A possible implementation using if-else:

```
bool is_leap_year(int y) {  
    bool r;  
    if (y % 4 == 0 && y % 100 != 0)  
        r = true;  
    else if (y % 400 == 0)  
        r = true;  
    else  
        r = false;  
    return r;  
}
```

Another alternative, this time employing nested if instructions:

```
bool is_leap_year(int y) {  
    bool r = true;  
    if (y % 4 != 0 || y % 100 == 0)  
        if (y % 400 != 0)  
            r = false;  
    return r;  
}
```

Another alternative, this time employing nested if instructions:

```
bool is_leap_year(int y) {  
    bool r = true;  
    if (y % 4 != 0 || y % 100 == 0)  
        if (y % 400 != 0)  
            r = false;  
    return r;  
}
```

Can you suggest another alternative?

Now consider a function to compute the number of days in a month (numbered 1 to 12):

```
int days_in_month(int m, int y) { ... }
```

The number of days is fixed for each month (30 or 31), except in the case of February, which has 29 days in a leap year and 28 in a non-leap year.

For m given in the range from 1 to 12:

- `days_in_month(2,y)` should return 29 when `is_leap_year(y) == true`, and 28 if not;
- `days_in_month(m,y)` should return 31 when m is equal to 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, or 12;
- `days_in_month(m,y)` should return 30 for all other cases.

```
int days_in_month(int m, int y) {  
    int d;  
    if (m == 2)  
        d = is_leap_year(y) ? 29 : 28; // February  
    else if (m == 1 || m == 3 ||  
             m == 5 || m == 7 ||  
             m == 8 || m == 10 ||  
             m == 12)  
        d = 31; // Months with 31 days  
    else  
        d = 30; // All other months have 30 days  
    return d;  
}
```

```
int days_in_month(int m, int y) {  
    int d;  
    if (m == 2)  
        d = is_leap_year(y) ? 29 : 28; // February  
    else if (m == 1 || m == 3 ||  
             m == 5 || m == 7 ||  
             m == 8 || m == 10 ||  
             m == 12)  
        d = 31; // Months with 31 days  
    else  
        d = 30; // All other months have 30 days  
    return d;  
}
```

A switch-case instruction can be used instead for simpler code.


```
switch (expr) {  
  case value_1:  
    body_1  
    break;  
  case value_2:  
    body_2  
    break;  
  . . .
```

```
  case value_n:  
    body_n  
    break;  
  default:  
    default_body  
    break;  
}
```

Evaluates integer expression `expr`, and executes:

- `body_1` if `expr` has value `value_1`;
- `body_2` if `expr` has value `value_2`;
- ...
- `body_n` if `expr` has value `value_n`;
- `default_body` otherwise.

The `break` instruction in a case block makes execution proceed to the instruction following the switch-case.

```
int days_in_month(int m, int y) {  
    int d;  
    switch (m) {  
        case 2: // February  
            d = is_leap_year(y) ? 29 : 28; break;  
        case 1: case 3: case 5: case 7: case 8: case 10: case 12: // 31 days  
            d = 31; break;  
        default: // All other months have 30 days  
            d = 30; break;  
    }  
    return d;  
}
```

What happens if we remove break for case 2: ?

```
int days_in_month(int m, int y) {  
    int d;  
    switch (m) {  
        case 2: // February  
            d = is_leap_year(y) ? 29 : 28;  
            // break;  
            // execution continues -->
```

```
        case 1: case 3: case 5:  
        case 7: case 8: case 10:  
        case 12: // Months with 31 days  
            d = 31;  
            break;  
        . . .  
    }  
    return d;  
}
```

```
switch (m) {  
    case 2: // February  
        d = is_leap_year(y) ? 29 : 28;  
        // break; // execution continues  
    case 1: case 3: case 5:  
        // Months with 31 days  
        . . .  
        d = 31; break;  
    . . .  
}  
return d;  
}
```

The function will return 31 when `m` equals 2. The absence of `break` instruction for case 2 lets execution proceed to the following case block.

```
enum { JAN = 1, FEB, MAR, APR, MAY, JUN, JUL, AUG, SEP, OCT, NOV, DEC };
int days_in_month(int m, int y) {
    int r;
    switch (m) {
        case FEB:
            r = is_leap_year(y) ? 29 : 28; break;
        case JAN: case MAR: case MAY: case JUL: case AUG: case OCT: case DEC:
            r = 31; break; // Months with 31 days
        default:
            r = 30; break; // All others have 30 days
    }
    return r;
}
```

Loop instructions

while loop

```
while (condition)
```

```
    body
```

- body executes while condition is true ($\neq 0$).
- No iterations of body execute if condition is initially false.

do-while loop

```
do
```

```
    body
```

```
while (condition);
```

- Executes body until condition is false.
- At least one iteration of body executes.

