Control Flow

COMS W4115

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Spring 2007
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Control Flow

"Time is Nature's way of preventing everything from happening at once."

There are at least seven manifestations:

1. Sequencing	`foo(); bar();`
2. Selection	`if (a) foo();`
3. Iteration	`while (i<10) foo(i);`
4. Procedures	`foo(10,20);`
5. Recursion	`foo(int i) { foo(i-1); }`
6. Concurrency	`foo() || bar()`
7. Nondeterminism	`do a -> foo(); [] b -> bar();`

Ordering Within Expressions

What code does a compiler generate for

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

Most likely something like

```
tmp = b + c;
a = tmp + d;
```

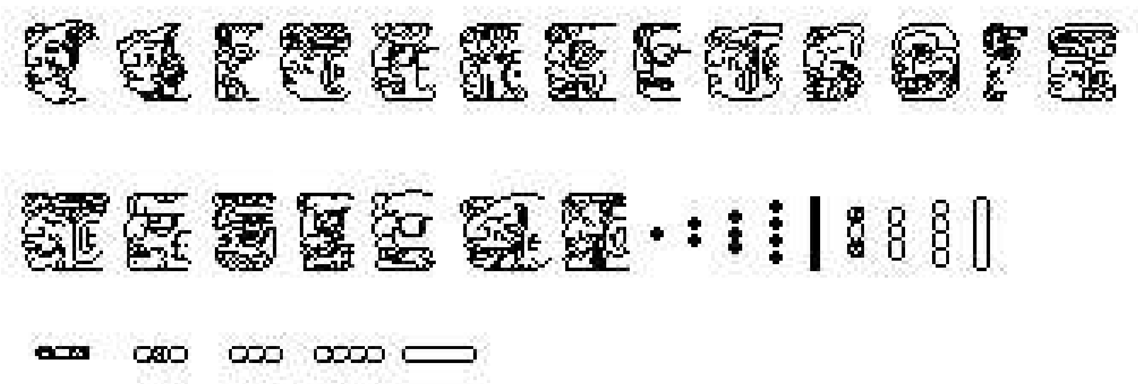
(Assumes left-to-right evaluation of expressions.)

Order of Evaluation

Why would you care?

Expression evaluation can have side-effects.

Floating-point numbers don’t behave like numbers.



Mayan numbers

Side-effects

```
int x = 0;

int foo() { x += 5; return x; }

int a = foo() + x + foo();
```

What’s the final value of a?

Side-effects

```
int x = 0;

int foo() { x += 5; return x; }

int a = foo() + x + foo();
```

GCC sets a=25.

Sun's C compiler gave a=20.

C says expression evaluation order is implementation-dependent.

Side-effects

Java prescribes left-to-right evaluation.

```
class Foo {
  static int x;
  static int foo() { x += 5; return x; }
  public static void main(String args[]) {
    int a = foo() + x + foo();
    System.out.println(a);
  }
}
```

Always prints 20.

Number Behavior

Basic number axioms:

$a + x$	$=$	a if and only if $x = 0$	Additive identity
$(a + b) + c$	$=$	$a + (b + c)$	Associative
$a(b + c)$	$=$	$ab + ac$	Distributive

Misbehaving Floating-Point Numbers

1e20 + 1e-20 = 1e20

1e-20 $\ll$ 1e20

(1 + 9e-7) + 9e-7 $\neq$ 1 + (9e-7 + 9e-7)

9e-7 $\ll$ 1, so it is discarded, however, 1.8e-6 is large enough

$1.00001(1.000001 - 1) \neq 1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 - 1.00001 \cdot 1$

$1.00001 \cdot 1.000001 = 1.00001100001$ requires too much intermediate precision.

What's Going On?

Floating-point numbers are represented using an exponent/significand format:

$$1 \quad \underbrace{10000001}_{\text{8-bit exponent}} \quad \underbrace{01100000000000000000000}_{\text{23-bit significand}}$$

$$= \quad -1.011_2 \times 2^{129-127} = -1.375 \times 4 = -5.5.$$

What to remember:

$$\underbrace{1363.4568}_{\text{represented}}\underbrace{46353963456293}_{\text{rounded}}$$

What's Going On?

