Programming Languages

Session 3 – Main Theme
Control Structures: Loops, Conditionals, and Case Statements

Dr. Jean-Claude Franchitti

New York University
Computer Science Department
Courant Institute of Mathematical Sciences

Adapted from course textbook resources
Programming Language Pragmatics (3rd Edition)
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Agenda

1. Session Overview
2. Control Structures: Loops, Conditionals, and Case Statements
3. Conclusion
What is the course about?

- **Course description and syllabus:**
  - [http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001](http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001)

- **Textbook:**
  - *Programming Language Pragmatics (3rd Edition)*
    - Michael L. Scott
    - Morgan Kaufmann

- **Additional References:**
  - Osinski, Lecture notes, Summer 2008
  - Barrett, Lecture notes, Fall 2008
  - Gottlieb, Lecture notes, Fall 2009
  - Grimm, Lecture notes, Spring 2010

Session Agenda

- Session Overview
- Control Structures: Loops, Conditionals, and Case Statements
- Conclusion
Icons / Metaphors

- Information
- Common Realization
- Knowledge/Competency Pattern
- Governance
- Alignment
- Solution Approach

Session 2 Review

- Use of Types
- Name, Scope, and Binding
- Names
- Binding
- Early vs. Late Binding Time Advantages Detailed
- Lifetimes
- Lifetime and Storage Management
- Garbage Collection
- Scopes
- Scope Rules
- Scope Rules – Example: Static vs. Dynamic
- The Meaning of Names within a Scope
- Bindings of Referencing Environments
- Separate Compilation
- Conclusions
Agenda

1. Session Overview
2. Control Structures: Loops, Conditionals, and Case Statements
3. Conclusion

Control Structures: Loops, Conditionals, and Case Statements

- Control Flow
- Control Structures
- Statement Grouping
- Expression Evaluation
- Sequencing
- Semicolons
- Selection
- Lists / Iteration
- Recursion
- Conclusions
Basic paradigms for control flow:

» Sequencing
» Selection
» Iteration
» Procedural Abstraction
» Recursion
» Concurrency
» Exception Handling and Speculation
» Nondeterminacy

Structured vs. Unstructured Flow

» Early languages relied heavily on unstructured flow, especially goto’s.

» Common uses of goto have been captured by structured control statements.
  • Fortran had a DO loop, but no way to exit early except goto
  • C uses break for that purpose
The Infamous Goto

- In machine language, there are no if statements or loops
- We only have branches, which can be either unconditional or conditional (on a very simple condition)
- With this, we can implement loops, if statements, and case statements. In fact, we only need
  - 1. increment
  - 2. decrement
  - 3. branch on zero
  - to build a universal machine (one that is Turing complete).
- We don’t do this in high-level languages because unstructured use of the goto can lead to confusing programs. See "Go To Statement Considered Harmful" by Edgar Dijkstra

Control Flow (3/3)

A control structure is any mechanism that departs from the default of straight-line execution.

- selection
  - if statements
  - case statements
- iteration
  - while loops (unbounded)
  - for loops
  - iteration over collections
- other
  - goto
  - call/return
  - exceptions
  - continuations

Control Structures (1/2)
In assembly language, (essentially) the only control structures are:

- Progression: Move to the next statement (increment the program counter).
- Unconditional jump:
  \[ \text{JMP A} \quad \text{Jump to address A} \]
- Conditional jump:
  \[ \text{JMZ R,A} \quad \text{If (R==0) then jump to A} \]

Possible forms of conditions and addresses vary.

Many languages provide a way to group several statements together
- PASCAL introduces begin-end pair to mark sequence
- C/C++/JAVA abbreviate keywords to { }
- ADA dispenses with brackets for sequences, because keywords for the enclosing control structure are sufficient

- for \( J \) in 1..N loop ... end loop
  - More writing but more readable
- Another possibility – make indentation significant (e.g., ABC, PYTHON, HASKELL)
Languages may use various notation:
- prefix: (+ 1 2) – Scheme
- postfix: 0 0 moveto – Postscript
- infix: 1 + 2 – C/C++, Java

Infix notation leads to some ambiguity:
- associativity: how operators of the same precedence are grouped
  - – x + y - z = (x + y) - z or x + (y - z) ?
- precedence: the order in which operators are applied
  - – x + y * z = (x + y) * z or x + (y * z) ?