(simplest naive algorithm for prime number check)

```
bool is_prime(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1)  
        return false;  
    int i = 2;  
    while (i < n) {  
        if (n % i == 0)  
            return false;  
        i++;  
    }  
    return true;  
}
```

```
bool is_prime(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1)  
        return false;  
    if (n == 2)  
        return true;  
    int i = 2;  
    do {  
        if (n % i == 0)  
            return false;  
        i++;  
    } while (i < n);  
    return true;  
}
```

A `break` instruction within a `while` and `do-while` loop unconditionally terminates (breaks out of) the loop. Using `break` can make control flow harder to understand.

```
bool is_prime(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1) return false;  
    int i = 2;  
    while (true) {  
        if (i == n || n % i == 0) break;  
        i++;  
    }  
    return i == n; // prime only if i == n  
}
```

A `continue` instruction within a `while` and `do-while` loop makes execution proceed directly to the loop condition test. Like `break`, `continue` can make control flow harder to understand.

```
bool is_prime(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1) return false;  
    int i = 2;  
    while (i < n) {  
        if (n % i != 0) {  
            i++;  
            continue;  
        }  
        return false;  
    }  
}
```

Using break and continue is more appropriate for complex loops where there are several stop or re-entry conditions.

```
while (true) {  
    // Multiple stop conditions  
    if (stop_cond1) break;  
    ...  
    if (stop_cond_n) break;  
    // ... re-entry conditions  
    if (cont_cond_1) continue;  
    ...  
    if (cont_cond_k) continue;  
    ...  
}
```

Using `break` and `continue` is more appropriate for complex loops where there are several stop or re-entry conditions.

```
while (true) {  
    // Multiple stop conditions  
    if (stop_cond1) break;  
    ...  
    if (stop_cond_n) break;  
    // ... re-entry conditions  
    if (cont_cond_1) continue;  
    ...  
    if (cont_cond_k) continue;  
    ...  
}
```

Avoid confusing **break**, **continue**, **return**.
Avoid **return** entangled in the code.

while loops of the following form are common:

```
initialisation
while (condition) {
    body
    update
}
```

This type of iteration can be expressed more clearly using a for loop:

```
for (initialisation; condition; update) {
    body
}
```

```
bool is_prime(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1)  
        return false;  
    for (int i = 2; i < n; i++) {  
        if (n % i == 0)  
            return false;  
    }  
    return true;  
}
```

An additional advantage of a for loop is that variables declared in the initialisation block have a scope that is limited to the loop body.

Variable `i` above can not be used outside the for loop.

**More on functions: default
arguments, function overloading**

Functions can have **default arguments**.

We may for instance define:

```
int f(int x, int y=2, int z=3) {  
    return x + y + z;  
}
```

Function `f` can then be called omitting values for `z` or both `y` and `z`.

```
int v = f(1)           // equivalent to f(1, 2, 3)  
      + f(1, 0)        // equivalent to f(1, 0, 3)  
      + f(1, 0, 0);
```

Only trailing parameters can have default arguments. We cannot for instance define:

```
int g(int x=1, int y) { . . . }  
// ERROR  
error: missing default argument  
on parameter 'x'
```

→ [Further reference](#)

Function overloading: we can have several definitions of functions with the same name, called function overloads, as long as they have different parameters (in number or type).

For instance, we can have several declarations of a function `f` as follows:

```
int f(int x);  
int f(double x);  
int f(int x, int y);  
void f();  
double f(double x, double y);
```

In contrast, the following definitions are invalid for `g`, since both function overloads have the same arguments:

```
int g(int x);  
void g(int x);
```

error: functions that differ only in their return type cannot be overloaded

Ambiguities may arise at function calls. The following overloads are valid:

```
int h(double x=1.2);  
int h(double x, int y=2, int z=3);  
int h(float x);
```

Some calls may be ambiguous:

```
h();           // OK => 1st overload h(1.2)  
h(1.2, 5);    // OK => 2nd overload h(1.2, 5, 3)  
h(1.2f);      // OK => 3rd overload  
h(1.0);       // ERROR -> 1st or 2nd overload?
```

error: call to 'h' is ambiguous

```
int h(double x=1.2);  
int h(double x, int y=2, int z=3);  
int h(float x);
```

Another example of an ambiguous call:

```
// There is no overload with int parameter  
// but int expressions can be promoted  
// to float or double type  
int v = 123;  
h(v); // ERROR - 1st, 2nd, or 3rd overload?  
  
error: call to 'h' is ambiguous
```

References, call-by-reference

In C++ we can declare a variable to be a **reference**, when its type has the form `type&`. For instance, in

```
int v = 1;
int& r = v;
```

the `int&` type for `r` indicates that `r` is a reference variable `v` of type `int`.

