CONTROL FLOW

PRINCIPLES OF PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

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The successful programmer thinks in terms of basic principles of control flow, not in terms of syntax!

The principal categories of control flow mechanisms are:

- Sequencing
- Selection or alternation
- Iteration
- Procedural abstraction (next topic)
- Recursion
- Concurrency
- Exception handling and speculation (next topic)
- Non-determinism

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Imperative languages:

- Computation is a series of changes to the values of variables in memory.
- This is "computation by side effect".
- The order in which these side effects happen may determine the outcome of the computation.
- There is usually a distinction between an expression and a statement.

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- Very important in imperative programming languages
- Much less important in declarative programming languages

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Syntactic differences (Important to know, semantically irrelevant):

- A = 3 FORTRAN, PL/1, SNOBOL4, C, C++, Java
- A :- 3 Pascal, Ada, Icon, ML, Modula-3, ALGOL 68
- A <- 3 Smalltalk, Mesa, APL
- A =. 3 J
- 3 -> A BETA
- MOVE 3 TO A COBOL
- (SETQ A 3) LISP

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In most languages, the meaning of a variable name differs depending on the side of an assignment statement it appears on:

- On the right-hand side, it refers to the variable's value—it is used as an r-value.
- On the left-hand side, it refers to the variable's location in memory—it is used as an l-value.

EXPLICIT DEREFERENCING

Some languages explicitly distinguish between l-values and r-values:

- BLISS: X := .X + 1
- ML: X := !X + 1

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In some languages, a function can return an l-value (e.g., ML or C++):

```
int a[10];
int &f(int i) {
  return a[i % 10];
}
void main() {
  for (int i = 0; i < 100; ++i)
    f(i) = i;
}
```

Value model

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- Variables referring to different but identical objects.

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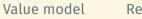
Distinguish between:

- Variables referring to the same object and
- Variables referring to different but identical objects.

An example: Java

- Value model for built-in types
- Reference model for classes

$$b = 2; c = b; a = b + c;$$









int a = 5; int b = a; b += 10; System.out.println("a = " + a); System.out.println("b = " + b);

Output:

int a = 5; int b = a; b += 10; System.out.println("a = " + a); System.out.println("b = " + b);

Output:

a = 5 b = 15

int a = 5; int b = a; b += 10; System.out.println("a = " + a); System.out.println("b = " + b);

Output:

a = 5 b = 15 Obj a = new Obj(); Obj b = a; b.change(); System.out.println(a == b);

Output:

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```
String a = "hi ";
String b = a;
b += "world";
System.out.println("a = " + a);
System.out.println("b = " + b);
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```

Output:

a = hi b = hi world

StringBuffer a = new StringBuffer(); StringBuffer b = a; b.append("This is b's value."); System.out.println("a = " + a); System.out.println("b = " + b);

Output:

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 Thus, such side effects may lead to unexpected results.
- Evaluation order impacts register allocation, instruction scheduling, etc. By fixing a particular evaluation ordering, some code improvements may not be possible. This impacts performance.

AN EXAMPLE WITH SIDE EFFECTS IN C

$$for(i = m = M = 1; N - ++i; M = m + (m = M));$$

What does this code compute?

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Probably intented

Ν	m	Μ
2	1	1
3	1	2
4	2	3
5	3	5
6	5	8

 $M = F_N$ (Nth Fibonacci number)

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Probably intented			Actual			
N	m	M	N	r	n	М
2	1	1	2		1	1
3	1	2	3		1	2
4	2	3	4		2	4
5	3	5	5	4	4	8
6	5	8	6	8	8	16
			_			
$M = F_N$ (Nth Fi	bor	nacci number)	N	=	2	N-2

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Short-circuit evaluation

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Some languages provide both regular and short-circuit versions of Boolean operators.

