Programmer-Defined Control Operations

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Although most programming languages have facilities that allow programmers to define procedures that augment the repertoire of built-in functions, comparatively few programming languages have facilities for defining control operations. This is not surprising, since the number of different control operations that can be comfortably accommodated in most programming languages is relatively small. Expressions in Icon can generate a sequence of results. This adds a dimension to control operations that is lacking in most programming languages and makes programmer-defined control operations interesting and useful. This paper describes such a facility and gives a number of examples of its use, including the definition of argument evaluation regimes.

1. INTRODUCTION

Broadly speaking, a control operation is any program mechanism that directly affects the flow of control in a program. Fisher¹ identifies six types of control operations: sequential processing, parallel processing, testing, monitoring, synchronization, and relative continuity. The scope of this paper, and hence of the discussion that follows, is more limited and only considers operations that affect the sequencing of expression evaluation. The term *control operation* is used here to cover mechanisms in this domain, implicit or explicit, while the term *control structure* is reserved for such operations that are distinguished syntactically. For example,

if $expr_1$ then $expr_2$ else $expr_3$

is a control structure. On the other hand, argument evaluation in a typical expression-oriented programming language is an implicit operation. A control operation that is broadly applicable to expression evaluation, as is argument evaluation, is referred to as a *control regime*.

While most programming languages have facilities that allow programmers to define procedures that augment the repertoire of built-in functions, comparatively few programming languages have facilities for defining control operations. There are exceptions, including Madcap 6² and the extensible language EL1.³ Some work^{4,1} has been focused directly on the definition of control operations.

The comparative lack of facilities for programmer-defined control operations is not surprising. While the number of programming language constructs that can be classified as control operations is large, most of them are variants on a few control themes. Furthermore, the number of different control operations that can be comfortably and consistently accommodated in most programming languages is relatively small. The design of a set of control operations usually is more a matter of selection and refinement than of invention. The motivation for programmer-defined control operations therefore is relatively small in the context of conventional programming languages.

The Icon programming language is another matter. Expression evaluation in Icon, in which an expression can generate a sequence of results, poses many interesting and novel problems in control operation design. In the

evolution of Icon through several versions, more significant changes were made in control operation design than in any other area of the language.⁵

The manipulation of sequences of results adds a dimension to control operations that is lacking in most programming languages. The question is not what traditional control operations to select, but which of many possibilities to explore. In Icon, the problem of control operation design becomes very similar to the design of the built-in operation repertoire in most programming languages. As with the selection of a set of built-in operations, the problem remains of providing facilities for the definition of others.

This paper describes a simple programmer-defined control operation mechanism (PDCO) and gives a number of examples of its use.

2. CONTROL ASPECTS OF ICON

In order to understand all the programming examples in this paper, the reader should be familiar with Icon.^{6,7} The following sections review the most relevant material, concentrating on concepts related to control operations.

2.1 Expression evaluation

2.1.1 Result sequences. In most programming languages, the evaluation of an expression produces exactly one result. Thus it is typical for a comparison expression, such as

to produce a Boolean value, *true* or *false*, depending on whether or not the specified relation holds.

In Icon, an expression is capable of producing a sequence of zero or more results. Ordinary computational operations, such as

$$i + j$$

produce a single result as they do in more conventional languages. On the other hand, a comparison expression, such as

produces a result (the value of i) if the specified relation

holds, but it does not produce a result if the relation does not hold. That is, a comparison has a sequence of zero or one results, depending on the values of its arguments. A sequence of zero results corresponds to *failure*, whereas a sequence of more than zero results corresponds to *success*.

SNOBOL4⁸ resembles Icon in this respect. Although SNOBOL4 terminology refers to success and failure as 'signals', expression evaluation in SNOBOL4 can be described equally well in terms of sequence of zero or one results.

The motivation for using sequence terminology rather than signals comes from expressions that may produce more than one result. An example is

which is capable of producing the integers in sequence from i to j, inclusive.

The sequence of results that an expression is capable of producing is called its result sequence⁹ and is denoted by the sequence of results enclosed in braces. For example, the result sequence for

is {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}.