Infix, prefix operators

Precedence, associativity (see Figure 6.1)
- C has 15 levels - too many to remember
- Pascal has 3 levels - too few for good semantics
- Fortran has 8
- Ada has 6
  - Ada puts and & or at same level

**Lesson:** when unsure, use parentheses!
Figure 6.1 Operator precedence levels in Fortran, Pascal, C, and Ada. The operator at the top of the figure group most tightly.

- Ordering of operand evaluation (generally none)
- Application of arithmetic identities
  » distinguish between commutativity, and (assumed to be safe)
  » associativity (known to be dangerous)
    (a + b) + c works if a~=maxint and b~=minint and c<0
    a + (b + c) does not
  » inviolability of parentheses
Short-circuiting

Consider \((a < b) \&\& (b < c)\):

- If \(a >= b\) there is no point evaluating whether \(b < c\) because \((a < b) \&\& (b < c)\) is automatically false

Other similar situations

\[
\begin{align*}
& \text{if} \ (b != 0 \&\& a/b == c) \ldots \\
& \text{if} \ (*p \&\& p->foo) \ldots \\
& \text{if} \ (f || messy()) \ldots
\end{align*}
\]

Variables as values vs. variables as references

- value-oriented languages
  - C, Pascal, Ada
- reference-oriented languages
  - most functional languages (Lisp, Scheme, ML)
  - Clu, Smalltalk
- Algol-68 kinda halfway in-between
- Java deliberately in-between

- built-in types are values
- user-defined types are objects - references
Expression-oriented vs. statement-oriented languages

- expression-oriented:
  - functional languages (Lisp, Scheme, ML)
  - Algol-68
- statement-oriented:
  - most imperative languages
- C kinda halfway in-between (distinguishes)
  - allows expression to appear instead of statement

Orthogonality

- Features that can be used in any combination
  - Meaning is consistent
    - \texttt{if (if b != 0 then a/b == c else false) then ...}
    - \texttt{if (if \texttt{f} then true else \texttt{messy()}) then ...}

Aggregates

- Compile-time constant values of user-defined composite types
Initialization

- Pascal has no initialization facility (assign)
- Assignment statements provide a way to set a value of a variable.
- Language may not provide a way to specify an initial value. This can lead to bugs.
- Some languages provide default initialization.
  - C initializes external variables to zero
- System may check dynamically if a variable is uninitialized
  - IEEE floating point uses special bit pattern (NaN)
  - Requires hardware support and expensive software checking
- Compiler may statically check – Java, C#
  - May be overly conservative
- OO-languages use constructors to initialize dynamically allocated variables

Assignment

- Statement (or expression) executed for its side effect
- Assignment operators (+=, -=, etc)
  - Handy
  - Avoid redundant work (or need for optimization)
  - Perform side effects exactly once
- C --, ++
  - Postfix form
Side Effects

- often discussed in the context of functions
- a side effect is some permanent state change caused by execution of function
  - some noticeable effect of call other than return value
  - in a more general sense, assignment statements provide the ultimate example of side effects
    - they change the value of a variable
    - Side effects change the behavior of subsequent statements and expressions.

SIDE EFFECTS ARE FUNDAMENTAL TO THE WHOLE VON NEUMANN MODEL OF COMPUTING

- In (pure) functional, logic, and dataflow languages, there are no such changes
  - These languages are called SINGLE-ASSIGNMENT languages
Several languages outlaw side effects for functions
   » easier to prove things about programs
   » closer to Mathematical intuition
   » easier to optimize
   » (often) easier to understand
But side effects can be nice
   » consider rand()

Side effects are a particular problem if they affect state used in other parts of the expression in which a function call appears
   » It's nice not to specify an order, because it makes it easier to optimize
   » Fortran says it's OK to have side effects
      • they aren't allowed to change other parts of the expression containing the function call
      • Unfortunately, compilers can't check this completely, and most don't at all
There is a difference between the container for a value ("memory location") and the value itself.

- l-value refers to the locations. (They are on the left hand side.)
- r-value refers to the values.
  - \(3 = x + 1\) – Illegal! "3" Can’t be an l-value
  - \(x = x + 1 - x\) is both an l-value and an r-value

Imperative languages rely on side effects

- Some languages introduced assignment operators.
  - Consider \(a[f(i)] += 4\)
    - More convenient than \(a[f(i)] = a[f(i)] + 4\)
    - Ensures that \(f(i)\) is evaluated once

Some languages allow multiway assignment:

- \(a, b, c = \) getabc() – Python, Perl

Sequencing

- Sequencing
  - specifies a linear ordering on statements
    - one statement follows another
  - very imperative, Von-Neuman
Sequencing

- Pascal: `begin ... end`
- C, C++, Java: `{ ... }
- Ada: Brackets for sequence are unnecessary. Keywords for control structures suffice.
  ```
  for J in 1 .. N loop ... end loop
  ```
- ABC, Python: Indicate structure by indentation.