Ada:

- \cdot and vs and then
- or VS or else

Checking for NULL pointers in C:

```
while (p != NULL && p->e != val) {
    p = p->next;
}
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open(F, "file") or die;

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Short-circuit and as if-statement in Perl or shell scripts:

if (x > max) then max = x;

becomes

(x > max) & max = x;

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• The value of the last subexpression (most common)

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LISP:(prog1 (setq a 4) (setq b 5))

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- The value of the first subexpression
 LISP: (prog1 (setg a 4) (setg b 5))
- The value of the second subexpression

LISP: (prog2 (setq a 4) (setq b 5) (setq c 6)

 $\implies 4$

 $\implies 5$

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Many languages provide alternatives:

- One-and-a-half loop
- return statement
- Structured exception handling

Standard if-then-else statement:

if cond then this else that

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Switch statement:

switch	value of		
case	pattern1:	option1	
case	pattern2:	option2	
default:		default	action

Principal motivation:

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Compiler can use different methods to generate efficient code:

- Sequential testing
- Binary search
- Hash table
- Jump table

```
if i == 1:
    option1()
elsif i in [2, 7]:
    option2()
elsif i in [3, 4, 5]:
    option3()
elsif i == 10:
    option4()
else:
    default_action()
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```

Assume i is stored in register R1.

```
if R1 != 1 goto L1
    call option1
    goto L6
L1: if R1 == 2 goto L2
    if R1 != 7 goto L3
L2: call option2
    goto L6
L3: if R1 < 3 goto L4
    if R1 > 5 goto L4
    call option3
    goto L6
L4: if R1 != 10 goto L5
    call option4
    goto L6
L5: call default action
L6: ...
```

```
case i:
    1:    option1()
    2, 7:    option2()
    3, 4, 5:    option3()
    10:        option4()
    otherwise: default_action()
```

IMPLEMENTATION OF SWITCH STATEMENTS: JUMP TABLE

Assume i is stored in register R1.

T: &L1 &L2 &L3 &L3 &L3 &L3 &L5 &L2 &L5 &L5 &L5 &L4

case i:	
1:	option1()
2, 7:	option2()
3, 4, 5:	option3()
10:	option4()
otherwise:	<pre>default_action()</pre>

L1:	call option1
	goto L7
L2:	call option2
	goto L7
L3:	call option3
	goto L7
L4:	call option4
	goto L7
L5:	call default_action
	goto L7
L6:	if R1 < 1 goto L5
	if R1 > 10 goto L5
	R1 := R1 - 1
	R2 := T[R1]
	goto *R2
L7:	• • •

IMPLEMENTATION OF SWITCH STATEMENTS

Jump table:

- + Fast: one table lookup to find the right branch
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No single implementation is best in all circumstances. Compilers often use different strategies based on the specific code.

ITERATION

Enumeration-controlled loops:

- Example: for-loop
- One iteration per element in finite set
- The number of iterations is known in advance.

Logically controlled loops:

- Example: while-loop
- Executed until a Boolean condition changes
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Some languages do not have loop constructs (Scheme, Haskell, ...). They use tail recursion instead. Pre-loop test:

while (cond) {

}

```
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while (cond) {
    ...
}
Post-loop test:
do {
```

```
...
} while (cond);
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```
}
```

```
Post-loop test:
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do {

...
} while (cond);

Mid-loop test or "one-and-a-half loop":
loop {
 ...
 if (cond1) exit;
 ...
 if (cond2) exit;
 ...
}

```
+ Flexible
```

```
while (cond) {
   statements;
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```

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- Expensive

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while (cond) {
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L1: R1 := evaluate cond
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The for-loop in C/C++ is merely syntactic sugar for the init-test-step idiom in implementing enumeration using logically controlled loops!

for (init; cond; step) {
 statements;
}

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Potentially much more efficient:

```
FOR i = start TO end BY step DO
   statements
END
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If modifying the loop variable inside the loop is allowed:

```
R1 := start
R2 := end
R3 := step
L1: if R1 > R2 goto L2
statements
R1 = R1 + R3
goto L1
L2: ...
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"Break" statement ("last" in Perl):

Exit the nearest enclosing for-, do-, while- or switch-statement.

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Both statements may be followed by a label that specifies

- An enclosing loop (continue) or
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A loop may have a finally part, which is always executed no matter whether the iteration executes normally or is terminated using a continue or break statement.