What are the implications? `r` refers to `v`, hence any updates using `r` are reflected on `v` and vice-versa.

<pre>std::cout << v << ' ' << r << '\n'; // --> 1 1</pre>	<pre>v++; std::cout << v << ' ' << r << '\n'; // --> 2 2</pre>	<pre>r++; std::cout << v << ' ' << r << '\n'; // --> 3 3</pre>
--	---	---

References are initialized **once** in their declaration.

```
int v1 = 10;
int v2 = 20;
// initialisation of r
int& r = v1;
// equivalent to v1 = v2
r = v2;
// increment of v2 does not change v1
v2++;
cout << r << ' '
    << v1 << ' '
    << v2 << '\n'; // --> 20 20 21
```

There can be more than one reference to a variable.

```
int v = 0;
int& r1 = v; // r1 refers to v
int& r2 = v; // r2 refers to v
int& r3 = r2; // r3 refers to v
               // (reference copy)
r1++; r2++; r3++;
std::cout << v << '\n'; // --> ?
```

What does it return?

References are initialized **once** in their declaration.

```
int v1 = 10;
int v2 = 20;
// initialisation of r
int& r = v1;
// equivalent to v1 = v2
r = v2;
// increment of v2 does not change v1
v2++;
cout << r << ' '
    << v1 << ' '
    << v2 << '\n'; // --> 20 20 21
```

There can be more than one reference to a variable.

```
int v = 0;
int& r1 = v; // r1 refers to v
int& r2 = v; // r2 refers to v
int& r3 = r2; // r3 refers to v
                // (reference copy)
r1++; r2++; r3++;
std::cout << v << '\n'; // --> ?
```

What does it return?

--> 3

The use of references enables **call-by-reference** semantics.

Consider the following function:

```
void get_min_max(int a, int b, int& min, int& max) {  
    min = a < b ? a : b;  
    max = a > b ? a : b;  
}
```

In `get_min_max`:

- `a` and `b` are call-by-value parameters;
- `min` and `max` are **call-by-reference** parameters.

What does this mean?

```
void get_min_max(int a, int b,  
                int& min, int& max) {  
    min = a < b ? a : b;  
    max = a > b ? a : b;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int x = 200, y = 100;  
    int m, M;  
    get_min_max(x, y, m, M);  
    // ^-- call to get_min_max  
    std::cout << m < ' ' << M;  
    return 0;  
}
```

In the call to `get_min_max` by `main`:

- `x` and `y` provide the values for parameters `a` and `b`
- `m` and `M` provide references for parameters `min` and `max`.

There is no need to declare reference variables in `main`: references are created implicitly by the function call.

```
void get_min_max(int a, int b,
                 int& min, int& max) {
    min = a < b ? a : b;
    max = a > b ? a : b;
}

int main() {
    int x = 200, y = 100;
    int m, M;
    get_min_max(x, y, m, M);
    // ^-- call to get_min_max
    std::cout << m < ' ' << M; // <-- m=100, M=200
    return 0;
}
```

Assignments to min and max within get_min_max will write variables m and M.

After get_min_max returns, m will contain value 100 and M will contain value 200.

Does the following variant of `get_min_max` **work as expected**?

```
void get_min_max(int a, int b, int& min, int& max) {  
    // Swap values of a and b if necessary s.t. a <= b  
    if (a > b) { int tmp = a; a = b; b = tmp; }  
    min = a; max = b;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int x = 200, y = 100;  
    ...  
    get_min_max(x, y, m, M); // <-- call to get_min_max  
    // x and y SHOULD BE UNCHANGED after the call  
    ...  
}
```

Does the following variant of `get_min_max` **work as expected**?

```
void get_min_max(int a, int b, int& min, int& max) {  
    // Swap values of a and b if necessary s.t. a <= b  
    if (a > b) { int tmp = a; a = b; b = tmp; }  
    min = a; max = b;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int x = 200, y = 100;  
    ...  
    get_min_max(x, y, m, M); // <-- call to get_min_max  
    // x and y SHOULD BE UNCHANGED after the call  
    ...  
}
```

YES! As discussed earlier, changing the call-by-value parameters `a` and `b` within `get_min_max` does not affect variables `x` and `y` in the caller function.