

Elements of Programming Languages

Lecture 9: Imperative programming

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Mutable vs. immutable

- Advantages of immutability:
 - Referential transparency (substitution of equals for equals); programs easier to reason about and optimize
 - Types tell us more about what a program can/cannot do
- Advantages of mutability:
 - Some common data structures easier to implement
 - Easier to translate to machine code (in a performance-preserving way)
 - Seems closely tied to popular OOP model of “objects with hidden state and public methods”
- Today we’ll consider programming with assignable variables and loops (L_{While}) and then discuss procedures and other forms of control flow

The story so far

- So far we’ve mostly considered *pure* computations.
- Once a variable is bound to a value, the value *never changes*.
 - that is, variables are *immutable*.
- This is **not** how most programming languages treat variables!
 - In most languages, we can *assign* new values to variables: that is, variables are *mutable* by default
- Just a few languages are completely “pure” (Haskell).
- Others strike a balance:
 - e.g. Scala distinguishes immutable (`val`) variables and mutable (`var`) variables
 - similarly `const` in Java, C

While-programs

- Let’s start with a simple example: L_{While} , with *statements*

$$\text{Stmt} \ni s ::= \text{skip} \mid s_1; s_2 \mid x := e \mid \text{if } e \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2 \mid \text{while } e \text{ do } s$$

- `skip` does nothing
- `s1; s2` does `s1`, then `s2`
- `x := e` evaluates `e` and **assigns** the value to `x`
- `if e then s1 else s2` evaluates `e`, and evaluates `s1` or `s2` based on the result.
- `while e do s` tests `e`. If true, evaluate `s` and **loop**; otherwise stop.
- We typically use `{ }` to parenthesize statements.

A simple example: factorial again

- In Scala, mutable variables can be defined with var

```
var n = ...
var x = 1
while(n > 0) {
  x = n * x
  n = n-1
}
```

- In L_{While} , all variables are mutable

```
x := 1; while (n > 0) do {x := n * x; n := n - 1}
```

An interpreter for L_{While}

```
def exec(env: Env[Value], s: Stmt): Env[Value] =
  s match {
    ...
    case WhileDo(e,s) => eval(env, e) match {
      case BoolV(true) =>
        val env1 = exec(env,s)
        exec(env1, WhileDo(e,s))
      case BoolV(false) => env
    }
    case Assign(x,e) =>
      val v = eval(env,e)
      env + (x -> v)
  }
```

An interpreter for L_{While}

```
def exec(env: Env[Value], s: Stmt): Env[Value] =
  s match {
    case Skip => env
    case Seq(s1,s2) =>
      val env1 = exec(env, s1)
      exec(env1,s2)
    case IfThenElseS(e,s1,s2) => eval(env,e) match {
      case BoolV(true) => exec(env,s1)
      case BoolV(false) => exec(env,s2)
    }
    ...
  }
```

While-programs: evaluation

$$\sigma, s \Downarrow \sigma'$$

$$\frac{}{\sigma, \text{skip} \Downarrow \sigma} \quad \frac{\sigma, s_1 \Downarrow \sigma' \quad \sigma', s_2 \Downarrow \sigma''}{\sigma, s_1; s_2 \Downarrow \sigma''}$$

$$\frac{\sigma, e \Downarrow \text{true} \quad \sigma, s_1 \Downarrow \sigma'}{\sigma, \text{if } e \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2 \Downarrow \sigma'} \quad \frac{\sigma, e \Downarrow \text{false} \quad \sigma, s_2 \Downarrow \sigma'}{\sigma, \text{if } e \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2 \Downarrow \sigma'}$$

$$\frac{\sigma, e \Downarrow \text{true} \quad \sigma, s \Downarrow \sigma' \quad \sigma', \text{while } e \text{ do } s \Downarrow \sigma''}{\sigma, \text{while } e \text{ do } s \Downarrow \sigma''}$$

$$\frac{\sigma, e \Downarrow \text{false}}{\sigma, \text{while } e \text{ do } s \Downarrow \sigma} \quad \frac{\sigma(e) \Downarrow v}{\sigma, x := e \Downarrow \sigma[x := v]}$$

- Here, $\sigma(e)$ replaces all variables in e with their (current) values.

Examples

- $x := y + 1; z := 2 * x$

$$\frac{\frac{\sigma_1(y + 1) \Downarrow 2}{\sigma_1, x := y + 1 \Downarrow \sigma_2} \quad \frac{\sigma_2(2 * x) \Downarrow 4}{\sigma_2, y := 2 * x \Downarrow \sigma_3}}{\sigma_1, x := y + 1; y := 2 * x \Downarrow \sigma_3}$$

- where

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1 &= [y := 1] \\ \sigma_2 &= [x := 2, y := 1] \\ \sigma_3 &= [x := 2, y := 1, z := 4]\end{aligned}$$



Procedures

- L_{While} is not a realistic language.
- Among other things, it lacks *procedures*
- Example (C/Java):


```
int fact(int n) {
    int x = 1;
    while(n > 0) {
        x = x*n;
        n = n-1;
    }
    return x;
}
```
- Procedures can be added to L_{While} (much like functions in L_{Rec})
- Rather than do this, we'll show how to combine L_{While} with L_{Rec} later.