Semicolons

- Pascal: Semicolons are separators
- C etc.: Semicolons are terminators

```java
begin X := 1; { X = 1;
    Y := 2 Y = 2;
end } end
```
Selection

» sequential if statements
  if ... then ... else
  if ... then ... elsif ... else
    (cond
      (C1) (E1)
      (C2) (E2)
      ...
      (Cn) (En)
      (T) (Et)
    )

if Condition then Statement – PASCAL, ADA
if (Condition) Statement – C/C++, JAVA
To avoid ambiguities, use end marker: end if, “}”
To deal with multiple alternatives, use keyword or bracketing:
  if Condition then
    Statements
  elsif Condition then
    Statements
  else
    Statements
  end if;
Nesting and the infamous “dangling else” problem:

\[
\text{if Condition1 then}
\begin{align*}
\text{if Condition2 then} \\
\text{Statements1}
\end{align*}
\text{else}
\begin{align*}
\text{Statements2}
\end{align*}
\]

The solution is to use end markers. In Ada:

\[
\text{if Condition1 then}
\begin{align*}
\text{if Condition2 then} \\
\text{Statements1}
\end{align*}
\text{end if;}
\text{else}
\begin{align*}
\text{Statements2}
\end{align*}
\text{end if;}
\]

Selection

» Fortran computed gotos

» jump code

• for selection and logically-controlled loops
• no point in computing a Boolean value into a register, then testing it
• instead of passing register containing Boolean out of expression as a synthesized attribute, pass inherited attributes INTO expression indicating where to jump to if true, and where to jump to if false
Jump is especially useful in the presence of short-circuiting

**Example** (section 6.4.1 of book):

```plaintext
if ((A > B) and (C > D)) or (E <> F) then
    then_clause
else
    else_clause
```

**Code generated w/o short-circuiting (Pascal)**

```plaintext
r1 := A -- load
r2 := B
r1 := r1 > r2
r2 := C
r3 := D
r2 := r2 > r3
r1 := r1 & r2
r2 := E
r3 := F
r2 := r2 $<>$ r3
r1 := r1 $|$ r2
if r1 = 0 goto L2
L1: then_clause -- label not actually used
    goto L3
L2: else_clause
L3:  
```
• Code generated w/ short-circuiting (C)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{r1} & := A \\
\text{r2} & := B \\
\text{if} \ r1 \leq r2 & \text{ goto L4} \\
\text{r1} & := C \\
\text{r2} & := D \\
\text{if} \ r1 > r2 & \text{ goto L1} \\
\text{L4:} & \ \ r1 := E \\
\text{r2} & := F \\
\text{if} \ r1 = r2 & \text{ goto L2} \\
\text{L1:} & \ \ \text{then\_clause} \\
& \text{goto L3} \\
\text{L2:} & \ \ \text{else\_clause} \\
\text{L3:} & \ \\
\end{align*}
\]

• Short-Circuit Evaluation

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if} \ (x/y > 5) \{ \ z = \ldots \} & \ // \ \text{what if} \ y == 0? \\
\text{if} \ (y == 0 \ || \ x/y > 5) \{ \ z = \ldots \} \\
\end{align*}
\]

• But binary operators normally evaluate both arguments. Solutions:
  » a lazy evaluation rule for logical operators (LISP, C)
    \[
    \text{C1} \ && \text{C2} \ // \ don't \ evaluate \ C2 \ if \ C1 \ is \ false \\
    \text{C1} \ || \text{C2} \ // \ don't \ evaluate \ C2 \ if \ C1 \ is \ true
    \]
  » a control structure with a different syntax (ADA)
    -- don't evaluate C2
    \[
    \text{if} \ \text{C1} \ \text{and then} \ \text{C2} \ \text{then} -- \ if \ C1 \ is \ false \\
    \text{if} \ \text{C1} \ \text{or else} \ \text{C2} \ \text{then} -- \ if \ C1 \ is \ true
    \]
Multi-way Selection

Case statement needed when there are many possibilities “at the same logical level” (i.e. depending on the same condition)

```ada
case Next_Char is
  when 'I' => Val := 1;
  when 'V' => Val := 5;
  when 'X' => Val := 10;
  when 'C' => Val := 100;
  when 'D' => Val := 500;
  when 'M' => Val := 1000;
  when others => raise Illegal_Roman_Numeral;
end case;
```