Expressions that are capable of producing more than one result are called *generators*. ¹⁰ Such expressions occur in pattern matching in SNOBOL4. For example, the pattern ARB is capable of matching strings of length zero, one, two, and so on. There is no way in SNOBOL4, however, to access these results directly; they are implicit in the pattern-matching process. The use of the term generator serves to emphasize the capacity of some expressions to produce more than one result. There is, however, no actual distinction in Icon between generators and other expressions. All expressions have result sequences, although some result sequences may be of length zero or one.

Icon has many generators. One example is find(s1, s2), whose result sequence is the positions in s2, from left to right, at which s1 occurs as a substring. For example,

find('on', 'one motion is optional')

has the result sequence $\{1, 9, 19\}$.

Another generator is !x, whose result sequence is the elements of x, from left to right. For example, if a is a list

$$a := ['a', 'an', 'the']$$

then the result sequence for !a is {'a', 'an', 'the'}.

The alternation control structure,

$$expr_1 | expr_2$$

has a result sequence consisting of the concatenation of the result sequences for $expr_1$ and $expr_2$. For example, the result sequence for

Whether an expression produces all the results in its result sequence depends on context. Once a generator has produced a result, it must be resumed to produce another result. A generator that has produced all the results in its result sequence is said to be depleted. The resumption of a depleted generator does not produce a result.

There are two contexts in which expressions are resumed: iteration and goal-directed evaluation.

2.1.2 Iteration. The control structure

every $expr_1$ do $expr_2$

resumes $expr_1$ repeatedly, producing all the results in the result sequence for $expr_1$. For each result produced by $expr_1$, $expr_2$ is evaluated (not resumed). For example,

writes 1, 9, and 19. Note that the assignment is performed for each result that is produced by its right argument. The **do** clause in the iteration control structure is optional, allowing the expression above to be recast as

every write(find ('on', 'one motion is optional'))

2.1.3 Goal-directed evaluation. While iteration over result sequences is performed explicitly by a control structure, goal-directed evaluation is implicit.

In the evaluation of an expression, any generators in it are resumed until the expression produces a result (succeeds) or until all the generators in the expression are depleted. For example,

$$(x|y) = 10$$

succeeds if either x or y has the value 10 but it fails otherwise.

2.1.4 Compound generators. If an expression contains several generators, the results it produces are determined by the order in which the generators are resumed. This order is fundamental to expression evaluation in Icon. Operators and functions differ only in syntax. To simplify the discussion that follows, the term *function* is used for both.

In the absence of control structures, the arguments of a function call are evaluated from left to right. If evaluation of any argument expression fails, the last argument expression to be evaluated is resumed to produce another result. If it is depleted and does not produce a result, the next previous argument expression is resumed, and so on. When a resumed argument expression produces a result, the remaining argument expressions to the right are evaluated again. If the first argument expression fails to produce a result, the function is not invoked and the entire expression fails. If all the arguments produce a result, the function is invoked with those argument values. If the function fails for these argument values, the last argument expression is resumed for another result and evaluation of the argument expressions proceeds as described above. Thus generators are resumed in a last-in, first-out manner.

In the context of iteration, all possible combinations of results from the result sequences of all expressions are produced. In goal-directed evaluation, results are produced until the expression succeeds or until all generators are depleted. For example, in

the order of function invocation is

find(s1, s3)

find(s1, s4)

find(s2, s3)

find(s2, s4)

Similarly, the result sequence for

```
(1|3) + (2 \text{ to } 5)
```

To summarize, left-to-right evaluation, coupled with last-in, first-out resumption applies to the evaluation of all operations and functions in Icon and is the only built-in argument evaluation regime.

2.1.5 Other generative control structures. The control structure

```
expr_1 \setminus expr_2
```

limits the result sequence for $expr_1$ to at most $expr_2$ results. For example, the result sequence for

find(
$$s1, s2$$
)\10

is at most the first 10 positions at which s1 occurs as a substring of s2. $expr_2$ is evaluated before $expr_1$ (contrary to the normal left-to-right mode of evaluation in Icon) and $expr_2$ can be a generator. For example, the result sequence for

```
(1 to 3)\(1 to 3)
is {1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 3}.
Repeated alternation,
```

produces the result sequence for expr repeatedly. For example, the result sequence for

```
(1 \text{ to } 3)
```

is {1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, ...}. This result sequence is infinite, but it can be limited as described above. To prevent the possibility of an internal resumption loop that could not be limited at the source-language level, repeated alternation has the additional property that if expr ever produces an empty result sequence, repeated alternation terminates at that point. For example, the result sequence for

```
read()
```

is the sequence of lines from input. This sequence terminates when read() fails at the end of the input file.