Results are often rounded:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1.00001000000 \\ \times 1.00000100000 \\ \hline 1.000011\,\underbrace{00001}_{\text{rounded}} \end{array}$$

When $b \approx -c$, $b + c$ is small, so $ab + ac \neq a(b + c)$ because precision is lost when ab is calculated.

Moral: Be aware of floating-point number properties when writing complex expressions.

Short-Circuit Evaluation

When you write

```
if (disaster_could_happen)
  avoid_it();
else
  cause_a_disaster();
```

`cause_a_disaster()` is not called when **`disaster_could_happen`** is true.

The *if* statement evaluates its bodies lazily: only when necessary.

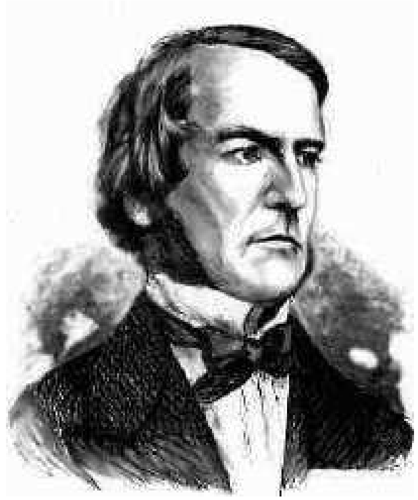
Short-Circuit Evaluation

The section operator **? :** does this, too.

```
cost =
 disaster_possible ? avoid_it() : cause_it();
```

cause_it is not called if **disaster_possible** is true.

Logical Operators



In Java and C, Boolean logical operators "short-circuit" to provide this facility:

```
if (disaster_possible || case_it()) { ... }
```

cause_it() only called if **disaster_possible** is false.

The **&&** operator does the same thing.

Useful when a later test could cause an error:

```
int a[10];

if (i => 0 && i < 10 && a[i] == 0) { ... }
```

Short-Circuit Operators

Not all languages provide short-circuit operators. Pascal does not.

C and Java have two sets:

Logical operators **||** **&&** short-circuit.

Boolean (bitwise) operators **|** **&** do not.

Unstructured Control-Flow

Assembly languages usually provide three types of instructions:

Pass control to next instruction:

```
add, sub, mov, cmp
```

Pass control to another instruction:

```
jmp rts
```

Conditionally pass control next or elsewhere:

```
beq bne blt
```

Unstructured Control-Flow

So-called because it's easy to create spaghetti:

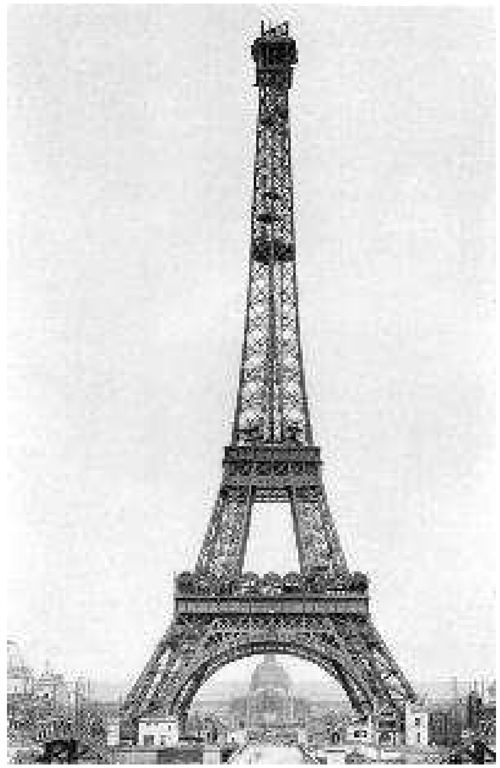
```
   beq A
B:
   jmp C
A:
   beq D
C:
   beq B
D:
   bne B
```

Structured Control-Flow

The “object-oriented languages” of the 1960s and 70s.