Can be simulated by sequence of if-statements, but logic is obscured

Ada Case Statement:

» no flow-through (unlike C/C++)

» all possible choices are covered
  • mechanism to specify default action for choices not given explicitly

» no inaccessible branches:
  • no duplicate choices (C/C++, ADA, JAVA)

» choices must be static (ADA, C/C++, JAVA, ML)

» in many languages, type of expression must be discrete (e.g. no floating point)
Implementation of Case:

- A possible implementation for C/C++/JAVA/ADA style case (if we have a finite set of possibilities, and the choices are computable at compile-time):
  - build table of addresses, one for each choice
  - compute value
  - transform into table index
  - get table element at index and branch to that address
  - execute
  - branch to end of case statement

- This is not the typical implementation for a ML/HASKELL style case

Complications

```plaintext
case (x+1) is
  when integer'first..0 ) Put_Line ("negative");
  when 1 ) Put_Line ("unit");
  when 3 | 5 | 7 | 11 ) Put_Line ("small prime");
  when 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 ) Put_Line ("small even");
  when 21 ) Put_Line ("house wins");
  when 12..20 | 22..99 ) Put_Line ("manageable");
  when others ) Put_Line ("irrelevant");
end case;
```

- Implementation would be a combination of tables and if statements
Unstructured Flow (Duff’s Device)

```c
void send (int *to, int *from, int count) {
    int n = (count + 7) / 8;
    switch (count % 8) {
        case 0: do { *to++ = *from++;
            case 7: *to++ = *from++;
            case 6: *to++ = *from++;
            case 5: *to++ = *from++;
            case 4: *to++ = *from++;
            case 3: *to++ = *from++;
            case 2: *to++ = *from++;
            case 1: *to++ = *from++;
        } while (--n > 0);
    }
}
```

Enumeration-controlled

» Pascal or Fortran-style for loops
  • scope of control variable
  • changes to bounds within loop
  • changes to loop variable within loop
  • value after the loop
Indefinite Loops

- All loops can be expressed as while-loops
  - good for invariant/assertion reasoning
- condition evaluated at each iteration
- if condition initially false, loop is never executed

```
while condition loop ... end loop;
```

is equivalent to
```
if condition then
  while condition loop ... end loop
end if;
```

if condition has no side-effects

Executing While at Least Once

- Sometimes we want to check condition at end instead of at beginning; this will guarantee loop is executed at least once.
  - `repeat ... until` condition; (PASCAL)
  - `do { ... } while` (condition); (C)
- while form is most common can be simulated by while + a boolean variable:

```
first := True;
while (first or else condition) loop
  ...
  first := False;
end loop;
```
Breaking Out

A more common need is to be able to break out of the loop in the middle of an iteration.

- `break` (C/C++, JAVA)
- `last` (PERL)
- `exit` (ADA)

```plaintext
loop
... part A ...
exit when condition;
... part B ...
end loop;
```

Breaking Way Out

Sometimes, we want to break out of several levels of a nested loop

- give names to loops (ADA, PERL)
- use a goto (C/C++)
- use a break + label (JAVA)

```plaintext
Outer: while C1 loop ...
    Inner: while C2 loop ...
        Innermost: while C3 loop ...
            exit Outer when Major_Failure;
            exit Inner when Small_Annoyance;
            ...
    end loop Innermost;
    end loop Inner;
end loop Outer;
```
Definite Loops

» Counting loops are iterators over discrete domains:

• for J in 1..10 loop ... end loop;
• for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) { ... }

» Design issues:

• evaluation of bounds (only once, since ALGOL 60)
• scope of loop variable
• empty loops
• increments other than 1
• backwards iteration
• non-numeric domains

Evaluation of Bounds

for J in 1..N loop
...
N := N + 1;
end loop; -- terminates?