2.2 Procedures

Procedures in Icon are similar to those in most traditional programming languages, except that they can fail or can produce a sequence of results. Return of a single result is indicated by

```
return expr
```

while failure is indicated by **fail**. Flowing off the end of a procedure body without an explicit return is equivalent to **fail**.

A sequence of results can be produced by using

```
suspend expr
```

which returns the results of evaluating expr but leaves the procedure environment intact so that it can be resumed

to produce another result. For example

```
procedure To(i, j)

while i <= j do {

suspend i

i + := 1

}

end
```

is a procedural version of

i to j

end

The suspend control structure iterates over the result sequence for its argument in the manner of every-do, suspending with successive results. Consider the procedure

```
procedure octcode() suspend (0 \text{ to } 1) \parallel (0 \text{ to } 7) \parallel (0 \text{ to } 7) end
```

The expression **octcode()** has the result sequence $\{000, 001, \ldots, 007, 010, \ldots, 077, 100, \ldots, 177\}$. Another example is

procedure odd() local isuspend (i = 1) | |(i + = 2)

which has the infinite result sequence $\{1, 3, 5, 7, \ldots\}$.

Procedures and functions, which are simply built-in procedures, are data objects in Icon. Thus the value of write is a function; write is a global identifier whose initial value is a function. Similarly, a procedure declaration causes the name of the procedure to be a global identifier whose initial value is the procedure itself. The term procedure is used subsequently to refer to functions as well as procedures.

In a call of the form

```
expr(expr_1, expr_2, ..., expr_n)
```

expr can be any procedure-valued expression. Consider, for example, the following list of two procedures

```
plist ≔ [find, upto]
`hen
```

plist[1](s1, s2) is equivalent to

find(s1, s2)

The expression that produces the procedure value also can be a generator. For example, the result sequence for

```
(!plist)(s1, s2)
```

consists of the concatenation of the result sequences for find(s1, s2) and upto(s1, s2).

2.3 Co-expressions

The only way that an expression can be resumed to produce a sequence of results is by iteration or goal-directed evaluation. Consequently, the results that an expression can produce are strictly limited to the lexical site of the expression. Co-expressions⁷ overcome this limitation. A co-expression 'captures' an expression and

its environment so that the expression can be explicitly resumed at any time and place.

The expression

```
create expr
```

produces a co-expression for expr. This co-expression consists of the information that is necessary to evaluate expr: a reference to expr itself, a location that indicates where the evaluation of expr is to resume, and copies of the local identifiers that are referenced in expr. For example,

```
e := create find(s1, s2)
```

assigns to e a co-expression for the expression find(s1, s2). If s1 and s2 are local to the procedure in which this expression occurs, the co-expression contains copies of these identifiers with the values that s1 and s2 have when the **create** is performed. The expression find(s1, s2) is not evaluated when the **create** is performed.

A co-expression is activated by the operation

(a)e

When a co-expression is activated, its expression is resumed to produce a result. The activation of a co-expression fails if its expression does not produce a result. Thus

```
e := create find(s1, s2) while write(@e)
```

is equivalent to

```
every write(find(s1, s2))
```

Since activation is an explicit operation, the results of an expression can be produced wherever or whenever they are needed. For example,

```
e := \text{create find}(s1, s2)
while write(@e) do
@e
```

writes the odd-numbered results from the sequence for find(s1, s2).

The operation

*e

produces the number of results that have been produced by activating e—its current 'size'. For example

```
e := create find(s1, s2) while @e write(*e)
```

writes the number of positions at which s1 occurs as a substring of s2.

The activation of a co-expression fails after its expression has produced its last result, and the 'size' of the co-expression does not increase.

The operation

∧ e

produces a copy of the co-expression e with its evaluation location and the values of its local identifiers restored to the values they had when e was created. Thus the refresh operation provides a means of repeating the sequence of results for an expression.

