#### **CSc 520**

# Principles of Programming Languages

26: Control Structures — Introduction

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#### **Control Flow**

- We need some way of ordering computations:
- sequencing
- selection
- iteration
- procedural abstraction being able to treat a collection of other control constructs as a single unit, a subroutine.
- recursion
- concurrency
- nondeterminacy being able to explcitly state that the ordering between two statements is uspecified, and, possibly should be selected randomly/fairly.

## **Control Flow — Paradigms**

- Functional languages recursion and selection are important, iteration and sequencing not.
- Procedural languages iteration, sequencing, selection are important, recursion not.
- Logic languages the programmer gives rules that restrict control flow, the interpreter deduces an execution ordering that satisifes these rules.

# **Operators**

#### Prefix, Infix, Postfix

- Languages use prefix, infix, or postfix notation for operators in expressions.
- This means that the operator comes before, among, or after its operands.
- Lisp/Scheme uses Cambridge Polish notation (a variant of prefix):

```
(*(+56)7)
```

- Postscript and Forth use postfix notation.
- Smalltalk uses infix notation.

## Smalltalk — Binary Messages

ullet A binary message M to receiver R with argument A has the syntax

For example:

$$8 + 9$$

This sends the message + to the object 8 with the argument 9.

## Smalltalk — Keyword Messages

• A keyword message M to receiver R with arguments  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \ldots$  has the syntax

```
R \ M_1: \ A_1 \ M_2: \ A_2 \ M_3: \ A_3 \ \dots
```

For example:

```
DeannaTroi kiss: cheek how: tenderly
```

This sends the message kiss:how: to the object DeannaTroi with the arguments cheek and tenderly. In Java we would have written:

DeannaTroi.kisshow(cheek,tenderly)

#### **Operator Precedence**

- The precedence of an operator is a measure of its binding power, i.e. how strongly it attracts its operands.
- Usually \* has higher precedence than +:

$$4 + 5 * 3$$

means

$$4 + (5 * 3),$$

not

$$(4+5)*3.$$

• We say that  $\underline{*}$  binds harder than  $\underline{+}$ .

## **Operator Associativity**

- The associativity of an operator describes how operators of equal precedence are grouped.
- + and are usually left associative:

$$4 - 2 + 3$$

means

$$(4-2) + 3 = 5,$$

not

$$4 - (2+3) = -1.$$

We say that + associates to the left.

^ associates to the right:

$$2^3^4 = 2^3$$

## Case Study — C

- C has so many rules for precedence and associativity that most programmers don't know them all.
- See the table on the next slide.

# Case Study — C...

OPERATOR	KIND	PREC	Assoc
a[k]	Primary	16	
f(···)	Primary	16	
•	Primary	16	
->	Primary	16	
a++, a	Postfix	15	
++a,a	Unary	14	
~	Unary	14	
!	Unary	14	
_	Unary	14	
&	Unary	14	
*	Unary	14	

OPERATOR	KIND	Prec	Assoc
*, /, %	Binary	13	Left
+, -	Binary	12	Left
<<, >>	Binary	11	Left
<, >, <=, >=	Binary	10	Left
== !=	Binary	9	Left
&	Binary	8	Left
^	Binary	7	Left
	Binary	6	Left
&&	Binary	5	Left
	Binary	4	Left
?:	Ternary	3	Right
=, +=, -=, *=,	Binary	2	Right
/=, %=, <<=,			
>>=, &=, ^=,  =			
<u>'</u>	Binary	1	Left

#### **Variables**

#### Value vs. Reference Model

- I-value an expression that denotes a location, such as the left-hand side in x:=..., x[i]:=..., x.a[i]->v:=....
- r-value an expression that denotes a value, such as the right-hand side in . . . : =x, . . . : =x[i], . . . : =x.a[i]->v, . . . : =3+x.
- Pascal, C, Ada use a value model of variables. In . . . : =x, x refers to the value stored in x.
- Clu (and other languages) use a reference model for variables. In . . . : =x, x is a reference to the value stored in x.