» Yes – in ADA, bounds are evaluated once before iteration starts. Note: the above loop uses abominable style. C/C++/JAVA loop has hybrid semantics:

for (int j = 0; j < last; j++) {
...
last++; -- terminates?
}

» No – the condition "j < last" is evaluated at the end of each iteration
### The Loop Variable
- **is it mutable?**
- **what is its scope? (i.e. local to loop?)**

### Constant and local is a better choice:
- **constant:** disallows changes to the variable, which can affect the loop execution and be confusing
- **local:** don’t need to worry about value of variable after loop exits

```plaintext
Count: integer := 17;
...
for Count in 1..10 loop
  ...
end loop;
... -- Count is still 17
```

### Different Increments
- **ALGOL 60:**
  ```plaintext
  for j from exp1 to exp2 by exp3 do ...
  ```
  - too rich for most cases; typically, exp3 is +1 or -1.
  - what are semantics if exp1 > exp2 and exp3 < 0?
- **C/C++:**
  ```plaintext
  for (int j = exp1; j <= exp2; j += exp3) ...
  ```
- **ADA:**
  ```plaintext
  for J in 1..N loop ...
  for J in reverse 1..N loop ...
  ```
  Everything else can be programmed with a while loop
Non-Numeric Domains

ADA form generalizes to discrete types:

```
for M in months loop ... end loop;
```

Basic pattern on other data types:

- define primitive operations: first, next, more_elements
- implement for loop as:

```
iterator = Collection.Iterate();
element thing = iterator.first;
for (element thing = iterator.first;
    iterator.more_elements();
    thing = iterator.next()) {
    ...
}
```

List Comprehensions

- PYTHON calls them “generator expressions”
- Concise syntax for generating lists
- Example:

```
l = [1,2,3,4]
t = 'a', 'b'
c1 = [x for x in l if x % 2 == 0]
c2 = [(x,y) for x in l if x < 3 for y in t]
print str(c1) # [2,4]
print str(c2) # [(1, 'a'),(1, 'b'),(2, 'a'),(2, 'b')]
```

- Shorthand for:

```
c2 = []
for x in l:
    if x < 3:
        for y in t:
            c2.append((x,y))
```
Pre- and Post-conditions

How can we prove that a loop does what we want? **pre-conditions** and **post-conditions**:

\[ \{P\} S \{Q\} \]

If proposition \( P \) holds before executing \( S \), and the execution of \( S \) terminates, then proposition \( Q \) holds afterwards.

Need to formulate:

- pre- and post-conditions for all statement forms
- syntax-directed rules of inference

\[
\frac{\{P \text{ and } C\} S \{P\}}{\{P \text{ and } C\} \text{ while } C \text{ do } S \text{ endloop } \{P \text{ and not } C\}}
\]

Efficient Exponentiation

**function** Exp (Base: Integer;
Expon: Integer) **return** Integer **is**

\( \text{N: Integer := Expon; -- successive bits of exponent} \)
\( \text{Res: Integer := 1; -- running result} \)
\( \text{Pow: Integer := Base; -- successive powers: Base2I} \)

begin
  while N > 0 loop
    if N mod 2 = 1 then
      Res := Res * Pow;
    end if;
    Pow := Pow * Pow;
    N := N / 2;
  end loop;
  return Res;
end Exp;
**Iteration / Loops (14/14)**

**Adding invariants**

```plaintext
function Exp (Base: Integer; Expon: Integer) return Integer is
    N: Integer := Expon; -- successive bits of exponent
    Res: Integer := 1; -- running result
    Pow: Integer := Base; -- successive powers: Base\(^2^i\)
begin
    {i = 0} -- count iterations
    while N > 0 loop
        {i := i + 1}
        if N mod 2 = 1 then
            Res := Res + Pow; -- i-th bit of Expon from left
            {Res := Base\(^\text{Expon mod } 2^i\)}
        end if;
        Pow := Pow \times Pow; -- \text{Pow := Base}^{2^i}
        N := N / 2; -- \text{N := Expon//}(2^i)
    end loop;
    return Res; -- i = \log \text{Expon}; Res = Base^\text{Expon}; N = 0
end Exp;
```

---

**Recursion (1/3)**

- **Recursion**
  - equally powerful to iteration
  - mechanical transformations back and forth
  - often more intuitive (sometimes less)
  - *naïve* implementation less efficient
    - no special syntax required
    - fundamental to functional languages like Scheme
Tail recursion

» No computation follows recursive call
  • In this case we do not need to keep multiple copies of the local variables since, when one invocation calls the next, the first is finished with its copy of the variables and the second one can reuse them rather than pushing another set of local variables on the stack. This is very helpful for performance.

```c
int gcd (int a, int b) {
    /* assume a, b > 0 */
    if (a == b) return a;
    else if (a > b) return gcd (a - b, b);
    else return gcd (a, b - a);
}
```

Iterative version of the previous program:

```c
int gcd (int a, int b) {
    /* assume a, b > 0 */
    start:
    if (a == b) return a;
    if (a > b) {
        a = a - b;
        goto start;
    }
    b = b - a;
    goto start;
}
```
Appendix