When a refreshed copy of a co-expression is produced, the copies of the local identifiers in the co-expression are restored to their values at the time the co-expression was created. Global identifiers are not affected by refreshing.

3. THE PDCO FACILITY

The PDCO facility is an extension to Icon. It relies on coexpressions to provide the control over expression evaluation and resumption that is necessary to define control operations.

The expression

```
\mathbf{p}\{expr_1, expr_2, \ldots, expr_n\}
```

indicates a call of the procedure p with a single argument that consists of a list of co-expressions for $expr_1$, $expr_2$, ..., $expr_n$. That is,

```
\mathbf{p}\{expr_1, expr_2, \dots, expr_n\} is equivalent to
```

```
p([create expr_1, create expr_2, ..., create expr_n])
```

Thus when \mathbf{p} is called, $expr_1$, $expr_2$, ..., $expr_n$ are not evaluated but instead are passed to \mathbf{p} as a list of coexpressions. The procedure \mathbf{p} can then activate these coexpressions as necessary to perform a desired control operation. The number of arguments in the call is not limited. Some control operations may expect a fixed number of co-expressions, while other control operations may operate on an arbitrary number of co-expressions.

The braces in place of the usual parentheses to indicate a procedure call serve two purposes: (1) they obviate the writing of the list and creation expressions, and (2) they differentiate visually between an ordinary procedure call and the invocation of a control procedure.

An example of the use of this facility is given by the control operation

```
Alt{expr_1, expr_2}
```

that models the control structure

```
expr_1 | expr_2
The control procedure is
```

```
procedure Alt(a) local x
```

while x = @a[1] do suspend x # produce sequence for first expression while x = @a[2] do suspend x # produce sequence for second expression end

which is invoked as

```
Alt{expr_1, expr_2}
```

The expressions a[1] and a[2] are co-expressions for $expr_1$ and $expr_2$, respectively. Alt first activates a[1] repeatedly, suspending with each result for $expr_1$. When the activation of a[1] fails, the same process is performed for a[2]. This control procedure shows how simple alternation really is.

Note that the way Alt is written, it must be called with two arguments. A check on the size of a could be added to detect a call with an incorrect number of arguments.

Since a control procedure can be called with an arbitrary number of arguments, it is easy to generalize operations like Alt. For example,

```
procedure Galt(a)
local e, x
every e := !a do
# get next expression
while x := @e do suspend x \neq produce sequence for expression
```

produces the alternation of an arbitrary number of arguments (the generator !a produces the co-expressions in the list from left to right). For example, the result sequence for

```
Galt{1 to 5, 4 to 6, 2 to 5} is {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 4, 5, 6, 2, 3, 4, 5}.
```

4. EXAMPLES

The following sections present a number of examples of the use of PDCO. First some of the built-in generative control structures of Icon are modelled using PDCO. Next some examples of control operations that are not built into Icon are introduced. Finally, the power of PDCO is demonstrated by the definition of new argument evaluation regimes.

4.1 Modelling built-in control structures

4.1.1 Iteration. The relationship between the traditional control structure

```
while expr_1 do expr_2
```

in which expr₁ is repeatedly evaluated, and

```
every expr_1 do expr_2
```

in which expr₁ is repeatedly resumed, is shown in the following model for iteration:

```
procedure Every(a)
while @a[1] do{
a[2] := \land a[2]
@a[2]
\# resume first expression
\# refresh and
\# evaluate second expression
}
end
```

That is,

Every $\{expr_1, expr_2\}$

models

every expr₁ do expr₂

Note that a refreshed copy of the second argument coexpression is made before it is activated. This corresponds to the fact that $expr_2$ is *evaluated* anew for each result produced by the *resumption* of $expr_1$. This procedure can be made more concise by noting that the refreshed copy can be activated directly without changing the second value in the argument list:

```
procedure Every(a)
while @a[1] do @ \land a[2]
end
```

This procedure assumes that it is called with two arguments. A check on the size of a can be added easily to take care of the common usage

```
every expr
```

4.1.2 Limiting result sequences. The limitation control structure

```
expr_1 \setminus expr_2
```

can be modelled by the following control procedure:

```
procedure Limit(a)
local i, x
while i = @a[2] do { # get limit
a[1] := \land a[1]
every 1 to i do # produce sequence to limit
if x := @a[1] then suspend x
else fail
}
end
```

In Limit, the second argument co-expression is repeatedly activated in a loop to produce a sequence of limits, i, for activations of the first argument. For each value of i, a refreshed copy of the first argument is made. This is not necessary for the first value of i, but it is necessary for subsequent values. The first argument co-expression is then activated repeatedly and Limit suspends with each result it produces. If the result sequence for the first argument terminates before producing i values, fail causes Limit to return without producing another value. When the inner loop is completed, the second argument co-expression is activated again, and so on.