Structured programming replaces the evil goto with structured (nested) constructs such as

- if-then-else
- for
- while
- do .. while
- break
- continue
- return



Gotos vs. Structured Programming

A typical use of a goto is building a loop. In BASIC:

```
10 print I
20 I = I + 1
30 IF I < 10 GOTO 10
```

A cleaner version in C using structured control flow:

```
do {
  printf("%d\n", i);
  i = i + 1;
} while ( i < 10 )
```

An even better version

```
for (i = 0 ; i < 10 ; i++) printf("%d\n", i);
```

Gotos vs. Structured Programming

Break and continue leave loops prematurely:

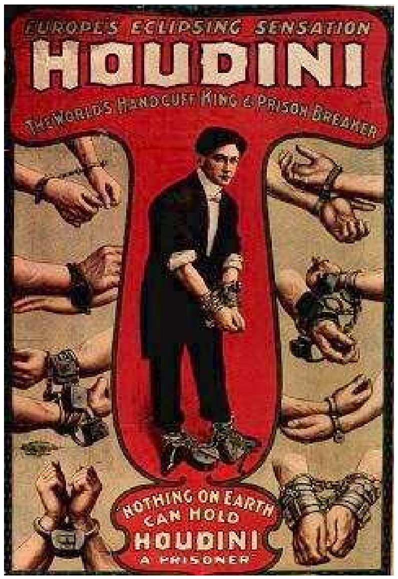
```
for ( i = 0 ; i < 10 ; i++ ) {
  if ( i == 5 ) continue;
  if ( i == 8 ) break;
  printf("%d\n", i);
}
```

```
Again: if (!(i < 10)) goto Break;
  if ( i == 5 ) goto Continue;
  if ( i == 8 ) goto Break;
  printf("%d\n", i);
Continue: i++; goto Again;
Break:
```

Escaping from Loops

Java allows you to escape from labeled loops:

```
a: for (int i = 0 ; i < 10 ; i++)
     for ( int j = 0 ; j < 10 ; j++) {
        System.out.println(i + "," + j);
        if (i == 2 && j == 8) continue a;
        if (i == 8 && j == 4) break a;
     }
```



Gotos vs. Structured Programming

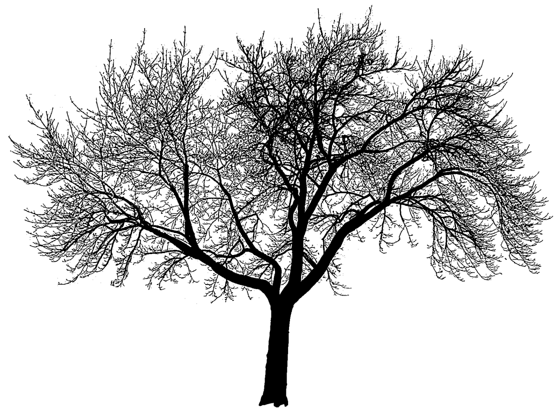
Pascal has no “return” statement for escaping from functions/procedures early, so goto was necessary:

```
procedure consume_line(var line : string);
begin
  if line[i] = '%' then goto 100;
  (* .... *)
100:
end
```

In C and many others, return does this for you:

```
void consume_line(char *line) {
  if (line[0] == '%') return;
}
```

Multi-way Branching



```
switch (s) {
case 1: one(); break;
case 2: two(); break;
case 3: three(); break;
case 4: four(); break;
}
```

Switch sends control to one of the case labels. Break terminates the statement.

Implementing multi-way branches

```
switch (s) {
case 1: one(); break;
case 2: two(); break;
case 3: three(); break;
case 4: four(); break;
}
```

Obvious way:

```
if (s == 1) { one(); }
else if (s == 2) { two(); }
else if (s == 3) { three(); }
else if (s == 4) { four(); }
```

Reasonable, but we can sometimes do better.

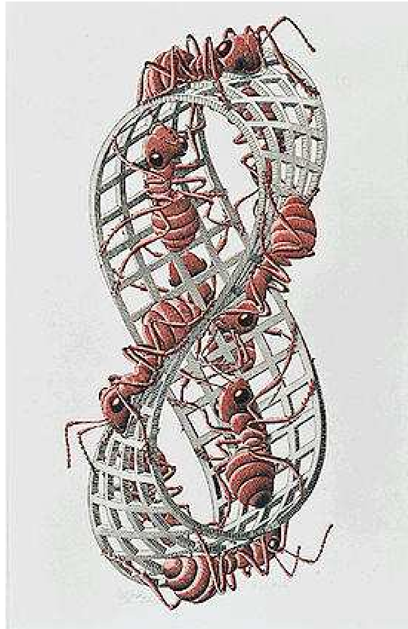
Implementing multi-way branches

If the cases are *dense*, a branch table is more efficient:

```
switch (s) {
case 1: one(); break;
case 2: two(); break;
case 3: three(); break;
case 4: four(); break;
}
```

```
labels l[] = { L1, L2, L3, L4 }; /* Array of labels */
if (s>=1 && s<=4) goto l[s-1];   /* not legal C */
L1: one(); goto Break;
L2: two(); goto Break;
L3: three(); goto Break;
L4: four(); goto Break;
Break:
```