#### Value vs. Reference Model...

In Pascal, after the statements

```
b := 2;
c := b;
```

both b and c would hold the value 2. In Clu, b and c would both point to the same object, which contains the value 2.

Java uses a value model for int, float, etc, but a reference model for String. Hence

```
int i,j;
String s,t;
if (i==j) ...
if (s==t) ...
```

can be confusing for novel programmers.

# **Expressions**

#### **Order of Evaluation**

- Many languages allow the compiler to reorder operations in an expression, for efficiency.
- Java requires strict left-to-right evaluation. Why?
- If the expression (b,c,d are 32-bit ints)

is reordered as

then an overflow can occur if b+d doesn't fit in an int.

#### Order of Evaluation...

- Let a,b,c be 32-bit floats, where a is small, b,c are large, and b=-c.
- Then the expression

$$(a+b)+c$$

might evaluate to 0 (due to a loss of information), while

$$a+(b+c)$$

would evaluate to a.

# Case Study — Pascal

Pascal does not use short-circuit evaluation. Hence, this makes for problems:

if 
$$(x <> 0)$$
 and  $(y/x > 5)$  then

Pascal has non-intuitive precedence:

$$4 > 8 \text{ or } 11 < 3$$

is parsed as

$$4 > (8 \text{ or } 11) < 3$$

Hence, it becomes necessary to insert parenthesis.

#### **Control-Flow Statements**

#### Statement vs. Expression Orientation

- In Pascal, Ada, Modula-2, if, while, etc. are statements. This means that they are executed for their side-effects only, and return no value.
- In Algol68 if, while, etc. are expressions, they can have both side-effects and return values:

```
begin
  x := if b<c then d else e;
  y := begin f(b); g(c) end;
  z := while b<c do g(c) end;
  2+3
end</pre>
```

This compound block returns 5.

#### **Unstructured Control-Flow**

- In the early days of FORTRAN, there were no structured control-flow statements (these were introduced in Algol 60).
- Instead, programmers built up structured ifs, whiles, etc, using gotos:

```
IF a .LT. B GOTO 10
...
GOTO 20
10:
...
```

This is an if-then-else-statement.

## Case Study — Pascal: goto

- Pascal has no exception handling mechanism. Gotos were the only way of, say, jumping to the end of the program on an unrecoverable error.
- Labels have to be integers and have to be declared.

#### **Statements** — **Selection**

#### Case Study — Pascal: if

```
if boolean expression then
   statement
else
   if boolean expression then
      statement
   else
      begin
         statement
         statement
         statement
      end
```

The else is always matched with the closest nested if.

## Case Study — Modula-2: if

The ELSIF part of an IF-statement in Modula-2 is a convenient addition from Pascal:

```
IF boolean expression THEN
    statement-sequence
ELSIF boolean expression THEN
    statement-sequence
ELSIF boolean expression THEN
    statement-sequence
ELSE
    statement-sequence
END
```

#### Case Study — Pascal: case

```
case ordinal expression of
   list of cases: statement;
   list of cases: statement;
   list of cases: statement;
   otherwise statement
end;
```

- otherwise is optional.
- The list of cases looks like this: 1,2,7..9. I.e. it can contain ranges.
- case-statements can be implemented as nested ifs, jump-tables (most common), or hash-tables, depending on what is most efficient.

## Case Study — C: case

In 1990 AT&T's long distance service fails for nine hours due to a wrong break statement in a C program.

C's design allows several cases to share the same statement (as 0 and 1 do above).

# Case Study — FORTRAN: goto

In FORTRAN, you can simulate a case statement using computed gotos:

```
GOTO (15, 20, 30) I
15: ...
20: ...
30: ...
```

If I=1, we'll jump to 15; if I=2, we'll jump to 20; if it's 3, we'll jump to 30, otherwise we'll do nothing.