4.1.3 Repeated alternation. Repeated alternation is modelled by the following control procedure.

```
procedure Repalt(a) | local x | repeat \{ | while x := @a[1] do suspend x \# produce the sequence if *a[1] = 0 then fail \# exit on empty sequence else a[1] := \land a[1] \# else \ refresh \ and \ repeat end
```

After suspending with the sequence of results for the argument, the size of the co-expression is checked. If it is zero, indicating that no results were produced, the procedure terminates. Otherwise, the argument co-expression is refreshed and the loop is repeated.

It is worth noting that repeated alternation can be used to make the coding of some control procedures more concise. The expression

```
suspend |@a[i]|
```

suspends with the same sequence of results as

```
while x := @a[i] do suspend x
```

For example, Galt can be written as

```
procedure Galt(a)
local e
every e := !a do suspend |@e|
```

Consider, however, the following proposed revision:

```
procedure Galt(a)
suspend |@!a
end
```

This procedure does not work as intended, since the generator !a is resumed before the repeated alternation. The analysis of the result sequence produced by this procedure is a good test of understanding of generators and argument evaluation in Icon. See Section 4.2.3.

4.2 New control operations

While the implementation of built-in control operations using PDCO demonstrates its capabilities and illustrates programming techniques used in control procedures, the really interesting applications involve control operations that are not built into Icon.

4.2.1 The LISP conditional control structure. The LISP conditional control structure $cond^{11}$ is an example of a control structure that does not appear in Icon and has no direct relation to generators. It can be modelled by

```
Lcond\{expr_1, expr_2, ..., expr_n\}
```

where n is even. Beginning with $expr_1$, every other 'test' expression is evaluated from left to right until one succeeds (corresponding to a value that is not nil in LISP). The argument immediately to the right of this one is evaluated and produces the result of the control operation. If none of the tests succeeds, **Lcond** fails (in LISP the result is undefined). It is natural to adapt the LISP form of *cond* to Icon so that the selected expression produces a sequence of results, not just one:

```
procedure Lcond(a) local i every i = 1 to *a by 2 do # test expressions if @a[i] then { suspend |@a[i+1]| # produce selected sequence fail } end
```

Even more natural to Icon is the combination of the test with the selection, so that the first expression that succeeds provides the result sequence for the control operation:

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{procedure Cond}(a) \\ \textbf{local } i, x \\ \textbf{every } i \coloneqq 1 \textbf{ to } * a \textbf{ do} \\ \textbf{if } x \coloneqq @a[i] \textbf{ then } \{ & \# \textit{ test for success} \\ \textbf{suspend } x & \# \textit{ produce first result} \\ \textbf{suspend} @a[i] & \# \textit{ produce rest of results} \\ \textbf{fail} & \} \\ \textbf{end} \end{array}
```

4.2.2 Selecting results from sequences. In the limitation control structure

```
expr_1 \setminus expr_2
```

if the value of $expr_2$ is i, results $1, 2, \ldots i$ are produced from the result sequence for $expr_1$. This is just a special case of selecting results i_1, i_2, \ldots from the result sequence for $expr_1$. If this selection operation is called **Select**, then, for example, the result sequence for

```
Select{octcode(), odd()}
```

```
is \{000, 002, \ldots, 008, 010, \ldots, 100, \ldots, 176\}.
```

In order to make a reasonable implementation of this control operation possible, the selecting values are required to be in monotone non-decreasing order. The control procedure for this operation is