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Generators in Python:

```
def lexy(length):
    yield ''
    if length > 0:
        for ch in ['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']:
            for w in lexy(length - 1):
                yield ch + w
```

for w in lexy(3):
 print(w)

ITERATOR OBJECTS

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    // Use i
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for (cont::iterator i = cont.begin(); i != cont.end(); ++i) {
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Java 1.4 is similar in its use of the Enumeration interface:

```
Enumeration e = cont.elements();
while (e.hasMoreElements()) {
   MyObj o = (MyObj) e.nextElement();
   // Use o
}
```

Many modern languages provide convenient syntax for iterating over sequences generated using iterators. Behind the scenes, this is translated into code that explicitly uses iterator objects.

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Modern Java (post Java 5):
```

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for (MyObj obj : cont) {
   // Use obj
}
```

```
Modern C++ (post C++11):
```

```
for (auto &obj : cont) {
   // Use obj
}
```

In languages without iterators/generators (e.g., C), we can simulate iterators using function calls:

```
for (it = begin(coll); it != end(coll); it = next(it)) {
   /* Do something with *it */
}
```

Functions being first-class objects allows passing a function to be applied to every element to an "iterator" that traverses the collection.

Haskell:

doubles = map (* 2) [1 ..]
pairs = zip [1 ..] doubles
doubles2 = filter even [1 ..]

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while (condition) { S1; S2; ... }
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becomes

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procedure P() {
    if (condition) {
        S1; S2; ...; P();
    }
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The type of recursive procedure above can be translated back into a loop by the compiler (tail recursion).

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Normal-order evaluation

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Normal-order evaluation

- Arguments are passed to the subroutine unevaluated.
- The subroutine evaluates them as needed.

• Default in most programming languages

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- Example: macros in C/C++

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Normal-order evalutaion is potentially inefficient. Why? How can we avoid this?

LAZY EVALUATION

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- Evaluate expressions when their values are needed.
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Haskell:

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naturals :: [Int]
naturals = next 1
where next i = i : rest
where rest = next (i+1)
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take 10 naturals -- [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]

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Strict evaluation may be more efficient. Haskell provides means for us to force the strict evaluation of arguments (bang patterns).

By default, Scheme uses strict applicative-order evaluation.

This code runs forever:

A lazy version of the same code:

(define head car)

(define (tail stream) (force (cdr stream)))

(head naturals) ; 1
(head (tail naturals)) ; 2
(head (tail (tail naturals))); 3

```
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  (syntax-rules ()
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What's the problem with this implementation of delay?

It evaluates **exp** every time. This is inefficient (essentially normal-order evaluation).

A better implementation of delay:

```
(define-syntax delay
 (syntax-rules ()
   ((delay exp) (memoize (lambda () exp)))))
(define (memoize f)
   (let ((first? #t)
        (val #f))
   (lambda ()
        (if first?
             (begin (set! first? #f))
```

```
(set! val (f))))
val)))
```

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    ((delay exp) (memoize (lambda () exp)))))
(define (memoize f)
   (let ((first? #t)
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     (lambda ()
       (if first?
         (begin (set! first? #f)
                (set! val (f))))
       val)))
```

This is pretty much what Haskell does.

#define DIVIDES(n, a) (!((n) % (a)))

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Problems:

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• Cannot be used recursively.

• Textual expansion may not mean what's intended: Evaluate DIVIDES(x, y+2) using the above definition and using

#define DIVIDES(n, a) (!(n % a))

• Side effects: Evaluate MAX(x++, y++) using
 #define MAX(a, b) ((a) > (b) ? (a) : (b))

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 #define SWAP(a, b) { int t = a; a = b; b = t; }

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In C++, inline functions are usually a better alternative.

SUMMARY

- Think in terms of control abstractions rather than syntax!
- Expression evaluation order is left to the compiler; avoid side effects.
- Understand what a variable use means (l-value/r-value; value/reference).
- Short-circuiting helps efficiency and allows some elegant idioms.
- Avoid goto.
- switch is often more efficient than multi-way if.
- for-loops can be more efficient than while-loops (not in C, Java, Python, ...).
- Iterators/generators provide an abstraction for enumerating the elements of a sequence useful for iteration constructs.
- Recursion is more general/powerful than iteration.
- Applicative-order evaluation is fast, normal-order evaluation is flexible, lazy evaluation offers a trade-off.