Other control flow constructs

- We've taken "if" (with both "then" and "else" branches) and "while" to be primitive
- We can **define** some other operations in terms of these:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{if } e \text{ then } s &\iff \text{if } e \text{ then } s \text{ else skip} \\ \text{do } s \text{ while } e &\iff s; \text{while } e \text{ do } s \\ \text{for } (i \in n \dots m) \text{ do } s &\iff i := n; \\ &\quad \text{while } i \leq m \text{ do } \{ \\ &\quad \quad s; i = i + 1 \\ &\quad \}\end{aligned}$$

- as seen in C, Java, etc.



Structured vs. unstructured programming

- All of the languages we've seen so far are *structured*
 - meaning, control flow is managed using if, while, procedures, functions, etc.
- However, low-level machine code doesn't have any of these.
- A machine-code program is just a sequence of instructions in memory
- The only control flow is branching:
 - "unconditionally go to instruction at address n "
 - "if some condition holds, go to instruction at address n "
- Similarly, "goto" statements were the main form of control flow in many early languages



“GO TO” Considered Harmful

- In a famous letter, Dijkstra listed many disadvantages of “goto” and related constructs
- It allows you to write “spaghetti code”, where control flow is very difficult to decipher
- For efficiency/historical reasons, many languages include such “unstructured” features:
 - “goto” — jump to a specific program location
 - “switch” statements
 - “break” and “continue” in loops
- It’s important to know about these features, their pitfalls and their safe uses.

goto in C: pitfalls

- The scope of the goto L statement and the target L might be different
- for that matter, they might not even be in the same procedure!
- For example, what does this do:


```
goto L;
if(1) {
    int k = fact(3);
L:  printf("%d",k);
}
```
- Answer: k will be some random value!

goto in C

- The C (and C++) language includes goto
- In C, goto L jumps to the statement labeled L
- A typical (relatively sane) use of goto


```
... do some stuff ...
    if (error) goto error;
... do some more stuff ...
    if (error2) goto error;
... do some more stuff...
error: .. handle the error...
```
- We’ll see other, better-structured ways to do this using exceptions.

goto: caveats

- goto can be used safely in C, but is best avoided unless you have a really good reason
- e.g. very high performance/systems code
- Safe use: within same procedure/scope
- Or: to jump “out” of a nested loop

goto fail

- What's wrong with this picture?

```
if (error test 1)
  goto fail;
if (error test 2)
  goto fail;
if (error test 3)
  goto fail;
...
fail: ... handle error ...
```

- (In C, braces on if are optional; if they're left out, only the first goto fail statement is conditional!)
- This led to an Apple SSL security vulnerability in 2014 (see <https://gotofail.com/>)



switch statements

- We've seen case or match constructs in Scala
- The switch statement in C, Java, etc. is similar:

```
switch (month) {
  case 1: print("January"); break;
  case 2: print("February"); break;
  ...
  default: print("unknown month"); break;
}
```

- However, typically the argument must be a base type like int



switch statements: gotchas

- See the break; statement?
- It's an important part of the control flow!
 - it says "now jump out the end of the switch statement"

```
month = 1;
switch (month) {
  case 1: print("January");
  case 2: print("February");
  ...
  default: print("unknown month");
} // prints all months!
```

- Can you think of a good reason why you would want to leave out the break?



Break and continue

- The break and continue statements are also allowed in loops in C/Java family languages.

```
for(i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
  if (i % 2 == 0) continue;
  if (i == 7) break;
  print(i);
}
```

- "Continue" says *Skip the rest of this iteration of the loop.*
- "Break" says *Jump to the next statement after this loop*
- This will print 135 and then exit the loop.



Labeled break and continue

- In Java, `break` and `continue` can use labels.

```
OUTER: for(i = 0; i < 10; i++) {  
    INNER: for(j = 0; j < 10; j++) {  
        if (j > i) continue INNER;  
        if (i == 4) break OUTER;  
        print(j);  
    }  
}
```

- This will print 001012 and then exit the loop.
- (Labeled) `break` and `continue` accommodate some of the safe uses of `goto` without as many sharp edges

Summary

- Many real-world programming languages have:
 - 1 mutable state
 - 2 structured control flow (if/then, while, exceptions)
 - 3 procedures
- We've showed how to model and interpret L_{While} , a simple imperative language
- and discussed a variety of (unstructured) control flow structures, such as "goto", "switch" and "break/continue".
- Next time:
 - Guest lecture by Michel Steuwer on *Domain-specific languages and optimizations for parallel programming*