```
procedure Select(a)
local i, j, x
j = 0
```

```
while i := @a[2] do \{ # selector
while j < i do # count through the sequence
if x := @a[1] then j + := 1 # count up
else fail # or exit if none
if i = j then suspend x # produce the selected one
else stop ('selection sequence error')
\}
end
```

The control operation fails if the result sequence for the first argument is depleted before the selecting value reached. If a selecting value is not in monotone non-decreasing order, program execution is terminated with an error message.

4.2.3 Collating results. Because of the order of resumption in iteration and goal-directed evaluation, it is not possible to produce the results from several expressions 'in parallel'. For example, if al and a2 are lists, alternate results cannot be obtained from them by using !a1 and !a2.

It is easy to formulate a control operation, Colseq, that produces results from several expressions in parallel. In fact the proposed, but incorrect compact version of Galt performs just this control operation:

```
procedure Colseq(a)
suspend |@!a
```

Thus the result sequence for

```
Colseq{1 to 5, 6 to 10} is {1, 6, 2, 7, 3, 8, 4, 9, 5, 10}.
```

In this formulation, if the result sequence for one expression is depleted before another, the remaining results from the longer sequences are produced. Therefore the result sequence for

```
Colseq{1 to 3, 6 to 10} is {1, 6, 2, 7, 3, 8, 9, 10}.
```

4.3 Argument evaluation regimes

4.3.1 Lifo resumption. As described in Section 2.2, the call of a procedure amounts to the evaluation of a list of expressions, the first of which produces the procedure to which the remaining values are supplied. The evaluation of the expressions is from left to right. In the case that an expression fails, the previous expression is resumed. This lifo resumption is built into the evaluation of all procedure calls and is implicit in Icon.¹² In the absence of side effects, the left-to-right order of argument evaluation is not important. The order of resumption is important, since it determines the order in which the possible combinations of argument values are produced.

Modelling the built-in argument evaluation regime of Icon illustrates the capabilities of PDCO and also focuses attention on an essential aspect of expression evaluation in Icon.

Since the expression that produces the procedure to be applied is not treated any differently from the other expressions in the argument evaluation process, a call that has the form

```
expr_1(expr_2, expr_3, ..., expr_n)
can be modelled by the control operation
Lifo{expr_1, expr_2, expr_3, ..., expr_n}
```

There are two parts to the modelling of a procedure call: (1) the evaluation of the argument expressions, and (2) the invocation of the procedure. If the invocation of the procedure fails, both parts are repeated. This process is repeated until there are no more combinations of argument values.

The control procedure is

```
procedure Lifo(a)
  local i, x
  x = list(*a)
                              # list for argument values
  i = 1
  repeat {
     while 1 < = i < = *a do
       if x[i] := @a[i] then \{\# \text{ if argument produces value, go to next } \}
          i + = 1
          a[i] := \wedge a[i]
                              # refresh it
       else i - = 1
                              # if argument fails, go back to previous one
     if i < 1 then fail
                              # fail if first argument failed
     else {
       suspend Call(x)
                              # else call function
       i = *a
                              # set up to resume last argument
end
```

The **do** clause in the **while** loop is evaluated as long as i is in range of the argument list. If an argument produces a result, i is incremented. In this case the next argument is refreshed so that it will produce its first result when it is next activated. This expression fails if the new value of i is greater than *a, but this does not matter, since the **while** loop terminates immediately.

If an argument does not produce a result, *i* is decremented so that the previous argument is activated again on the next iteration of the **while** loop.

The while loop terminates when i is either less than 1 or greater than *a. The former case occurs if there is no combination of argument values to pass to the procedure. The latter case occurs when there is a combination of argument values to pass to the procedure.

The procedure Call implements the actual application of the procedure to its arguments. Note that if Call fails, the argument evaluation process resumes argument expressions to provide another list of argument values for Call. On the other hand, if Call succeeds, the value it produces is produced by Lifo. If Lifo is resumed again, either because of iteration or goal-directed evaluation, Call is resumed first. Argument expressions are resumed only if Call fails.

Since there is no way in Icon to invoke a procedure with an arbitrary number of arguments, the invocation in Call is broken down into cases according to the size of a.