Recursion and Iteration



Consider computing

$$\sum_{i=0}^{10} f(i)$$

In C, the most obvious evaluation is iterative:

```
double total = 0;
for ( i = 0 ; i <= 10 ; i++ )
  total += f(i);
```

Recursion and Iteration

$$\sum_{i=0}^{10} f(i)$$

But this can also be defined recursively

```
double sum(int i)
{
  double fi = f(i);
  if (i <= 10) return fi + sum(i+1);
  else return fi;
}

sum(0);
```

Recursion and Iteration

Grammars make a similar choice:

Iteration:

```
clist : item ( "," item )* ;
```

Recursion:

```
clist : item tail ;

tail : "," item tail
     | /* nothing */
     ;
```

Tail-Recursion and Iteration

```
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);
}
```

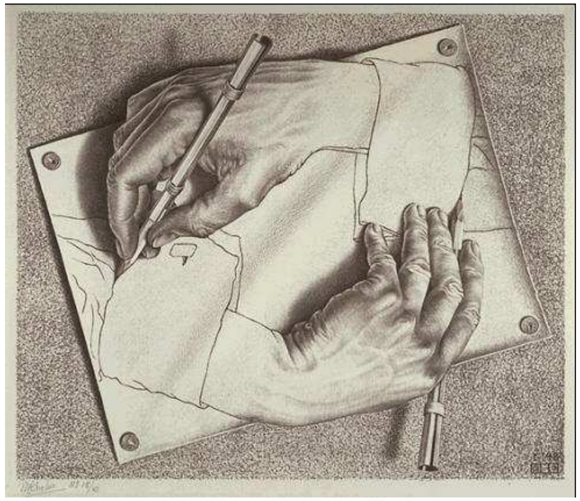
Notice: no computation follows any recursive calls.

Stack is not necessary: all variables “dead” after the call.

Local variable space can be reused. Trivial since the collection of variables is the same.

Tail-Recursion and Iteration

```
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);
}
```



Can be rewritten into:

```
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 and Iteration

Good compilers, especially those for functional languages, identify and optimize tail recursive functions.

Less common for imperative languages.

But gcc -O was able to rewrite the gcd example.

Applicative- and Normal-Order Evaluation

```
int p(int i) { printf("%d ", i); return i; }

void q(int a, int b, int c)
{
  int total = a;
  printf("%d ", b);
  total += c;
}
```

What is printed by

```
q( p(1), 2, p(3) );
```

Applicative- and Normal-Order Evaluation

```
int p(int i) { printf("%d ", i); return i; }
void q(int a, int b, int c)
{
  int total = a;
  printf("%d ", b);
  total += c;
}
q( p(1), 2, p(3) );
```

Applicative: arguments evaluated before function is called.

Result: 1 3 2

Normal: arguments evaluated when used.

Result: 1 2 3

Applicative- vs. and Normal-Order

Most languages use applicative order.

Macro-like languages often use normal order.

```
#define p(x) (printf("%d ",x), x)
#define q(a,b,c) total = (a), \
   printf("%d ", (b)), \
   total += (c)

q( p(1), 2, p(3) );
```

Prints 1 2 3.

Some functional languages also use normal order evaluation to avoid doing work. “Lazy Evaluation”

Argument Order Evaluation

C does not define argument evaluation order:

```
int p(int i) { printf("%d ", i); return i; }
int q(int a, int b, int c) {}

q( p(1), p(2), p(3) );
```

Might print 1 2 3, 3 2 1, or something else.

This is an example of *nondeterminism*.

Nondeterminism

Nondeterminism is not the same as random:

Compiler usually chooses an order when generating code.

Optimization, exact expressions, or run-time values may affect behavior.

Bottom line: don't know what code will do, but often know set of possibilities.