1. APL
2. Ada95
3. J
4. Perl
5. Python

History

- Developed by Kenneth Iverson in the early 1960’s
- Tool for mathematicians
  - Tool for thought
  - Way of thinking
  - Very high level language for matrix manipulation
- Widely used by actuaries in Insurance
- Use restricted by special character set including greek letters and other symbols
Typing and Scope

- Dynamic Scope
- Two Types – Numbers and Characters
  - Automatic conversion between floating point and integer
  - Strings are character vectors
  - Boolean values are 0 and 1
- Type associated with Values, not names
  - Tagged types
  - Run-time checking

Examples
Syntax

- Simple syntax
  - Right to left evaluation
  - infix operators and functions
  - modifiers (verbs and adverbs)
    - Modifiers are operators that modify the operation of other operators
  - Can be parsed with only 3 states (Zaks)

- Expression Language
  - No selection or looping statements
  - Only goto

- Scalar operators automatically extend to matrices
  - Loops are unusual in APL

Operations on numbers

Monadic

- \( \oplus, \ominus \) -- grade up/down
  - \( X \oplus X \ominus X \) returns indices of elements in sorted order
- \( \lceil, \lfloor \) -- ceiling/floor
  - \( \lceil 3.4 \rceil = 4 \)

Dyadic

- \( \oplus, \ominus \) -- max, min
  - \( x \oplus y \) returns maximum of \( x \) or \( y \)  \( 2 \oplus 3 = 3 \)
### Operations on Arrays

- **interval**
  - \( \hat{n} \) returns a vector of integers from origin to \( n \)
  - \( \hat{4} = 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \)
- **size**
  - \( \mathbb{0} \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 = 4 \)
- **Dyadic**
  - **shape**
    - reshapes an array
    - \( 2 \ 2 \mathbb{0} \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \) creates a \( 2 \times 2 \) array
- **Transpose**
  - Rotates an array along the major diagonal
- **Domino**
  - Does matrix inversion and division

### Operators on Operators

- **outer product**
  - \( \hat{\oplus} \) +
  - \( 1 \ 2 \hat{\oplus} \cdot \ 3 \ 4 \)
  - \( 4 \ 5 \)
  - \( 5 \ 6 \)
- **inner product**
  - \( \hat{\cdot} \) <
  - \( 1 \ 2 \hat{\cdot} \cdot \cdot\ 3 \ 4 \) – matrix multiplication
  - \( 7 \ 14 \)
- **reduction**
  - \( \hat{+/} \)
  - \( +/2 \ 3 \ 4 = 9 \)
  - equivalent to \( 2 + 3 + 4 \)
- **scan**
  - \( \hat{+/\} \)
  - \( +/\ 2 \ 3 \ 4 = 2 \ 5 \ 9 \)
  - like reduction, but with intermediate results
  - \( ^/\ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 = 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \)
  - turns on all bits after first 1
- Any dyadic operator can be used for + or <
Appendix

1. APL
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Ada95

- Overview of Ada95
  » http://cs.nyu.edu/courses/fall01/G22.2110-001/pl.lec3.ppt
- Ada Summary
  » http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/AdaIntro.html
- Notes on Ada
  » http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/AdaNotes.html
- Syntax of Ada95:
  » http://www.cs.nyu.edu/courses/fall05/G22.2110-001/RM-P.html
### Appendix

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<th>Language</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>APL</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Perl</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Python</td>
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</table>

See [http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/JDictionary.pdf](http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/JDictionary.pdf)
See

http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/q22.2110-001/handouts/PrototypingInPerl.pdf
Appendix

1. APL
2. Ada95
3. J
4. Perl
5. Python

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Python

- Introduction to Python
  - [http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/PythonIntro.pdf](http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/PythonIntro.pdf)
- Python Summary
  - [http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/PythonSummary.pdf](http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/PythonSummary.pdf)
- Notes on Python
  - [http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/PythonNotes.html](http://www.nyu.edu/classes/jcf/g22.2110-001/handouts/PythonNotes.html)
Assignments & Readings

- Readings
  - Chapter Sections 6.1-6.5

- Programming Assignment:
  - See Programming Assignment #1 posted under “handouts” on the course Web site
  - Due on March 3, 2011

Next Session:

- Subprograms:
  - Functions and Procedures
  - Parameter Passing
  - Nested Procedures
  - First-Class and Higher-Order Functions