#### **Statements** — **Iteration**

## Case Study — Pascal: for

```
for index := start to stop do
    statement;
for index := start downto stop do
    statement;
```

- The index must be declared outside the loop.
- Only ordinal datatypes are allowed.
- ullet You can only increment the index variable with  $\pm 1!$

## Case Study — Modula-2: FOR

Modula-2 generalizes Pascal's for-loop, so that it's possible to iterate by an arbitrary amount:

```
(* The BY-part is optional.
    step must be a constant.*)
FOR i := from TO to [BY step] DO
    statement-sequence
END
```

step still has to be constant, though!

## Case Study — Modula-3: FOR

Modula-3, finally, provides a FOR-loop in its full generality:

```
FOR id := first TO last BY step DO S
```

- id is a read-only variable with the same type as first and last.
- first, last and step are executed once.
- step can be a run-time expression, not just a constant. (At least, I think so — Scott says otherwise, and the manual is silent. Anyone care to check what the compiler thinks?)

## Case Study — Modula-3: FOR

```
FOR id := first TO last BY step DO S
```

- If step is negative, the loop iterates downwards.
- It is non-trivial to implement a fully general FOR-loop. See the next slide for how Modula-3's FOR-statement is translated.
- The index variable id is automatically defined by the loop.
- In Pascal/Modula-2, the programmer had to define it herself outside the loop. This lead to the question what value will id have after the end of the loop? Either the compiler got it wrong, or the programmer got it wrong.

## Case Study — Modula-3: FOR...

```
FOR id := first TO last BY step DO S END
                 \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow
VAR i := ORD(first); done := ORD(last); delta := step;
BEGIN
   IF delta >= 0 THEN
       WHILE i <= done DO
          WITH id=VAL(i,T) DO S END; INC(i,delta);
       END
   ELSE
       WHILE i >= done DO
          WITH id=VAL(i,T) DO S END; INC(i,delta);
END END END
```

## Case Study — Pascal: loops

```
while boolean expression do
    statement;

repeat
    statement;
    statement;
until boolean expression;
```

Note the asymmetry: the while statement body can only contain one statement.

## Case Study — Modula-2: loops

Modula-2 adds an infinite loop:

```
LOOP
    statement-seq (* EXIT can occur here. *)
END
```

This makes it convenient to exit a loop in the middle:

```
LOOP

IF ... THEN EXIT;

END
```

## Case Study — Algol 60

Algol 60 has one loop construct:

- <u>id</u> takes on values specified by a sequence of enumerators.
- Each expression is re-evaluated at the top of the loop.

#### Case Study — Algol 60...

Each of the following is equivalent:

```
for i := 1, 2, 5, 7, 9 do ...
for i := 1 step 2 until 10 do ...
for i := i, i + 2 while i < 10 do ...</pre>
```

This generality is usually overkill...

#### Recursion

#### Tail Recursion

- A function is tail-recursive if there is no more work to be done after the recursive call.
- Tail-recursive functions are important because they can be easily be made iterative — no stack space needs to be allocated dynamically.
- For tail-recursive functions the compiler can reuse the space of the current stack frame instead of allocating a new one for the recursive call.

#### Tail Recursion...

```
int gcd(int a, int b) {
   if (a == b) return a;
   else if (a > b) return gcd(a-b,b);
   else return gcd(a,b-a);
int gcd(int a, int b) {
start:
   if (a == b) return a;
   else if (a > b) {a=a-b; goto start; }
  else {b=b-a; goto start; }
```

#### Tail Recursion...

- You can often transform a non-tail-recursive function into a tail-recursive one.
- The idea is to pass a continuation of the work that is to be done after the call as a parameter to the call.
- This is called continuation-passing style (CPS).
- The next slide shows how the factorial function has been made tail-recursive using the CPS transformation.

#### Tail Recursion...

```
(define (fact n)
 (if (= n 1)
     (* n (fact (- n 1)))))
(define (fact-cps n C)
  (if (= n 1)
      (C1)
      (fact-cps (- n 1) (
           lambda(v) (C (* n v)))))
(fact-cps 5 (lambda(v) (display v)))
```

#### Readings and References

Read Scott, pp. 233–242, 249–257, 260–278, 284–291