```
int p(int i) { printf("%d ", i); return i; }
int q(int a, int b, int c) {}
q( p(1), p(2), p(3) );
```

Will *not* print 5 6 7. It will print one of

1 2 3, 1 3 2, 2 1 3, 2 3 1, 3 1 2, 3 2 1

Nondeterminism

Nondeterminism lurks in most languages in one form or another.

Especially prevelant in concurrent languages.

Sometimes it's convenient, though:

```
if a >= b -> max := a
[] b >= a -> max := b
fi
```

Nondeterministic (irrelevant) choice when a=b.

Often want to avoid it, however.

Implementing Inheritance

Simple: Add new fields to end of the object

Fields in base class always at same offset in derived class

Consequence: Derived classes can never remove fields

C++

```
class Shape {
  double x, y;
};

class Box : Shape {
  double h, w;
};
```

Equivalent C

```
struct Shape {
  double x, y;
};

struct Box {
  double x, y;
  double h, w;
};
```

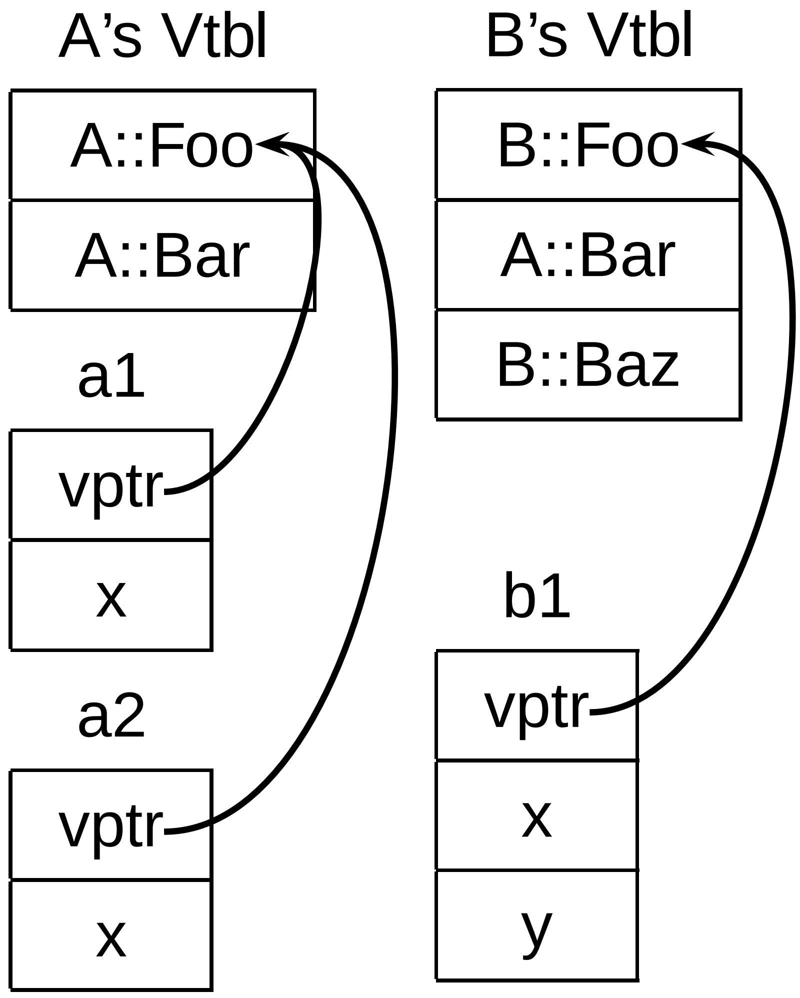
Virtual Functions

```
class Shape {
  virtual void draw(); // Invoked by object's class
};                     // not its compile-time type.
class Line : public Shape {
  void draw();
};
class Arc : public Shape {
  void draw();
};