```
procedure Call(a)
suspend case *a of{
1: a[1]()
2: a[1](a[2])
3: a[1](a[2], a[3])
4: a[1](a[2], a[3], a[4])
5: a[1](a[2], a[3], a[4], a[5])
6: a[1](a[2], a[3], a[4], a[5], a[6])
:
default: stop ('too many arguments to Call')
}
end
```

Note that a[1] is the procedure that is actually invoked. If the invocation succeeds, **Call** suspends with the result so that if **Lifo** is resumed, a[1] is resumed in turn.

4.3.2 Fifo resumption. Although lifo resumption is built into Icon, it is not the only way that argument lists can be produced. An alternative method is *fifo* resumption, in which the first, rather than the last, argument is resumed if invocation of the procedure fails.

The difference between lifo and fifo resumption is illustrated by the order of the calls for an expression like

```
find(s1 | s2, s3 | s4)
```

In the model for lifo resumption, the call is

```
Lifo{find, s1 | s2, s3 | s4}
```

and the order of invocation of find is

find(s1, s3) find(s1, s4) find(s2, s3) find(s2, s4)

In the model for fifo resumption, the call is

```
Fifo{find, s1 | s2, s3 | s4}
```

and the order of invocation of find is

find(s1, s3) find(s2, s3) find(s1, s4) find(s2, s4)

These two different orders of invocation of find produce the same results but in different orders. In life resumption, the last argument is 'varied' first, which the converse is true in fife resumption. Either order might be preferred, depending on the situation. In life resumption, the primary concern is on the positions of a substring in different strings, whereas in fife resumption, the primary concern is where different substrings occur in a string.

This alternative argument evaluation regime requires only a small variation on the control procedure **Lifo**. For the details, see Ref. 13.

4.3.3 Parallel resumption. One of the well-known deficiencies of lifo resumption is its inability to allow parallel evaluation of expressions. ¹⁰ A special case of parallel generation is given in Section 4.2.3, but there is no control regime for parallel evaluation. One approach to parallel evaluation is to simply resume every argument each time a new list of argument values is required. The control procedure for doing this is considerably simpler than for lifo and fifo resumption:

```
procedure Parallel(a)
local, i, x
x := list(*a)
repeat {
   every i := 1 to *a do
x[i] := @a[i] | fail
   suspend Call(x)
}
end
```

Evaluation stops when any argument fails to produce a value.

The usefulness of parallel resumption is illustrated by the following call:

In this expression, **octcode** is a generator of octal codes as given in Section 2.2, whereas **deccode** and **hexcode** are similar generators of decimal and hexadecimal codes, respectively.

Since all arguments are resumed in parallel, any argument, such as write, that would be a single value in life or fife resumption must be generated repeatedly in a parallel resumption call.

The result of evaluating this expression is a table of corresponding octal, decimal, and hexadecimal codes. The expression terminates when any of the generators, such as **octcode**, is depleted. The form of the output for this example is:

000	000	ΛΛ
UUU	000	00
001	001	01
002	002	02
003	003	03
004	004	04
005	005	05
006	006	06
007	007	07
010	008	08
011	009	09
012	010	0 A
•		

5. IMPLEMENTATION

The implementation of PDCO is quite simple. All that is necessary is a mechanism for translating the syntax for invoking control procedures into standard Icon. That is, expressions of the form

$$\mathbf{p}\{expr_1, expr_2, \ldots, expr_n\}$$

must be translated into

$$\mathbf{p}([\mathbf{create}\ expr_1, \mathbf{create}\ expr_2, \ldots, \mathbf{create}\ expr_n])$$

There are several ways of doing this. One is a preprocessor. Such a preprocessor, to be correct and general, must accurately parse Icon programs.

Instead, a variant Icon translator was constructed. This was easy to do, since the Icon parser¹⁴ is generated automatically by **yacc**. ¹⁵ A rule was added to the grammar to recognize constructions of the form

$$\mathbf{p}\{expr_1, expr_2, \ldots, expr_n\}$$

with a semantic action to produce the same result as

$$\mathbf{p}([\mathbf{create}\ expr_1, \mathbf{create}\ expr_2, \ldots, \mathbf{create}\ expr_n])$$

Because normal procedure invocations and control procedure invocations can be nested within each other, it is necessary to maintain a stack in the parser-generator whose top value indicates whether an expression in an argument list is to have co-expression creation code inserted.

Note that standard Icon syntax is a proper subset of the PDCO syntax. The variant translator therefore correctly processes standard Icon programs.

6. LIMITATIONS

There are several problems in the programming and use of control operations.

Some of these problems arise because Icon procedures cannot be declared with an arbitrary number of parameters. Furthermore, there is no way for an Icon procedure to determine how many arguments have been passed to it. The most offensive instance of this problem occurs in the implementation of argument evaluation regimes, where Call applies an actual procedure to a list of arguments. There is no way to avoid the problem at this point and a number of special cases must be written explicitly. In theory there is the additional problem that no fixed number of cases can handle the general instance, but in practice this is not an important consideration. Fortunately this manifestation of the problem can be isolated in one procedure.

Another problem has to do with the scope of identifiers. When an co-expression is created, copies of the local identifiers in the expression are made. These copies then have no further connection with the corresponding local identifiers in the procedure in which the co-expression was created. Consequently, assignment to a local identifier in a co-expression has no effect on the value of the corresponding identifier outside that co-expression. Thus local identifiers cannot be used to communicate values between the arguments in a control operation. An expression such as

every
$$i := find(s1, s2)$$
 do write(i)

does not work properly when cast as the control operation

Every
$$\{i := find(s1, s2), write(i)\}$$

unless i is a global identifier.

Another scoping problem occurs when co-expressions are refreshed, since the values of the copies of the local identifiers in the co-expression are restored to the values they had at the time the co-expression was created. Thus a co-expression cannot use local identifiers for memory after it is refreshed. For example, in

$$i := 0$$

every write($|(i + := 1) \setminus (1 \text{ to } 3)$)

the values written are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6. On the other hand,

$$i := 0$$
 every write(Repalt $\{i + := 1\} \setminus (1 \text{ to } 3)$)

writes 1, 1, 2, 1, 2, 3 unless i is global.

These scoping problems can be circumvented at the expense of program organization by using only global identifiers in control operations.

There are also problems of syntactic context. For example, the expressions return, fail and suspend cannot occur in the scope of a create, since they subsequently could be used out of context. Although it is possible (and good idiomatic Icon) to use expressions of the form

the expression

is syntactically erroneous.

Similarly, break and next cannot occur in the scope of create unless they are within loops that are in the scope of create. Therefore the common Icon idiom

every expr do if expr₁ do expr₂ else break

cannot be cast as

Every $\{expr, if expr_1 then expr_2 else break\}$

7. CONCLUSIONS

Programmer-defined control operations in Icon have proved to be useful in two ways. In the first place, they have been used in a number of programming situations where the existing features of Icon are inadequate. An example is the generation of tabular text, in which the parallel resumption of arguments is particularly apt. More importantly, programmer-defined control operations have provided insights into the interaction of generators and sequencing of expression evaluation. PDCO provides a tool that can be used to verify conjectures and to stimulate new ideas.

Experience has shown that despite the limitations mentioned in the preceding section, PDCO is none the less a useful facility. This is probably largely due to the fact that the built-in control structures are adequate for handling those cases that would otherwise produce problems if defined control operations had to be used. The situation would be quite different if, for example, every-do were not built into the control repertoire of Icon.

A facility for programmer-defined control operations in the style of PDCO can be added to any programming language, such as LISP, in which expressions can be treated as data objects. Unevaluated expressions in SNOBOL4 and in SL5¹⁶ are in fact quite similar to co-expressions in Icon and the techniques of PDCO can be carried over into these languages in a straightforward way. In fact, the extended function definition facility for SNOBOL4¹⁷ and SL5's defined argument transmission mechanism allow arguments to be transmitted by expression without any additional support. In other languages, a preprocessor can be provided.

The usefulness of programmer-defined control operations in other programming languages is debatable, however. Most of the interesting applications of PDCO depend on the properties of generators. For example, when an unevaluated expression is evaluated in SNO-BOL4, it can only fail or produce a single result. It is the richness of expression evaluation provided by sequences of results that makes programmer-defined control operations potentially valuable for users instead of being just a programming language design tool. The emergence of generators as a general aspect of expressions in other languages¹⁸ suggests a growing area of applicability for defined control operations.

The most promising areas for further exploration of control operations in Icon appear to lie in argument evaluation regimes and control of procedure invocation.

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