Shape *s[10];
s[0] = new Line;
s[1] = new Arc;
s[0]->draw();    // Invoke Line::draw()
s[1]->draw();    // Invoke Arc::draw()
```

Virtual Functions

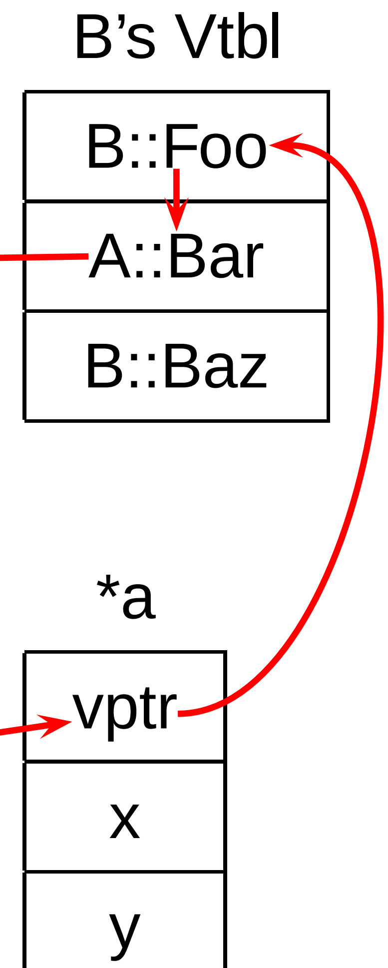
The Trick: Add a “virtual table” pointer to each object.

```
struct A {
  int x;
  virtual void Foo();
  virtual void Bar();
};
struct B : A {
  int y;
  virtual void Foo();
  virtual void Baz();
};

A a1, a2; B b1;
```



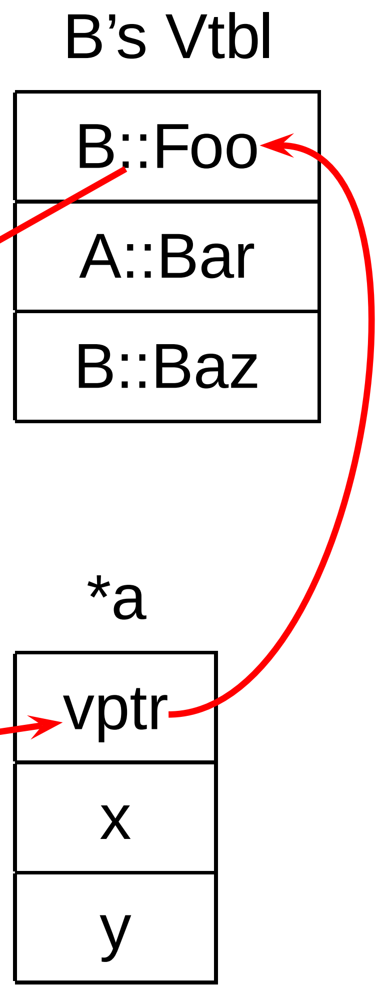
Virtual Functions

```
struct A {
  int x;
  virtual void Foo();
  virtual void Bar()
    { do_something(); }
};
struct B : A {
  int y;
  virtual void Foo();
  virtual void Baz();
};
A *a = new B;
a->Bar();
```



Virtual Functions

```
struct A {
  int x;
  virtual void Foo();
  virtual void Bar();
};
struct B : A {
  int y;
  virtual void Foo()
    { somethingelse(); }
  virtual void Baz();
};
A *a = new B;
a->Foo();
```



Multiple Inheritance

Rocket Science,
and nearly as dangerous

Inherit from two or more classes

```
class Window { ... };

class Border { ... };

class BWindow : public Window,
                public Border {
  ...
};
```

Multiple Inheritance Ambiguities

```
class Window {
  void draw();
};

class Border {
  void draw();    // OK
};

class BWindow : public Window,
                public Border { };

BWindow bw;
bw.draw();    // Compile-time error: ambiguous
```

Resolving Ambiguities Explicitly

```
class Window { void draw(); };

class Border { void draw(); };

class BWindow : public Window,
                public Border {
  void draw() { Window::draw(); }
};

BWindow bw;
bw.draw();    // OK
```

Duplicate Base Classes

A class may be inherited more than once

```
class Drawable { ... };
class Window : public Drawable { ... };
class Border : public Drawable { ... };
class BWindow : public Window, public
Border { ... };
```

BWindow gets two copies of the Drawable base class.

Virtual Base Classes

Virtual base classes are inherited at most once

```
class Drawable { ... };
class Window : public virtual Drawable {
... };
class Border : public virtual Drawable {
... };
class BWindow : public Window, public
Border { ... };
```

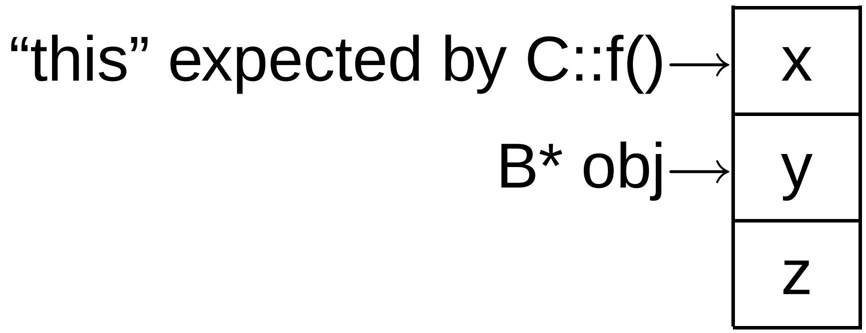
BWindow gets one copy of the Drawable base class

Implementing Multiple Inheritance

A virtual function expects a pointer to its object

```
struct A { int x; virtual void f(); }
struct B { int y; virtual void f(); }
struct C : A, B { int z; void f(); }
```

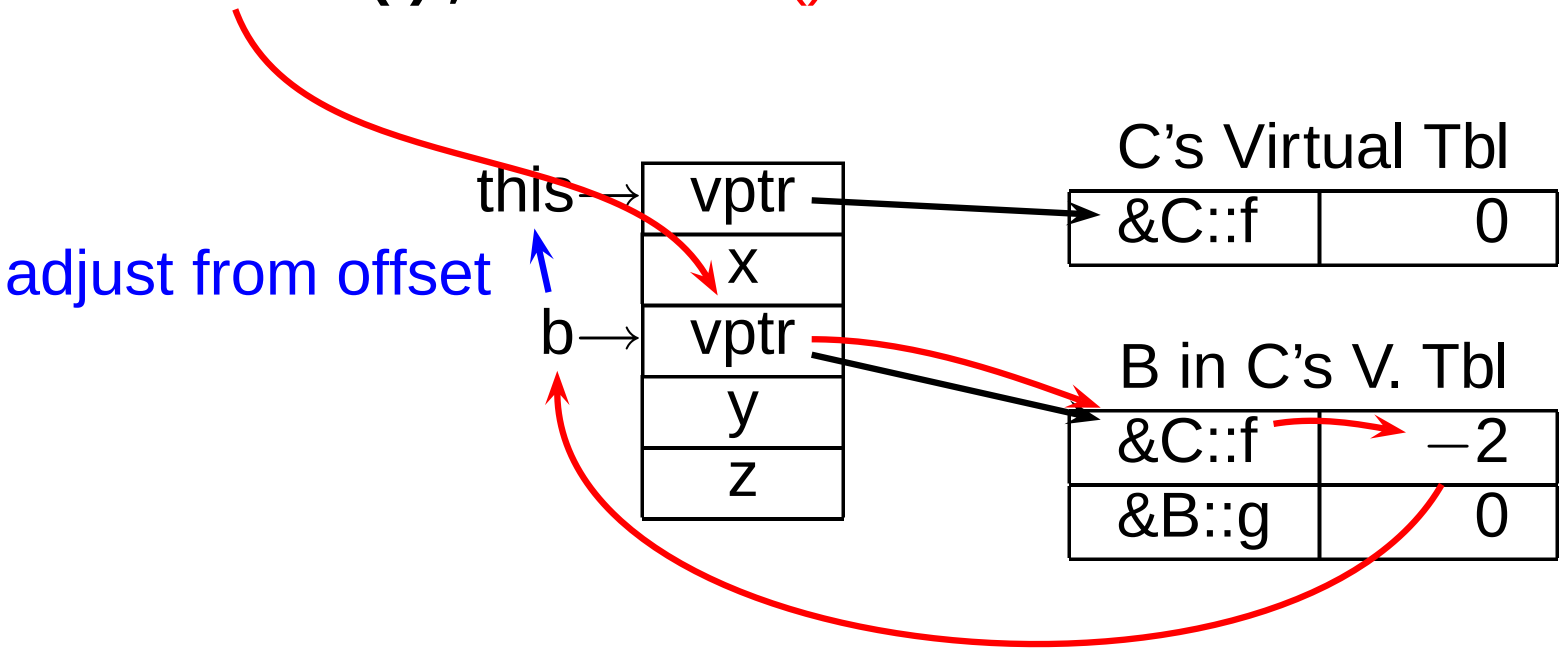
```
B *b = new C;
b->f(); // Calls C::f()
```



“obj” is, by definition, a pointer to a B, not a C. Pointer must be adjusted depending on the actual type of the object. At least two ways to do this.

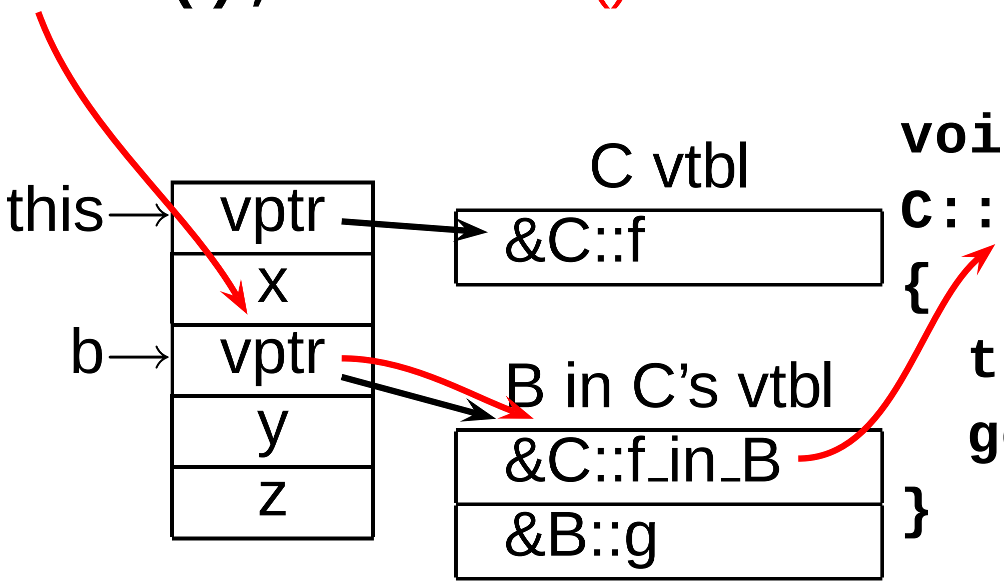
Implementation using Offsets

```
struct A { int x; virtual void f(); }
struct B { int y; virtual void f();
                  virtual void g(); }
struct C : A, B { int z; void f(); }
B *b = new C;
b->f(); // Call C::f()
```



Implementation using Thunks

```
struct A { int x; virtual void f(); }
struct B { int y; virtual void f();
                  virtual void g(); }
struct C : A, B { int z; void f(); }
B *b = new C;
b->f(); // Call C::f()
```




```
void
C::f_in_B(void *this)
{
  this = this - 2;
  goto C::f;
}
```

Offsets vs. Thunks

Offsets	Thunks
Offsets to virtual tables	Helper functions
Can be implemented in C	Needs “extra” semantics
All virtual functions cost more	Only multiply-inherited functions cost
Tricky	Very Tricky

Exceptions

A high-level replacement for C's setjmp/longjmp.

```
struct Except { };

void baz() { throw Except; }
void bar() { baz(); }

void foo() {
  try {
    bar();
  } catch (Except e) {
    printf("oops");
  }
}
```

One Way to Implement Exceptions

```
try {                   push(Ex, Handler);

  throw Ex;             throw(Ex);
                        pop();
                        goto Exit;
} catch (Ex e) {      Handler:
  foo();                foo();
}                     Exit:
```

`push()` adds a handler to a stack

`pop()` removes a handler

`throw()` finds first matching handler

Problem: imposes overhead even with no exceptions

Implementing Exceptions Cleverly

Real question is the nearest handler for a given PC.

```
1 void foo() {
2
3   try {
4     bar();
5   } catch (Ex1 e) { H1: a(); }
6
7 }

8 void bar() {
9
10   try {
11     throw Ex1();
12   } catch (Ex2 e) { H2: b(); }
13
14 }
```

Lines	Action
1–2	Reraise
3–5	H1
6–9	Reraise
10–12	H2
13–14	Reraise

1. look in table

2. H2 doesn’t handle Ex1, reraise

3. look in table